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Why the Field Training Program

Field training exists because policing cannot be learned through knowledge alone. While the academy provides the essential foundation of law, policy, procedures, tactics, ethics, and organizational expectations, it cannot replicate the cognitive, emotional, and physiological demands of real-world policing. The academy primarily develops knowledge and technical understanding, but field training is where judgment, decision-making, problem-solving, and professional identity are formed. Knowledge teaches recruits the rules and how tasks should be performed. Field training teaches recruits to think, adapt, and make sound decisions under conditions of uncertainty, stress, and consequence. It is in the field, not the classroom, that recruits begin to integrate who they are with what the profession requires of them, shaping not just performance but identity.

The transition from the academy to field training represents a fundamental shift in how the brain is required to operate. In the classroom, learning occurs in a relatively controlled environment where recruits can rely on conscious reasoning, memory recall, and structured scenarios. In the field, the nervous system is immediately engaged. The recruit must process threat, unpredictability, emotional cues, environmental risk, time pressure, and interpersonal dynamics simultaneously. This creates a gap that is often misunderstood as a lack of effort or competence, when in reality it is a regulatory challenge. Field training is designed to close this gap by repeatedly exposing recruits to real-world situations and providing structure, supervision, feedback, and emotional support through the Field Training Officer. In this way, field training moves the recruit beyond knowing what to do to learning how to think and perform under pressure.

Field training also serves as a continuation of the selection process. A recruit may perform well academically and demonstrate technical proficiency in the academy, yet struggle when required to apply judgment and decision-making in live environments. Field training reveals how a recruit manages stress, tolerates ambiguity, responds to correction, recovers from mistakes, and adapts behavior over time. These qualities are not easily measured in the classroom but are essential to effective policing. When field training programs are intentionally designed and properly administered, they allow agencies to identify developmental needs early, provide targeted remedial support, and make informed decisions that protect the organization, the community, and the profession. The outcome is not simply better-trained officers, but officers who are better prepared to meet the realities of the job.

From an organizational and community standpoint, practical field training has significant downstream effects. Officers who develop sound judgment and emotional regulation are less likely to unnecessarily escalate encounters, violate policy, or engage in behavior that results in complaints or civil liability. Improvements in community relationships, reductions in lawsuits, and increased public trust are not accidental; they result from officers who can regulate themselves, solve problems, and make sound decisions under stress. Viewed in this way, field training is a strategic investment rather than an expense, directly supporting the agency's mission to protect life, property, and organizational legitimacy.

Most formal field training programs are structured in phases that progress from orientation and familiarization through increasingly complex training and evaluation to a final assessment. This progression mirrors how the brain learns under stress, through graded exposure, repetition, feedback, and consolidation. Early phases focus on foundational application and understanding, while later phases require integration, independence, and self-directed decision-making. By the final phase, the Field Training Officer primarily serves as an observer and evaluator, allowing the trainee to demonstrate readiness to function independently. Throughout all phases, continuous evaluation ensures that deficiencies are identified early and addressed deliberately, reinforcing learning while maintaining accountability.

It is most often during the coaching phase of development that a trainee becomes stuck. From a situational leadership perspective, this phase is characterized by motivation, fluctuating competence, and confidence. This is where underlying weaknesses surface and are expressed behaviorally, emotionally, and physiologically. A stuck trainee is rarely unmotivated or unwilling. More often, the trainee is experiencing cognitive overload, stress-related nervous system activation, or an internal conflict between expectations and reality. Under perceived threat, the brain prioritizes survival responses over higher-order reasoning, slowing learning, increasing errors, and undermining confidence. What appears as resistance or hesitation is frequently a sign of dysregulation rather than defiance.

Field training, however, is not a one-way process. The trainee's dysregulation often interacts with the Field Training Officer's own internal state. When progress stalls, the Field Training Officer may also become stuck, experiencing frustration, impatience, or uncertainty about how to move forward. At this point, personality dynamics play a critical role. The Enneagram provides a valuable framework for understanding how different Field Training Officers respond to stress and perceived failure. An officer who is driven by high standards and correctness may become rigid or overly critical when a trainee struggles. An officer who values control and decisiveness may increase pressure, believing intensity will produce results, while unintentionally heightening the trainee's stress response. An officer focused on success and performance may internalize the trainee's difficulties as a reflection of their own competence, leading to overfunctioning or impatience. An officer oriented toward security may become anxious or overly cautious, while one inclined toward harmony may avoid necessary confrontation, allowing problems to persist.

When the Field Training Officer is unaware of their own stress patterns and personality-based coping strategies, they may inadvertently contribute to the trainee's stuckness. Neuroscience demonstrates that nervous systems influence one another. A dysregulated trainer cannot effectively regulate a dysregulated trainee. Addressing the stuck Field Training Officer, therefore, requires intentional self-awareness and introspection. Recognizing internal signals such as tension, frustration, urgency, or avoidance allows the trainer to shift from reaction to regulation. The Enneagram helps the Field Training Officer understand not only what they are feeling, but why they feel it and how they are

likely to behave under pressure, creating opportunities for more intentional and adaptive responses.

Working effectively with a stuck trainee begins with regulation rather than instruction. When the nervous system is activated, the brain is less able to integrate new information. Slowing the pace of interaction, maintaining a calm tone, using silence intentionally, and adopting open, non-threatening body language all signal safety to the trainee's nervous system. Once regulation is restored, introspective coaching questions can help bring internal experience into conscious awareness. Asking what is happening internally for the trainee shifts the interaction from judgment to exploration. Reflecting the trainee's language, acknowledging emotional content, and attending to metaphors or body posture help surface underlying concerns without forcing them.

Throughout this process, the Field Training Officer must remain aware of their own internal state and personality tendencies. If frustration or uncertainty arises, it should be acknowledged rather than ignored. The Enneagram supports this process by helping the trainer recognize habitual reactions and intentionally choose responses that support learning rather than escalate stress. Solutions should remain trainee-owned whenever possible, as this approach restores confidence, increases motivation, and strengthens retention. The role of the Field Training Officer is not to rescue or control, but to guide, support, and appropriately challenge the trainee during their developmental phase.

Human beings naturally avoid discomfort, and sustained introspection can be emotionally taxing, particularly in high-stakes environments like policing. For this reason, the Field Training Officer must carefully balance challenge with support and urgency with patience. Stress paired with support promotes growth, while stress without support leads to shutdown. This balance requires emotional discipline, self-awareness, and courage from the Field Training Officer. When handled effectively, moments of stuckness become opportunities for growth rather than indicators of failure.

Ultimately, field training is not about producing officers who can merely work alone. It is about developing professionals who can think clearly, make sound decisions, solve problems, regulate themselves under pressure, and embody a healthy and resilient police identity. When neuroscience, behavioral science, situational leadership, and personality dynamics are intentionally integrated, field training becomes one of the most powerful tools an organization has for shaping culture, reducing risk, and preparing officers to serve both the community and the profession with competence, clarity, and integrity.

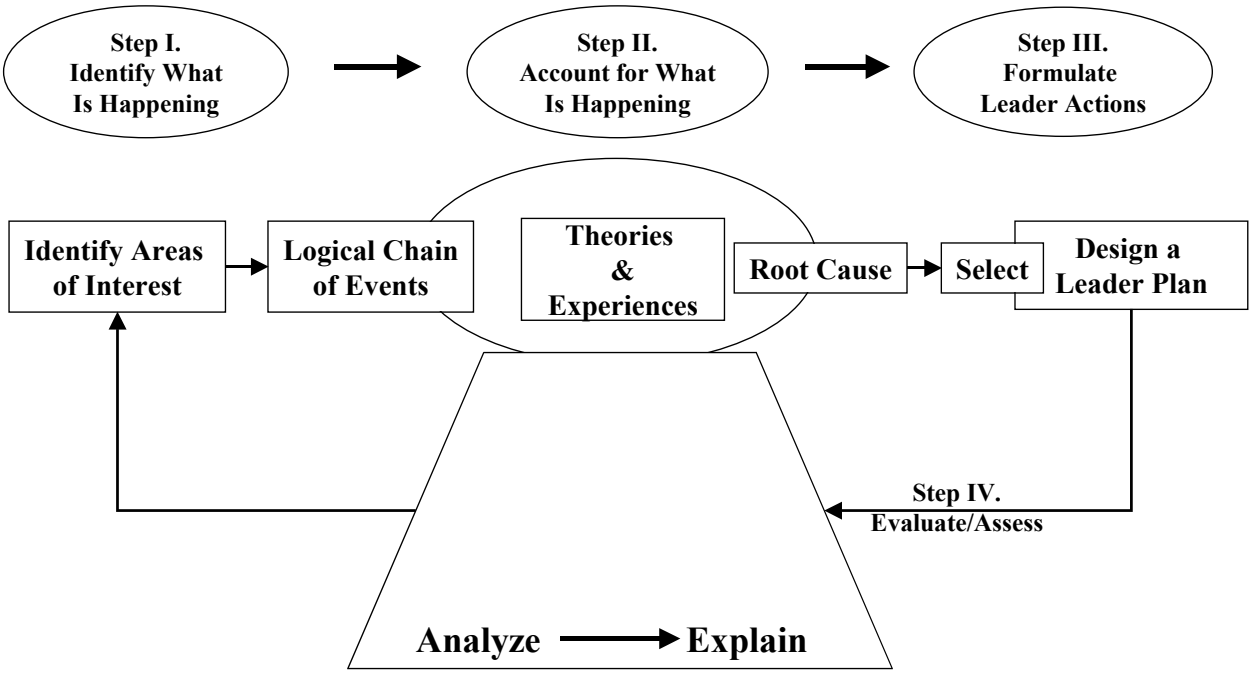
LEADER THOUGHT PROCESS

In this course, you will learn to apply behavioral science approaches and theories to analyze leadership situations, articulate problems, and develop actions to reinforce what is working well and address what is not. The figure below outlines four steps to help achieve this:

1. Identify What is Happening
2. Account for What is Happening
3. Formulate Leader Actions
4. Evaluate/Assess

In the first step, identify situational factors that compel you to act. These are called Areas of Interest. In the second step, account for what is happening from your own experience, combined with the behavioral sciences, to analyze and explain why an area of interest exists. In the third step, apply your knowledge to formulate a leader action plan to address the areas of interest. Finally, in the fourth step, evaluate to determine if the actions you took successfully addressed the areas of interest.

The Leader Thought Process



Step I.. – Identify What is Happening

Identify **Areas of Interest.** An area of interest is any factor or situation that compels you as a leader to act. Is this a factor or a situation that compels you to set your coffee cup down and respond?

Examine each situation and gather information to determine whether the organization's goals can be met while also meeting the needs of individual members.

Areas of interest can be generally grouped into two broad categories:

1. A current problem the leader needs to address
2. Maintaining or improving the motivation, satisfaction, and/or performance of the followers in your organization

Areas of interest should be specific observations about:

- A problem
- An opportunity
- A decision

At this step in the leader thought process, avoid generalizing or pre-judging the nature of the area of interest. It can be challenging not to pre-judge the nature of the area of interest; however, at this point in the process, it is essential to avoid assigning causes to behavior or beginning to develop a plan. Simply identify your specific observations. Also, each area of interest should be a stand-alone observation.

When writing areas of interest:

1. **Be as specific as possible, without over-generalizing or jumping ahead to a solution.**
2. **State areas of interest so that they stand alone.** The need for leader action should be apparent without reading further into the situation. There must be at least one identifiable, tangible action the leader will take for each area of interest.
3. **State areas of interest from the focal leader's perspective.** Areas of interest are factors the leader can act on; some will require action, and others will be at the leader's discretion. Areas of interest always impact the goals of the organizational leader.

In this course, you will identify areas of interest through the use of case studies. These case studies involve situations in which the focal leader must take action. However, within your organization, you can proactively identify areas of interest to prevent problems and enhance motivation, satisfaction, and performance.

Step II. – Account for What Is Happening

After identifying areas of interest, and rather than rushing into action, leaders seek to account for what is happening. In order to account for what is happening, leaders will:

1. Relate areas of interest to one another by constructing a **logical chain of events**

2. Identify and apply relevant theories to **analyze** the situation and **explain** the behaviors
3. Identify the **root cause**

This process should help provide a coherent and unified understanding of the situation upon which to base the leader's actions.

Logical Chain of Events

The first step to account for what is happening is to relate areas of interest to one another, either by time or causal relationships, and ideally, both. Therefore, a logical chain of events will arrange the events in a time sequence that illuminates the cause-effect relationships. Once this step is complete, take a moment to look for patterns of behavior.

Application of Relevant Theories

Theories provide frameworks for making sense of leader observations. The second step is to analyze by searching the situation for information that can be understood using the leadership theories and concepts to understand motivation, satisfaction, and/or performance. In using the theory, you will perform two steps – analyze and explain.

- Analyze. To use a theory to understand a situation, first determine if the particular theory applies to the factors at hand. Search for familiar patterns and relationships. Look for relevant variables for how the theory applies to the situation.
- Explain. Use the selected theory to explain why specific areas of interest are occurring. What problems or issues can be explained by using the theory to analyze the situation? You are not explaining the theory; you are using the theory to explain why one or more area of interst is happening.

Root Cause

The root cause identifies and accounts for the bottom line of the problems prescribed in the case. Complex situations ofen have many parts that are accounted for by a wide number of theories. However, there is often a central or underlying problem that causes others to happen.

Step III. – Formulate Leader Actions

There are two distinct steps in formulating a leader action:

1. Reflect on your analysis and explanation to select the best theoretical action
2. Design a leader action plan

Select

On the basis of your analysis and explanation in Step II, choose the best possible theoretical leader action(s) for the situation. Theories serve to inform your actions by presenting various options. In this step, select the best option(s) to address the areas of interest. This is a statement of ***what*** you will do not ***how*** you will do it.

Design a Leader Plan

Take the selected theoretical action from above, and organize it/them into actions in the form of specific behaviors that address the areas of interest. In this step, you properly apply the theoretical leader action to the situation. In other words, you are translating theory to action by stating precisely how you would act in this situation. Your leader plan, and the leader actions included in the plan should:

- Be realistic
- Not create new problems or allow major problems to go uncorrected
- Not contradict one another or cancel them out
- Resolve the root cause
- Address all areas of interest
- Support overall organizational goals

Step IV. – Assess Your Leader Plan

In this step, you address what you have done to assess the impact of your plan on the situation and make adjustments, or begin again, if necessary. Even the best plans need assessment and revision. This reflective portion of the leader thought process is critical, but often overlooked. In this step, you must develop a plan to review the success or failure of your leader plan to see if it is resolving the issues you set out to resolve. If the areas of interest are not being addressed or if the leader plan has created other issues, you must go back through the leader thought process with a new set of areas of interest.

FTO CASE STUDY

You are a Sergeant assigned as an FTO Supervisor, responsible for overseeing Field Training Officers and ensuring the integrity and effectiveness of the Field Training Program on the day watch. You have been in this supervisory role for approximately three weeks following a recent assignment change. As part of your responsibilities, you are working to establish expectations, observe performance, and support both Field Training Officers and probationary officers as they progress through the program.

At first glance, the day watch appears to be functioning adequately. Calls for service are being handled, reports are completed in a timely manner, and probationary officers appear to be moving through their training phases as expected. However, as you conduct routine oversight, you begin to notice a potential concern involving one of your newly appointed Field Training Officers, Officer Hedgerow.

The day before you reported to duty, the FTO Coordinator, a Lieutenant, selected Officer Hedgerow to serve as a Field Training Officer. Although you were generally aware of Hedgerow, you had not worked closely with him prior to his appointment. Recognizing the critical role FTOs play in shaping new officers and the culture of the department, one of the first actions you took upon assuming your role was to meet with Officer Hedgerow to discuss his new assignment.

During that initial conversation, Officer Hedgerow spoke confidently about his experience, his understanding of patrol operations, and his readiness to train new officers. His self-assessment conveyed competence and assurance, leading you to believe he would be a strong addition to the FTO cadre.

As the weeks progressed, however, your ongoing observations began to present a more nuanced picture. Officer Hedgerow meets the basic expectations of the FTO role. He ensures reports are completed, reviews arrests appropriately, and responds when guidance or supervision is requested. From a procedural standpoint, he appears competent, reliable, and capable of handling the administrative aspects of the position.

When viewed through the lens of effective field training, however, several areas of interest emerge. Officer Hedgerow demonstrates limited active engagement in coaching or teaching moments and provides minimal explanation of his decision-making during calls. His participation in roll call is largely confined to reading mandatory information, with little effort to reinforce policy, tactics, or officer safety principles. He rarely asks questions to assess the trainee's understanding and shows no observable initiative in developing or adjusting training strategies. While he complies with direction when given, he does not demonstrate proactive leadership behavior.

As an FTO Supervisor, you recognize that Field Training Officers do more than complete tasks or meet minimum standards. They shape how probationary officers think, make decisions, and perform under pressure. What an FTO emphasizes—or fails to

emphasize—becomes normalized for the trainee and can have long-term implications for performance, safety, and professionalism.

Wanting to better understand what you are observing, you find Officer Hedgerow alone in the break room and initiate a conversation. You ask whether he is encountering any challenges with training or with the probationary officer assigned to him. Officer Hedgerow responds confidently, stating that "everything is going fine." He does not raise concerns, ask for guidance, or identify any areas where he might improve as a trainer.

Use the first step in the Leader Thought Process.

I. (Step I) ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

(If necessary, continue listing **Areas of Interest** on another page.)

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Introduction

This lesson consists of:

1. Situational Leadership Theory
2. *Twelve O'clock High* Background Information

Assignment

1. **Read Course Guide**,
2. When you solve a case study or act as a leader in your organization:
   I. ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.
   II. ***Analyze*** the situation using Situational Leadership Theory.
      A. ***Identify*** the follower level of development.
      B. ***Classify*** the leader's current leadership style.
   III. ***Explain*** an Area of Interest in terms of the mismatch between the leader's current leadership style in this situation and follower's level of development.
   IV. ***Select*** an appropriate theoretical leader strategy(ies) to address Areas of Interest.
   V. ***Apply*** the theoretical leader strategy(ies) to the situation in the form of a specific leader plan that addresses all Areas of Interest.
   VI. ***Assess***, evaluate, and revise your leader plan.
3.

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

In this lesson, we will build on the idea of focusing on how successful leaders adapt their leadership styles to meet the demands of various situations. Using Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, we will see how effective leaders combine directive and supportive behaviors according to the competence and commitment levels of their followers—referred to as follower development—to optimize group performance.

Since the core of this theory lies in aligning leader behaviors with follower characteristics, the leader must first accurately assess each employee's current level of development. For instance, new officers often possess limited skills but have high enthusiasm for their new roles, while more experienced officers may demonstrate the same enthusiasm but possess significantly greater

skills. Based on this assessment of followers' abilities and motivation, Situational Leadership suggests that leaders should treat these two groups differently by adjusting their behaviors to align with the followers' attributes.

It's important to remember that both followers and the situations they face are dynamic. As new employees become more familiar with their roles, they typically require less supervision. However, life circumstances can affect even the most skilled employees; they may lose competence when facing personal challenges, when assigned new tasks, or when new goals are set. Situational Leadership advocates that leaders must also adapt their behaviors accordingly to maintain effectiveness and ensure the group operates at an optimal level.

When there is a misalignment between leader actions and a follower's development level, it can lead to poor individual performance, as well as suboptimal group and organizational performance. Let's take a closer look at these two critical sets of variables and briefly examine their application in the workplace.

The Followers' Level of Development

In Situational Leadership, follower development refers to a follower's combined competence and commitment to perform a specific task without supervision. Competence is defined as a follower's knowledge and skills necessary to accomplish that task, and it can be acquired through education, training, and experience. Commitment encompasses a follower's confidence and motivation to complete the same task. A confident follower believes they can perform a task well with minimal supervision, while a motivated follower shows genuine interest and enthusiasm for the task at hand.

Considering these two developmental variables, there are four possible combinations of follower development. Situational Leadership categorizes these combinations into four distinct development levels, each reflecting an individual employee's or group's competence and commitment. These four levels are illustrated below.

FOLLOWERS' DEVELOPMENT LEVEL	COMPETENCE	COMMITMENT
D1 (Enthusiastic Beginner)	Low	High
D2 (Disillusioned Learner)	Some	Low
D3 (Reluctant Contributor)	High	Variable
D4 (Peak Performer)	High	High

Individual development is not a straightforward or linear progression. As individuals advance from level D1 to level D4, their competence and commitment fluctuate.

For instance, when starting a new task, most individuals are enthusiastic and eager to learn, despite having little prior knowledge or experience. This stage is represented by D1, the Enthusiastic Beginner.

As they begin to engage with the task, individuals may gain some job knowledge. However, they often find the task more challenging or less interesting than they initially expected. This disillusionment can reduce their commitment, even as their competence grows. This situation is defined as level D2, the Disillusioned Learner.

Once employees navigate these initial stages and learn to perform the task, they may enter a phase of self-doubt or even resistance. They might question their ability to perform well independently or reconsider their desire to continue the task. As the initial excitement wears off and the training support diminishes, employees may find themselves at level D3, the Reluctant Contributor. This back-and-forth between feelings of competence and self-doubt results in variable commitment at this stage.

Eventually, when self-doubt is overcome and the group is functioning independently, employees reach level D4, the Peak Performer.

The Leader Behaviors

Situational Leadership generally categorizes leader behaviors into two types: directive and supportive.

Directive leader behavior refers to the extent to which a leader communicates in a one-way manner, clearly defines the followers' roles, and instructs them on what to do, where to do it, and how to proceed. This type of leader closely supervises the followers' performance.

On the other hand, supportive behavior is characterized by two-way communication. A supportive leader listens to their followers, encourages, facilitates interactions, and involves them in decision-making processes.

Given these two dimensions of leader behavior, there are four possible combinations, or styles, of leadership. Situational Leadership identifies and defines these four styles.

STYLE	LEADER BEHAVIORS	
	DIRECTIVE	SUPPORTIVE
S1 (Directing)	High	Low
S2 (Coaching)	High	High
S3 (Supporting)	Low	High
S4 (Delegating)	Low	Low

High directive and low supportive behavior is known as the Directing leader style, labeled as leader behavior S1. In this style, the leader defines the roles of the followers and instructs them on what, how, when, and where to perform various tasks. Problem-solving and decision-making are solely initiated by the leader, who announces solutions and decisions. Communication is primarily one-way, and the leader closely supervises the implementation. While this style may seem highly authoritarian, it is appropriate for an Enthusiastic Beginner, or a group at development level D1.

As discussed, a D1 group or individual is eager to start learning a new task but lacks competence. Thus, a Directing/S1 style, which provides clear and specific direction along with close supervision, will best meet their needs in accomplishing the task. Since their commitment is high, extensive support from the leader is not necessary.

High directive and high supportive behavior is referred to as Coaching or leader behavior S2. In this style, the leader offers substantial direction and shares their ideas while also attempting to understand the employees' feelings, ideas, and suggestions. Although two-way communication and support are emphasized, the leader retains control over decision-making. This behavior fits best with Disillusioned Learner or D2 followers.

As noted, D2 followers possess some competence but lack the commitment to take responsibility. They need both direction and support. The Coaching/S2 leader behavior provides the necessary directive support for those who lack competence, while also offering supportive behavior to build their confidence and enthusiasm. This style encourages two-way communication and helps foster the confidence and motivation (commitment) of followers who are struggling to acquire new skills. Coaching leaders maintain control and responsibility for decision-making until the group develops the necessary competence in the task.

High supportive and low directive behavior is known as Supporting or S3 leader behavior. In this style, control over day-to-day decision-making and problem-solving shifts from the leader to the followers. The leader's role is to provide recognition, actively listen, and facilitate problem-solving and decision-making conducted by the followers. This style is appropriate for employees or groups at the Reluctant Contributor/D3 level of development.

Employees at this development level are competent but display variable commitment toward the assigned task, which often stems from a lack of confidence. If they are confident but uncommitted—since commitment encompasses both motivation and confidence—their reluctance to perform is primarily a motivation issue. In either case, the leader needs to maintain open communication and provide support to encourage followers to build on their existing skills while incorporating newly acquired ones.

Low supportive and low directive behavior is termed Delegating, or S4 leader behavior. In this style, the leader discusses problems and goals with the follower(s) and then allows the follower(s) to make their own decisions. Employees possess significant autonomy and control over how tasks are accomplished. Individuals in this category are empowered to manage their responsibilities independently. With a D4 group, a delegating style is most suitable.

A common misconception is that Delegating/S4 leader behavior means the leader is entirely uninvolved. This is not true. An organizational leader is always ultimately responsible for their group's actions and accomplishments. Rather, an S4 leader has the opportunity to spend more time on goal setting and problem identification, while spending less (but not negligible) time monitoring job performance, as employees at this development level are trained, motivated, and aligned with the leader's objectives.

Key Points about Using Situational Leadership

Situational Leadership can and should be proactive. Enlightened leaders anticipate upcoming situational variables and adjust their leadership behaviors accordingly. If the demands of the job change, employees' motivation fluctuates, or daily operations undergo adjustments, the Situational Leader should foresee potential problems. Future challenges, as well as opportunities, may require leaders to adopt behaviors better suited to enhance organizational performance in a new context.

As you consider Situational Leadership, keep in mind one implicit but essential assumption: Leaders must be willing and able to adapt their behavior to meet the needs of their followers. But is this truly achievable? Reflect on the following questions:

- Do you intentionally adjust your leadership style based on the situation?

- Do you modify it according to employee needs?

- Can you recall instances where you have done this before?

- If not, do you believe you possess the ability to do so?

- If you find it difficult to change your leadership behavior, how can you still optimize group performance?

Conclusion

Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard’s Situational Leadership is one of the earliest and most fundamental leadership theories. It offers a straightforward yet effective way to understand leadership concepts. As we delve deeper into this topic, we will also explore other situational variables and alternative theories.

SOCIALIZATION

Introduction

This lesson consists of:

1. Socialization

Assignment

1. **Read the Course Guide**,

2) **Find and Read** your Department's Mission Statement, Goals, Values, and Objectives.
Bring a copy to class.

3. When you solve a case study or act as a leader in your organization:

   I. ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.

   II. ***Analyze*** how individuals are socialized into a group by describing the socialization process.

      A. ***Identify*** the key socialization agents present in the situation, the processes they are trying to use, and the goals they hope to achieve.

      B. ***Identify*** the socialization goals that the leader is trying to achieve.

      C. ***Describe*** how the leader's socialization goals are not being met.

   III. ***Explain*** an Area of Interest in terms of how the current socialization program affects the group's outcomes.

   IV. ***Select*** an appropriate theoretical leader strategy(ies) to address the Area(s) of Interest.

   V. ***Apply*** the theoretical leader strategy(ies) to the situation in the form of a specific leader plan that addresses all Areas of Interest.

   VI. ***Assess,*** evaluate, and revise your leader plan.

What Is Socialization?

Let's examine socialization in relation to other learning processes. As we discussed earlier, both biological and social development are integral to the normal human development process. We learn how to navigate our society from an early age. For instance, young children grasp simple rules of conduct. Schoolchildren learn to sit at desks, take turns, and ask politely when they want something. They also learn, sometimes through challenging experiences, the importance of fair play. This early social development establishes a foundation for transitioning between various roles within society.

As young people approach adulthood and enter the workforce, they develop social skills that help them function in different organizational roles. This capability enables them to transition from one organization to another with minimal difficulty, allowing them to become part of a secondary culture—the world of organizations.

However, they must also learn the subculture, which includes the norms, values, and attitudes specific to the groups they wish to join. Therefore, socialization is the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role.

To truly understand socialization, it's important to recognize that individuals bring certain skills, behaviors, attitudes, and values to an organization. These attributes serve as the inputs to the socialization process. The outputs, or goals, of this process include individual commitment, internalization of new organizational values, and innovative contributions to the group. Ultimately, the end product of socialization can be viewed as a psychological contract between the new member and the group. To fulfill this contract, some degree of individual adjustment is typically required. This adjustment, or transformation, constitutes the throughput of the socialization process.

The Goals of Socialization

The psychological contract between a new member and the group typically has three main objectives: commitment, internalization, and innovation. As the term "contract" suggests, the final outcome should provide mutual benefits for both parties involved. Here, we will focus on the advantages that the organization and its leader can gain from this relationship.

Commitment

Group achievement typically results from the strong efforts of its members toward a common goal. For instance, adequately preparing for an inspection requires numerous hours of work. However, excelling during that inspection demands even more time and

effort. When individuals willingly engage in the diligent work necessary for excellence, it usually stems from their commitment to the group they belong to.

Commitment is the primary objective of socialization. It reflects the desire to stay with and contribute to a group due to strong connections and loyalties to fellow members or the time and effort already invested.

For those who are committed, productive efforts often bring inherent satisfaction rather than serving merely as a means to obtain tangible rewards. Consequently, fostering commitment is a valuable goal not only for leaders but also for individuals within the group.

Internalization

A leader aims for their officers to safely and effectively achieve both the group's and the department's mission. One way to ensure this compliance is by using actual or implied punishment, or even offering extrinsic rewards. While this method can be effective, it can also be costly and potentially dangerous for the leader. Ensuring compliance often requires the leader to be physically present to monitor their followers' work and guarantee satisfactory performance. This level of engagement can prevent the leader from attending to other essential leadership duties.

An alternative to enforcing compliance is to encourage officers to perform well based on their own attitudes. This approach involves helping officers internalize the values and attitudes of the group and department. When officers genuinely believe in these values, they no longer need the leader's presence to ensure compliance. This process is known as internalization, which is the second goal of socialization.

The psychological shift from compliance to internalization typically involves an intermediate stage where individuals identify with the leader. In this stage, an officer performs well because they find satisfaction in maintaining a good relationship with the leader. While this identification requires less monitoring than pure compliance, the leader must still be physically or imminently present. In this case, the fear of disappointing the leader is enough to sustain performance.

Ultimately, it should be evident that leaders greatly benefit from officers internalizing the department's values. A successful socialization process will lead to the internalization of all attitudes and values essential for the group's success and survival.

Innovation

From a leader’s perspective, one of the greatest advantages of adding new members to a group is that they introduce fresh and innovative ideas or values. This influx of

innovation rejuvenates the group and contributes to its success. Innovation is one of the key objectives of socialization. The process of socialization significantly influences the level of innovation within a group. For instance, if the socialization process requires excessive conformity, it can stifle innovation.

However, too much innovation can be just as detrimental to a group as too little. If group members are allowed to completely reject the socialization process and rebel against the group's core tasks, chaos can ensue, leading to potential ruin for the group. Therefore, while groups need innovation, they also require a degree of conformity to accomplish their tasks clearly and effectively. Striking a balance between these two elements is an ongoing challenge for leaders.

Noted organizational psychologist Edgar H. Schein provides guidelines for assessing this balance between conformity and innovation. He emphasizes that the appropriate type of behavior depends on the significance of specific norms, role demands, or values to the group. When these elements are vital for the organization’s success or survival, conformity becomes essential. Schein refers to these critical attributes as "pivotal." For example, if a group cannot achieve its primary objective without trust among its members, then trust is a pivotal attribute that necessitates conformity.

Conversely, attributes that are not essential to the group’s success or survival—though beneficial—allow for either conformity or innovation. These attributes are termed "relevant." An example of a relevant attribute is the expectation of maintaining a well-organized workspace, which aids in efficiently locating work items or supplies. However, a lack of organization in this regard may not significantly hinder the group's primary tasks.

The final category of attributes includes those that are neither critical for the group's success nor survival and may even hinder it. A norm that prohibits questioning the boss's authority exemplifies such a "peripheral" attribute. Schein suggests that outright rebellion may be an appropriate response to these peripheral demands.

When the responses of group members and the nature of attributes are misaligned—such as when compliance is demanded for peripheral attributes or rebellion is allowed against pivotal attributes—group members may experience frustration and a decline in commitment.

The Psychological Contract

The ultimate goal of the socialization process is to create a mutually satisfying psychological contract between individuals and the group. This overarching aim includes individual commitment, internalization, and innovation. Members may expect recognition for their past achievements, opportunities for advancement, and the freedom

to work with minimal supervision. Meanwhile, the leader may expect adherence to policies, acknowledgment of their authority, and support for the group's goals.

Since both parties have specific expectations, there's typically an early opportunity to express these expectations, which can then be confirmed, modified, or denied. The psychological contract should be open for ongoing review and can be viewed as a set of mutual expectations, both explicit and implicit, that shape the relationship between the parties involved.

How the psychological contract unfolds is critical to the relationship between the leader and group members. From the leader's perspective, the psychological contract can significantly influence the amount of effort members contribute. Conversely, for individuals, the contract can affect their level of satisfaction and self-esteem derived from their contributions, potentially influencing their decision to remain with the group. Ultimately, successful psychological contracts are those that benefit both the leader and the group members.

Socialization in Police Groups

Socialization is a complex and essential task for organizational leaders. To fully grasp its significance and challenges, it is helpful to consider how socialization relates to the open systems model of groups. Socialization is the process of teaching members of a group or organization the necessary knowledge and skills to navigate social interactions effectively. It involves learning that prepares individuals (with varying degrees of success) to meet the expectations set by other group or organization members. The socialization process influences values, personality traits, social roles and identities, self-conception, and the overall manner in which business is conducted. Therefore, socialization is the acquisition of a wide range of qualities that guide individuals' behavior in different group and organizational contexts.

Another important consideration for leaders is identifying who should serve as socialization agents within the organization. Since socialization agents essentially act as teachers or trainers, anyone an officer interacts with has the potential to be a socialization agent. The leader's key responsibility is to manage the environment and the socialization process to enhance interactions between newcomers and the selected socialization agents. Here are four possible socialization agents:

1. Senior Organizational Leaders

Senior officers within your department, such as lieutenants, captains, and deputy chiefs, are considered senior organizational leaders and socialization agents. Their primary contribution to the socialization process is to understand and exemplify the broad

organizational goals and expectations. These leaders help new members grasp the overall vision of the organization.

2. The Organizational Leader

As the key leader in your workgroup, you act as a crucial socialization agent for the officers you supervise. Being the first officer in the chain of command, you serve as a primary role model for your followers. Your actions—whether they are proactive or lacking—demonstrate to your team what they need to know to navigate effectively within the organization. You are directly responsible for establishing a socialization program that aligns with organizational goals. This program should help new officers become significant contributors, accepted members of their work group, and ultimately feel welcomed, valued, and essential to the organization.

3. Followers/Employees

Employees also play an important role in the socialization process by modeling everyday behaviors and work roles (consider the concept of observational learning). Employees include officers of lesser ranks, such as intermediate leaders who conduct official socialization training or peers who influence newcomers through regular interactions. Ideally, these employees will assist newcomers in achieving socialization goals. However, the organizational leader needs to recognize that some employees may not contribute positively in this way. For instance, disgruntled officers who interact negatively with new assignments can hinder newcomers from learning about organizational norms, goals, and values.

4. Others

Additionally, individuals outside the organization can act as socialization agents for your officers. Family members, friends, neighbors, members of the clergy, and officers from other work groups may inform and shape the perceptions of your officers regarding the organization. Because these individuals are external, their influence on your socialization efforts tends to be informal, indirect, and difficult to manage. Although often well-intentioned, these external individuals can inadvertently convey contradictory messages and transmit inaccurate information about your organization to newly assigned officers. As leaders, it is our responsibility to monitor the impact these significant others may have on our efforts to properly socialize officers.

How do leaders effectively facilitate socialization within their teams? It is essential to recognize that socialization occurs through various processes, which we will explore in detail in the following section. However, before that, leaders must be aware of common mistakes that can jeopardize a socialization program.

One common pitfall is that leaders often focus on orienting officers within their units without emphasizing the importance of socialization. While orientation and socialization are interconnected, they are distinct processes. Orientation involves teaching explicit rules, standard operating procedures, and standard practices within a work group; it is fundamentally about imparting knowledge. In contrast, socialization addresses the more implicit concerns regarding how individuals fit into the organization and their roles within it. It delves deeper, instilling the organization's culture and values.

Another potential issue is that leaders might not oversee or may be unaware of the socialization efforts conducted by others. If the leader does not manage the socialization process, someone else will take that role. Those who are improperly socialized or influenced by someone other than the leader might later become problematic when they act inappropriately in their roles. They may also lack the necessary conformity, commitment, and internalization needed to contribute to the organization's success.

It's important to remember that the socialization process is ongoing. As organizations evolve, members must adapt to their new roles and responsibilities. Additionally, as members leave and new ones enter, existing members will advance into vacant positions and take on new duties. Consequently, re-socializing experienced officers may be necessary, which can often be more challenging than socializing those who are new to the organization. Leaders must actively engage in this process to help their teams understand functional norms. Personal interaction can be beneficial, allowing leaders to observe their followers and provide appropriate guidance. This approach also complements the clarification of role expectations through job performance appraisals.

Transformational Processes

It's essential to closely examine the transformation (or throughput) process, as it contains vital strategies for leaders to effectively socialize new members. There are five key considerations for socialization:

1. Should socialization occur collectively or individually?

2. Should socialization be formal or informal?

3. Should the progression through socialization follow a fixed or variable schedule?

4. Should role models be utilized?

5. Should abasement or self-image-enhancing techniques be employed?

Each option presents its advantages and disadvantages, depending on the desired outcome. The table in Figure 23 summarizes this information and may help you organize your thoughts as you read through it.

Figure 23. Relationship between Transformation Processes and the Goals of Socialization

Transformation Process	Increases	Decreases
Individual	Commitment (if mentor is respected) Innovation (if mentor is not respected)	
Collective	Commitment	Innovation
Formal	Commitment Internalization	
Informal	Innovation	
Fixed Time	Innovation (if moderate security)	Innovation (if too much security)
Variable Time	Commitment (for those who advance)	Innovation
Role Model	Internalization (if good role model)	Internalization (if an appropriate role model) Innovation
No Role Model	Innovation	
Abasement	Commitment (if voluntary)	Innovation
Self-image Enhancement	Innovation	

Collective versus Individual Treatment

People can be socialized collectively as a group, which leads to a shared set of experiences. Many large organizations use this approach for training new recruits who need to acquire well-defined and similar skills. A well-known example of collective socialization is basic training in the military. Conversely, new group members can be trained individually through on-the-job training programs or apprenticeships. In this scenario, individuals work in relative isolation and each person gains a unique set of experiences. This individualized approach is common when someone is promoted within an organization or when they move from one functional department to another.

The outcomes of socialization can vary significantly depending on whether it occurs collectively or individually. In the collective method, group members can share common problems. If one person finds a solution, they can share it with the others. Through group

discussions, members can reach a consensus on how to address specific challenges, fostering cohesion. A group that undergoes collective socialization tends to be more homogeneous in their views compared to those who are socialized individually. Additionally, collective socialization often leads to the establishment of strong group norms that reward conformity and discourage deviation.

In contrast, individualized socialization is more beneficial for complex role training. The outcome of this method largely depends on the relationship between the leader and the individual, often referred to as the mentor-mentee relationship. When the individual respects the leader and receives ample attention, it fosters a mutually satisfactory psychological contract and enhances individual commitment. On the other hand, if the individual does not respect the leader, it can lead to rebellion or innovation, as well as minimal commitment.

Formal versus Informal Processing

In some socialization situations, recruits are separated from other group members to undergo a specially tailored set of experiences. This formal process may require newcomers to wear specific uniforms or to be addressed with particular titles. The main goal of formal socialization is to instill specific values, attitudes, and behaviors. Performance evaluations assess whether leaders believe that sufficient progress is being made toward these objectives.

In contrast, the informal socialization process is typically found in on-the-job training or apprenticeship programs. Here, the emphasis is on learning skills that are directly related to the job. However, informal training is more likely to result in costly mistakes on the job.

The outcomes of formal and informal socialization processes differ significantly. Formal socialization is appropriate when someone is being prepared for an important new position or rank, or when there is a gap between the required attitudes, values, and behaviors of a job and those that the recruits currently possess. For example, religious orders often expect explicit, internalized values and commitment that are unlikely to be present without a formal socialization process. On the other hand, informal socialization tends to foster greater innovation among new members.

Interestingly, the formal socialization process is often followed by an informal one, and the informal process typically persists. For instance, after extensive formal education, students in their first jobs may hear, “Forget the theoretical concepts you learned in school—this is how we do it here.” In these cases, both students and leaders may overlook an important fact: the formal aspect of socialization (studying academic or theoretical concepts) is essential for new members to understand and adapt to the informal process effectively.

Fixed versus Variable Movement

Fixed time sequences, often referred to as seniority, provide group members with a clear expectation of when they can advance to new positions. In contrast, variable time advancement relies on leader assessments of performance, offering individuals little guidance on when they might be promoted or move up.

When progression occurs at a consistent and designated rate, the psychological contract between employees and the group can be reinforced. This sense of security about their future can encourage individuals to be more innovative. However, too much security may stifle innovation, especially if employees believe promotions are guaranteed regardless of their effort.

On the other hand, variable time advancement can create anxiety about the future. Consequently, people may focus more on aligning their attitudes, values, and behaviors to those of successful individuals rather than concentrating on their actual work. Variable timing can foster conformity as people attempt to mimic the behaviors of those who have recently been promoted.

Nevertheless, variable advancement can enhance the commitment and self-esteem of those who succeed, as they feel their promotion reflects their value to the group. Conversely, individuals who do not advance may struggle to be effective team members; the competitive atmosphere created by variable timing can diminish group cohesion, trust, and willingness to take risks.

Absence versus Presence of Role Models

People are often mentored by individuals who already hold the roles or statuses that new members aspire to achieve. These role models can guide newcomers as they prepare to assume similar positions within the group. Respected role models provide an example for new recruits to emulate and offer insight into what their future in the group may look like.

However, relying on role models can lead to the perpetuation of established behaviors, which means that the group's reputation may remain remarkably stable over time, potentially stifling innovation. When role models are seen as competent and successful, new members are likely to imitate their behaviors in hopes of receiving organizational rewards.

On the other hand, if the role models are perceived negatively, new members may choose not to emulate them, which could hinder their internalization of the organization's values and norms. Additionally, the lack of role models can increase the likelihood of innovation, as there is no one for newcomers to imitate. However, this absence may also

create confusion and a loss of central purpose, given that evidence indicates people learn by observing esteemed role models.

Abasement versus Self-Image Enhancement

Abasement experiences aim to undermine the self-image of new members, seeking to replace their old values with new ones. These experiences often involve harassment from long-time members, extended periods spent on menial tasks, high work demands with little time to complete them, and isolation from previous relationships. The more arduous an experience is for a new member, the more prevalent the process of abasement. Such experiences are used to "unfreeze" individuals who are joining a group, as well as those who are transitioning to roles of increased responsibility when the group believes that the current leader possesses key attributes that the new member lacks.

For individuals to persist through abasement, strong motivation is necessary. This motivation can arise from the admiration inspired by a prestigious organization and a desire to be a part of it. When undertaken voluntarily and managed properly, the abasement process can effectively bond the new member to the group. As a result, individuals often discover latent abilities, leading to a new self-image characterized by mental and physical resilience. Because these changes in personal identity are supported by both the individual and the group, the process tends to become self-reinforcing.

In contrast, self-image enhancing experiences deliver a different message to group members: "Don't change! We value you just as you are." In this case, the group focuses on building upon and enhancing existing skills, values, and attitudes. This approach is typical of groups that implement orientation programs, offer relocation assistance, provide social welcoming events, and facilitate visits to the leader’s office for a brief handshake and well wishes. Such activities serve to validate newcomers' self-perceptions. Self-image enhancement is usually associated with innovation, while abasement experiences can hinder it.

Abasement can also be enforced by group members outside formal leadership roles. As previously noted, low-ranking members often play a significant role in pressuring new, lower-ranking individuals to adopt common attitudes, values, and behaviors. This pressure aims to provide protection within the group. When informal groups wield considerable influence over new members, it can lead to decreased organizational commitment and a lack of internalization of crucial values.

Several negative outcomes related to abasement experiences warrant attention. Firstly, using an abasement strategy is more likely to reduce initial group effectiveness compared to an image-enhancing strategy. This is because abasement often results in decreased job satisfaction among new members. Those who endure it and remain usually perform worse than those who leave. Additionally, individuals who have endured abasement strategies may struggle to handle authority without becoming abusive themselves.

Secondly, abasement does not effectively bind the new member to their role or the group. If individuals are not strongly committed to the group from the outset, they may choose to

resign. Those who leave are often the ones with the potential for significant contributions to the organization.

Finally, a third negative outcome of abasement is the risk of abuse by leaders. Such abuse can have damaging physical or psychological effects on new members. By isolating individuals from their support systems and subjecting them to mistreatment, the resulting stress can become dysfunctional. Repercussions can range from insomnia to suicidal thoughts. In extreme cases, leaders might inadvertently begin to view trainees as objects to be manipulated rather than individuals to be nurtured. Internal competition may also emerge among trainers, each striving to demonstrate who can be the most abusive.

Other Considerations in the Transformation Process

The leader's role in socialization can be described in three main tasks:

1. Evaluate the individual's attributes (inputs).

2. Determine the desired goals of socialization (outputs).

3. Select the appropriate methods to achieve those desired goals (throughput strategies).

In this section, we will explore additional strategies that a leader can use to positively influence the socialization process for the benefit of the group.

Creating Supportive Group Expectations

The initial expectations set by leaders significantly influence the retention and success of new members within the group. Communicating positive phrases, such as "I know you'll do well," helps convey these expectations. Additionally, the level of difficulty in initial assignments can also reflect positive expectations. Challenging assignments signal to individuals that the group believes they can succeed.

Providing Rewarding Jobs

As previously discussed in lessons on motivation, individuals with strong growth needs seek opportunities to utilize their abilities, participate in decisions that affect them, engage in interesting work, advance in their careers, receive feedback on their performance, and have some autonomy. Therefore, an essential aspect of effective socialization is ensuring that new members are given jobs that satisfy these needs. Ideally, they should be assigned these fulfilling roles early in their careers. Evidence suggests that individuals with high growth needs who find their needs unmet in their work are likely to seek satisfaction outside the group, or may even choose to leave entirely.

However, it is important to note that for individuals with low growth needs, the challenges of a job can be overwhelming. If a job is too difficult and leads to frequent

failure, individuals may disengage from their work. Moreover, if a task is perceived as impossible, it can lead to a reduction in self-esteem and result in dysfunctional stress.

Clarifying Role Orientation

When individuals view their jobs as stepping stones to more significant positions within an organization, they perceive opportunities for growth and advancement. Since these prospects are typically valued, most individuals are more likely to commit to an organization if they perceive potential for advancement. Therefore, a crucial element of socialization is for leaders to provide followers with a clear understanding of how their roles fit into a career path. Leaders can outline job path conditions and sequences so that followers are aware of their potential for progression within the organization.

Expressing Leader Acceptance

Certain jobs, such as secretarial or clerical positions, and organizations with limited opportunities for advancement due to death or retirement, offer little potential for professional movement. In such cases, it is vital for leaders to establish a developmental relationship with their followers to enhance their self-esteem. Leaders should communicate to their team that they are valuable and capable of delivering good work. Furthermore, leaders should support them in developing their abilities and competencies within their roles.

To effectively convey this acceptance, it is essential for leaders to create a work environment where followers can share their concerns without fear of judgment or feeling inferior. The focus should be on problem-solving rather than placing blame. What are the benefits of this approach? It fosters commitment—team members feel compelled to repay their leader with hard work and a willingness to learn. For individuals, acceptance from a leader can enhance their abilities and boost their self-esteem.

Establishing Social Support Systems

Another key aspect of effective socialization is acknowledging that the process can be stressful, regardless of how well it is managed. One way to mitigate negative socialization experiences is through robust social support systems. Peer groups can provide valuable forums for exchanging ideas on coping strategies during socialization.

This is especially important for followers in nontraditional roles. Our lesson on group cohesion will highlight the significance of social support systems in helping new organizational members manage stress.

Creating Initiation Activities

Many socialization experiences culminate in a final rite of passage—an initiation that can be challenging to complete. For instance, college sororities and fraternities are known for elaborate initiation rituals like Hell Week, while military academies often have formal recognition for lower-class members after a year of socialization activities. The purpose of such initiation activities is to affirm the outcomes of socialization. Some rites of passage, such as graduation from a training course or the transition from trainee to apprentice status, may also help boost the self-esteem and self-confidence of new members.

However, not all research supports the idea that initiation enhances socialization. One study found that individuals who receive formal feedback or ceremonies that certify their competence do not feel significantly more competent than those who do not receive such validation.

The evidence remains inconclusive on whether initiation activities effectively mark the end of the socialization process.

At this point, one can appreciate the critical role that socialization plays in the development and continuity of a group. Socialization occurs when group members enter or change roles within a group. To build and maintain a productive group, a leader must develop and actively implement socialization plans. If a leader fails to do so, someone else will take the initiative, and the leader will have to contend with the consequences.

Case Study

You are the night watch lieutenant in Southwest Patrol. Recently you received a new probationary officer, Susan Campbell. She came in a day early to introduce herself and find out as much as she could about the station and the district. You could see that she was very intelligent and eager to start her new career. Her records indicated that she graduated near the top of her class in all aspects of training at the academy, and in fact, she scored the highest academic average. You also learn that she's older than most new officers, having successfully completed a military tour and graduated from college before attending the academy.

During a short conversation with her that day, you noted that the Southwest Patrol has a reputation of being tough on probationary officers. You explained, however, that all you and the training officers expect from new officers is that they work hard, fit in, and learn not only their duties but also the values of the police profession fast. You tried to bolster her confidence by praising her academy performance and saying that smart, dedicated officers like her would not have any problems. You emphasized that as long as she worked hard, was officer safety conscious, and treated citizens with respect and dignity, she could expect to pass probation without difficulty. At the end of your meeting, Campbell promised she would try hard not to

disappoint you. As she departed, you briefly pondered that you'd lost the last three probationary officers and hoped she'd do better.

The next day, Campbell arrived in her brand new uniform to begin evening watch. The senior officer, George Benjamin, a twenty-seven year veteran on the job, brought her into the sergeant's office and crudely yelled to you, "Fresh meat, Sergeant." You decided from that moment on you were going to have an uphill battle making this rookie officer feel comfortable. You knew that all rookies had a tough time being accepted, but being the only female on the watch might become an arduous experience for Campbell.

When you spoke with her, it was easy to see the tension in her face. You again congratulated her on her academy record, and then calmly explained that she was going to be assigned to one of the best training officers in the division, Officer Doug Raymond. You advised Campbell to pay attention to everything Officer Raymond taught her, and you were sure she would do well.

Officer Campbell spent the next month working with Officer Raymond. When you asked how Campbell was doing, Doug Raymond complained that Officer Campbell seemed unable to advance beyond the limited scenarios she had been taught at the academy. He said she could not improvise when the situation did not exactly match the facts she had been taught in the classroom. Additionally, Officer Raymond stated that, "Benjamin and the others have been riding her hard. They even set her up with some bad information at a training session that put her in a bind on the street. When I tried to correct the situation, she just blew me off. She just doesn't seem very happy here, Sarge. I don't know what's wrong with her. She just doesn't seem to fit in with the guys." You decide that it's time to speak with Campbell.

As you watch Susan Campbell walk into your office, you notice the defeated look on her face. You have seen that look many times before, like when an officer knows that he or she is going to get chewed out. You tell her you have heard about her lack of progress, and then ask, "What's the problem, Campbell?"

"Sir, I don't know what it is exactly, but I just don't seem to fit in here. Cops run in my family. My father was a detective for thirty years and my uncle is also a police officer. I want to make law enforcement my career, but I just don't feel right here. With all due respect, the last thing I want to do is complain or ask for anything special. I want to be like everyone else here, but the male officers on the evening watch seem to expect me to act like a man. They tease me because I never go out with them after work. Well, they go to sleazy bars and try to pick up women. Sarge, I just don't enjoy that kind of lifestyle, and if I did go my husband would kill me. Besides, they seem more concerned with their off-duty and social lives, not what happens on the job. I want to be a police officer, not a lounge lizard.

"Apparently, if I don't hang out with the men they ostracize me. I'm supposed to be learning from them, but I can't learn very much if they're not talking to me. I'm doing the best I can to teach myself and to learn by my mistakes, but then they criticize me for making so many errors! I really want to do the 'right thing,' I'm just not sure what that is!

"Sir, I've been talking with a friend of mine who works for a nearby police department. He and his wife have gone out to dinner a few times with my husband and me. From what he says about his department, all of their rookies, both male and female, feel good about their department. I think I'm going to quit this job and apply over there to be a police officer."

I. (Step I) ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

(If necessary, continue listing **Areas of Interest** on another page.)

II. ***Analyze*** how individuals are being socialized into a group by describing the socialization process.

What is the relationship among the Areas of Interest listed above? More specifically, is there a chronological order or **logical chain of events** that helps you make sense of the facts you have? If so, outline the time sequence of events.

Which socialization agents appear to be influencing Officer Campbell? What processes are they using to achieve which goals?

Socialization Agent	Processes Used	Goal/Outcome Achieved

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

What socialization goals would the leader and the department like to achieve?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Describe how the department and leader's socialization goals are not being met.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

III. ***Explain*** an Area of Interest in terms of how the current socialization program affects the group's individual, group, and organizational outcomes.

How have the current socialization practices affected Officer Campbell's individual motivation, satisfaction, and/or performance?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Has the group's performance and/or structural dimensions been affected by the current socialization program? How?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Has the performance of the organization been affected? How?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Do the facts of the case and your explanation form a pattern that allows you to identify a fundamental or **root cause** (i.e., is there something in the case information that suggests it is the underlying cause of all or most of the Areas of Interest)?

IV. ***Select*** an appropriate theoretical leader strategy(ies) to address the Area(s) of Interest.

Which leader strategy(ies) should the leader use to address the Areas of Interest in this situation?

V. ***Apply*** the theoretical leader strategy(ies) to the situation in the form of a specific leader plan that addresses all Areas of Interest. The plan should be realistic and holistic, address all the Areas of Interest you have identified, and translate the theoretical leader strategies into action. What will you do and say to whom, when, where, and how?

VI. ***Assess*** the effectiveness of your leader plan and revise as needed. After your leader plan, list the measures you would use to evaluate your actions. In this step, leaders need to ask, "What information do I need to tell whether or not my leadership is having the desired effects? How will I obtain the information I need? How can it be generated? Who can help me get what I need? How often should I collect data and in what form?"

THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES OF LEADERSHIP

The first principle of effective Field Training Officer leadership is knowing the condition of your trainee. During field training, the FTO is responsible for monitoring not only the status of the work being performed, but also the status of the person performing it. Calls may be cleared, reports may be completed, and procedures may be followed. Yet, the trainee's internal condition—confidence, stress level, judgment, emotional regulation, and decision-making capacity—may be quietly deteriorating. Effective FTOs learn to track both simultaneously. They understand that performance problems rarely appear suddenly; they develop over time when internal strain goes unnoticed.

Knowing the condition of the trainee requires intentional, ongoing engagement rather than occasional check-ins. This means getting to know trainees one at a time, not as a group, and not by comparing them to past trainees. Each trainee arrives with a different temperament, learning style, stress threshold, and life context. The FTO must learn how this particular trainee processes information, responds to correction, handles uncertainty, and reacts under pressure. This understanding does not come from evaluation forms alone; it comes from time spent together in the car, on calls, during report writing, and in post-call debriefs where the trainee is encouraged to think out loud and reflect on decisions.

Regular engagement is essential because socialization into the agency happens continuously, not formally. Trainees learn what matters by watching what the FTO pays attention to. If the FTO only engages when something goes wrong, the trainee learns to associate leadership with threat. If the FTO engages consistently—asking questions, following up on previous conversations, and checking understanding—the trainee learns that awareness and accountability are normal parts of the job. This regular engagement also allows the FTO to notice subtle shifts: hesitation where there was confidence, irritability where there was calm, rigidity where there was flexibility. These shifts often signal cognitive overload or emotional strain long before performance failures occur.

Keeping eyes and ears open is a leadership discipline, not a personality trait. It means observing how the trainee interacts with citizens, how they handle stress, how they handle mistakes, and how they talk about themselves and their work. It means listening not just to what is said, but how it is said—tone, pace, defensiveness, silence. Effective FTOs question without interrogating and follow through without hovering. When a concern surfaces, they do not ignore it or postpone it indefinitely; they address it proportionally and deliberately, reinforcing that accountability and care coexist.

From a neuroscience perspective, this principle matters because a trainee who feels unseen or misunderstood will default to protective behaviors rather than learning behaviors. From an organizational standpoint, it matters because unchecked stress and confusion eventually show up as poor judgment, policy violations, or disengagement. From a leadership perspective, knowing the condition of the trainee allows the FTO to adjust structure, support, and challenge appropriately to the trainee's developmental

phase. It prevents overcorrecting when reassurance is needed and undercorrecting when clarity is required.

At its core, knowing your trainee's condition establishes trust without dependency and accountability without fear. It ensures that field training is not reduced to task completion, but becomes a deliberate process of shaping judgment, decision-making, problem-solving, and professional identity. This principle sets the foundation for every other leadership responsibility the FTO carries, because a leader who does not know the condition of their people cannot lead them effectively—no matter how well the work appears to be getting done.

The second principle of effective Field Training Officer leadership is to discover the SHAPE of your trainee to intentionally shape their development. SHAPE refers to the trainee's Strengths, Heart, Attitude, Personality, and Experiences. Each trainee arrives with a unique combination of these elements, and how well the FTO understands them will either make leadership easier or significantly more difficult. Field training is not a neutral process; the FTO is actively shaping how the trainee thinks, decides, and identifies with the organization. When SHAPE is ignored, training becomes reactive. When SHAPE is understood, training becomes strategic.

Strength refers to what the trainee naturally does well. This includes tactical abilities, communication skills, decision-making tendencies, situational awareness, and learning speed. Effective FTOs do not assume strengths based solely on academy scores. They observe strengths in real-world situations and use them as anchors for growth, ensuring they do not become crutches. A verbally strong trainee may avoid action; a tactically confident trainee may overlook communication. Knowing strengths allows the FTO to reinforce competence while preventing imbalance.

Heart refers to what motivates the trainee and what they care about. Some trainees are driven by service, others by mastery, belonging, safety, or recognition. Heart also includes values, a moral compass, and emotional investment in the profession. When an FTO connects training to what matters to the trainee, learning accelerates. When the heart is ignored, compliance may occur without commitment, and identity remains fragile. Understanding the heart helps the FTO know how to encourage, when to challenge, and how to frame correction in a way that resonates rather than threatens.

Attitude reflects how the trainee approaches difficulty, feedback, stress, and uncertainty. This includes openness to learning, defensiveness, resilience, and adaptability. Attitude is often misread when SHAPE is not understood. What appears to be resistance may be fear; what appears to be passivity may be overload. The FTO's role is to shape attitudes by modeling curiosity, accountability, and emotional regulation while maintaining clear expectations. Attitude is not changed through lectures but through consistent responses to mistakes and effort.

Personality influences how the trainee processes information, relates to authority, handles conflict, and reacts under pressure. Personality is not something the FTO changes; rather,

it is something the FTO must understand. A methodical trainee will need clarity before acting; an assertive trainee may need coaching on restraint. When personality is misunderstood, friction increases and learning slows. When personality is understood, feedback becomes precise and developmental rather than personal.

Experiences include prior work history, life stressors, trauma exposure, successes, failures, and cultural background. These experiences shape how trainees perceive risk, authority, and themselves. An FTO who ignores experiences may unknowingly trigger shutdown or overreaction. An FTO who acknowledges experiences can pace exposure, normalize stress responses, and help the trainee integrate past experience into professional judgment rather than react to it.

Discovering SHAPE early helps place the trainee in the correct developmental position and prevents the FTO from inheriting unresolved problems later. If unhealthy patterns are ignored, they compound under stress and become organizational issues. If SHAPE is understood, the FTO can adjust structure, support, and challenge appropriately across training phases. This does not mean lowering standards; it means aligning expectations with development.

At its core, this principle reminds the FTO that trainees are not interchangeable parts. Knowing the trainee's SHAPE enables the FTO to develop competence without undermining confidence, build judgment without forcing conformity, and socialize the trainee into the agency in ways that foster both accountability and belonging. When SHAPE is understood, leadership becomes clearer, correction becomes cleaner, and development becomes intentional rather than accidental.

The third principle of effective Field Training Officer leadership is helping your trainee identify with you, and psychological safety is essential to fostering a healthy and sustainable identification. During field training, the trainee not only learns tasks and procedures; they also form beliefs about what is safe to say, admit, question, and try. Identification occurs when trainees determine whether the environment created by the FTO allows them to learn without fear of humiliation, retaliation, or unpredictability. Without psychological safety, trainees may comply outwardly while disengaging inwardly, adopting survival behaviors rather than sound judgment.

Psychological safety begins with trust, and trust is built through consistent modeling of authenticity, integrity, and compassion. Trainees watch closely how an FTO handles mistakes, pressure, and ambiguity. When errors are treated as learning opportunities rather than character flaws, the trainee’s nervous system remains regulated enough to reflect and improve. When feedback is delivered clearly, respectfully, and consistently, the trainee learns that accountability does not threaten belonging. This combination allows the trainee to remain open rather than defensive, which is critical for developing judgment and decision-making under stress.

High standards of performance are not diminished by psychological safety; they are reinforced by it. Trainees are more willing to stretch, ask questions, and take appropriate

initiative when they know standards are clear and enforcement is fair. An FTO who sets high expectations while maintaining emotional steadiness communicates belief in the trainee's capacity to meet those standards. Psychological safety ensures that the trainee does not confuse being corrected with being rejected, which is especially important during moments of disillusionment or self-doubt.

Relentlessly communicating values and mission contributes to psychological safety by creating predictability and meaning. When trainees understand why decisions are made and how behaviors align with organizational values, uncertainty decreases and trust increases. Values serve as a stabilizing framework, allowing trainees to interpret feedback and correction within a consistent moral and professional context. This clarity reduces anxiety and helps trainees integrate agency expectations into their developing professional identity.

Defining the cause and helping trainees understand their place within it strengthens both identification and safety. Trainees who see how their role contributes to the larger mission are less likely to personalize mistakes and more likely to view them as part of the learning process. Psychological safety enables trainees to acknowledge their limitations and seek guidance without fear, thereby accelerating growth and strengthening commitment. When trainees feel they belong to something meaningful, they are more willing to engage fully rather than protect themselves through withdrawal or overcontrol.

Finally, this principle recognizes that psychological safety is created through personal leadership rather than through policies. Leadership during field training is personal because learning is personal. FTOs who remain present, listen actively, and respond proportionally to mistakes create an environment where trainees can be honest about uncertainty and receptive to coaching. Personal does not mean permissive; it means human. Psychological safety allows the FTO to challenge behavior firmly while preserving dignity, ensuring that growth occurs without eroding confidence.

Helping trainees identify with you through psychological safety is not about producing conformity or dependence. It is about modeling a credible, ethical, and emotionally intelligent way of policing that trainees can trust and internalize. When psychological safety is present, identification becomes a powerful mechanism for transmitting values, strengthening judgment, and cultivating resilient officers prepared to serve with integrity long after field training concludes.

The fourth principle of effective Field Training Officer leadership is to make the training environment safe. If the previous principle focused on helping the trainee identify with the FTO as a credible and trustworthy leader, this principle extends psychological safety beyond the relationship and into the environment itself. Trainees do not learn in isolation. They learn within systems, routines, expectations, and daily conditions that either reinforce safety or amplify threat. The FTO is the primary architect of that environment during field training.

Psychological safety at the environmental level begins with keeping trainees well-informed. Uncertainty is one of the most potent activators of stress and threat responses in the brain. When trainees do not understand expectations, evaluation criteria, timelines, or next steps, their attention shifts from learning to self-protection. Clear, consistent communication reduces cognitive load and allows the trainee to remain present, curious, and engaged. Information creates predictability, and predictability creates safety.

A safe training environment also communicates that every position and assignment has importance. When trainees perceive tasks as meaningless or merely punitive, engagement drops and learning becomes mechanical. The FTO infuses meaning by consistently connecting assignments to officer safety, community trust, and professional standards. Purpose stabilizes motivation and helps trainees tolerate discomfort, correction, and repetition without becoming discouraged or disengaged.

Environmental psychological safety is undermined when chronic instigators are allowed to persist. These instigators may appear as sarcasm, ridicule, persistent negativity, gossip, or unresolved interpersonal conflict. Such dynamics create a background threat that interferes with learning and decision-making. The FTO sets the tone for acceptable conduct within the training environment. Addressing corrosive behaviors early and directly prevents normalization of dysfunction and protects the integrity of the learning environment.

When feasible, rotating trainees through fresh assignments supports psychological safety by preventing stagnation and over-identification with a single context. Thoughtful exposure to different call types, partners, and environments builds adaptability and cognitive flexibility. However, rotation must be paced. Too much novelty too quickly overwhelms the trainee's regulatory capacity. Effective FTOs balance exposure with stability, expanding competence without flooding the nervous system.

Visibility from the FTO is another cornerstone of environmental safety. Trainees feel safer when leadership is predictable and present. Visibility does not mean constant intervention; it means availability, awareness, and responsiveness. When the FTO is consistently engaged, trainees are more likely to ask questions, admit uncertainty, and seek clarification before errors compound. This reinforces a learning culture rather than a performance-only culture.

Finally, environmental psychological safety depends on timely resolution of problems. Issues that are ignored do not disappear; they accumulate and intensify. Allowing problems to fester increases anxiety, erodes trust, and eventually forces corrective action that feels abrupt or punitive. Addressing concerns early, proportionally, and respectfully maintains safety while reinforcing accountability. It teaches the trainee that challenges can be discussed openly and resolved constructively.

Together, Principles Three and Four establish psychological safety at both the relational and environmental levels. The trainee learns who they are safe learning with and where they are safe learning. When these conditions are present, the trainee's cognitive and

emotional resources are freed to develop what field training is designed to cultivate: sound judgment, effective decision-making, problem-solving under stress, and a stable professional identity that will endure long after training ends.

The fifth principle of effective Field Training Officer leadership is providing the staff of direction. Once psychological safety has been established through relationships and the environment, the FTO can lead decisively without relying on fear, force, or control. Direction is what transforms safety into movement. Without it, safety becomes stagnation. With it, safety becomes confidence.

Providing direction begins with knowing where you are going and being willing to take the lead. Trainees need to see what competent, ethical, and composed policing looks like in real time. When the FTO leads from the front—modeling decision-making, communication, and composure under pressure—the trainee gains a clear internal map for future action. Direction reduces hesitation and ambiguity, allowing the trainee to focus on execution rather than second-guessing intent.

Effective direction relies on persuasion rather than coercion. Coercion triggers threat responses and compliance without understanding. Persuasion engages the trainee's reasoning, values, and judgment. When an FTO explains the why behind decisions and expectations, the trainee is more likely to internalize standards rather than merely obey them. From a neuroscience perspective, persuasion keeps the prefrontal cortex engaged, supporting learning and adaptability, whereas coercion shifts control to survival-based responses.

Freedom of movement within clearly defined boundaries is essential to growth. Trainees must be allowed to make decisions, test strategies, and experience controlled failure to develop judgment. Boundaries provide safety by clarifying limits, whereas freedom enables learning. Confusing boundaries with control restricts development and breeds dependence. Clear boundaries, paired with appropriate autonomy, communicate trust and responsibility simultaneously.

When trainees get into trouble, effective FTOs go and get them out—but they do not remove accountability. This distinction is critical. Psychological safety does not mean shielding trainees from consequences; it means ensuring that consequences are fair, proportionate, and instructional rather than punitive. When the FTO appropriately intervenes, the trainee learns that support exists without becoming helpless. This reinforces confidence and encourages responsible risk-taking within defined limits.

Reminding trainees that failure is not fatal is one of the most powerful leadership acts during field training. Fear of failure constricts thinking and promotes avoidance. When trainees understand that mistakes are part of development—and that errors will be addressed constructively—they are more willing to reflect, adjust, and improve. This mindset accelerates learning and reduces the likelihood of concealment or denial when problems arise.

Principle Five represents the shift from safety to momentum. The FTO becomes not only a source of stability but a guide who moves the trainee forward with clarity and purpose. Direction given within psychologically safe conditions builds confidence, judgment, and independence. It teaches the trainee not only how to follow guidance but also how to provide it to others eventually.

The sixth principle of effective Field Training Officer leadership is the rod of correction. By this stage of training, psychological safety has been established through relationships, environment, and clear direction. Correction now becomes possible without fear, resentment, or withdrawal. When psychological safety is present, correction is no longer experienced as a threat, but as guidance. The purpose of correction in field training is not punishment; it is protection, development, and growth.

Correction begins with protection. The FTO intervenes and advocates for the trainee when appropriate. This does not mean excusing poor behavior or lowering standards. It means ensuring that the trainee is treated fairly, context is considered, and mistakes are addressed proportionally. When trainees know their FTO will advocate for them while still holding them accountable, trust deepens rather than erodes. From a neurological perspective, this protection stabilizes the trainee's stress response, allowing them to remain receptive to learning instead of shifting into defensiveness or shame.

Discipline, when applied correctly, is a teaching opportunity. Effective FTOs approach correction with clarity, calmness, and purpose. They focus on behavior rather than character, decisions rather than identity. Discipline delivered with emotional regulation and consistency helps the trainee understand what needs to change and why it matters. When correction is predictable and instructional, the trainee learns to self-correct rather than hide errors. This preserves psychological safety while reinforcing professional standards.

Inspection is the third component of this principle and is essential to sustained growth. Regular inquiry into the trainee's progress communicates interest, accountability, and support. Inspection is not surveillance; it is engagement. By asking thoughtful questions, reviewing performance, and following up on prior feedback, the FTO reinforces that growth is expected and supported. This ongoing attention prevents minor deficiencies from becoming entrenched habits and signals that development is a shared responsibility.

The rod of correction functions correctly only when applied within a relationship of trust and respect. Harsh, inconsistent, or emotionally driven correction activates threat responses and undermines learning. Conversely, timely, measured, and care-grounded correction strengthens confidence and competence. Trainees learn that mistakes are addressed rather than ignored and that correction is part of becoming proficient, not evidence of failure.

Principle Six represents the moment when leadership maturity becomes visible. The FTO demonstrates the ability to hold two realities simultaneously: protecting the trainee while correcting behavior, maintaining safety while enforcing standards, and supporting growth

while requiring accountability. When done well, correction does not diminish the trainee; it refines them. It teaches resilience, responsibility, and professional humility.

Through the rod of correction, trainees learn that accountability is not something to fear, but something that sharpens judgment and strengthens character. This principle ensures that field training produces officers who are not only competent but also coachable, resilient, and prepared to uphold standards long after the training relationship ends.

The seventh and final principle of effective Field Training Officer leadership is the leader's heart. By the time this principle is reached, the trainee has experienced relationship-based safety, environmental safety, clear direction, and corrective guidance. What ultimately determines the quality and durability of that experience is the heart of the FTO. Leadership in field training is not something an FTO turns on during evaluations or critical incidents; it is a lifestyle that shows up in small, daily decisions, especially when no one is watching.

Great leadership is not a technique. Techniques can be taught, replicated, and checked off, but they do not sustain trust or shape character. Trainees quickly recognize whether leadership behaviors are situational or deeply rooted. When leadership is a lifestyle, consistency emerges across pressure, fatigue, frustration, and success. This consistency provides psychological safety because trainees know what to expect from their leader, even when conditions are challenging.

Every day, the FTO must decide who will pay for their leadership—you or your people. When an FTO avoids difficult conversations, delays correction, or manages behavior indirectly, the cost is borne by the trainee in the form of confusion, insecurity, or stalled growth. When an FTO absorbs the discomfort of leading—addressing issues early, setting clear expectations, and modeling emotional regulation—the trainee is protected from unnecessary harm. Leadership always has a cost; effective leaders choose to carry it themselves rather than passing it down.

At the center of this principle is having a heart for your followers. In field training, this means seeing the trainee not as a problem to manage or a task to complete, but as a developing professional entrusted to your care. A heart for the trainee does not weaken standards; it strengthens them. Trainees are more willing to accept challenge, correction, and accountability from leaders who demonstrate genuine concern for their growth and well-being.

From a psychological safety perspective, the heart of the leader determines whether all previous principles remain intact over time. Safety erodes quickly when leadership becomes transactional or self-protective. Conversely, when trainees receive consistent care and clear standards, they internalize those values and carry them forward into their own careers. The FTO’s heart becomes part of the trainee’s professional identity.

Principle Seven closes the leadership cycle by reminding the FTO that field training is not only about producing a competent officer, but about shaping the kind of officer they

will become. Long after techniques fade and evaluations are forgotten, trainees remember how they were treated, how mistakes were handled, and whether leadership felt safe, fair, and purposeful. The heart of the leader is what ensures that the impact of field training extends beyond the program and into the culture of the organization itself.

Field Training Officer leadership extends beyond teaching tasks and performance evaluation. It is the deliberate shaping of judgment, decision-making, problem-solving, and professional identity. The academy provides foundational knowledge, but field training is where that knowledge is tested, refined, and embodied. The seven principles of FTO leadership work together to create psychologically safe conditions in which trainees can learn, grow, and ultimately function independently with competence and integrity.

The first principle is knowing the condition of your trainee. Effective FTOs monitor both the status of the work and the status of the person performing it. Performance alone does not tell the whole story. Stress, confidence, fatigue, and emotional regulation all affect judgment. By engaging trainees regularly, observing closely, and following through on concerns, the FTO prevents minor issues from becoming entrenched problems. This awareness establishes the foundation for trust and learning.

The second principle is to identify the trainee's SHAPE to shape development intentionally. SHAPE refers to Strengths, Heart, Attitude, Personality, and Experiences. Each trainee arrives with a unique combination of these elements. Understanding SHAPE enables the FTO to align expectations, feedback, and challenges with the trainee’s developmental needs. When SHAPE is ignored, training becomes reactive. When it is understood, training becomes strategic.

The third principle is helping the trainee identify with the FTO. Trainees decide early whether their trainer is credible, fair, and worth emulating. Identification develops when the FTO models authenticity, integrity, and compassion while maintaining high standards. Psychological safety is essential here; trainees must feel safe asking questions, admitting uncertainty, and learning from mistakes without fear of humiliation or retaliation. Identification is the bridge between compliance and commitment.

The fourth principle is making the environment a safe place. This principle extends psychological safety beyond the relationship into the daily training context. Clear communication, meaningful assignments, timely problem-solving, visible leadership, and the removal of corrosive behaviors reduce unnecessary stress and uncertainty. A safe environment allows trainees to focus cognitive and emotional resources on learning rather than self-protection.

The fifth principle is providing the staff of direction. Once safety is established, the FTO leads with clarity and purpose. Direction is given through modeling, persuasion rather than coercion, and freedom of movement within clearly defined boundaries. Trainees are allowed to try, fail, and adjust without fear, knowing that support exists without removing accountability. Direction transforms safety into momentum and growth.

The sixth principle is the rod of correction. Correction is not punishment; it is protection and instruction. Effective FTOs stand in the gap for trainees while holding them accountable, approach discipline as a teaching opportunity, and regularly inspect progress. When correction is timely, calm, and consistent, it reinforces trust and accelerates learning rather than damaging confidence or identity.

The seventh principle is the heart of the leader. Great leadership is a lifestyle, not a technique. Every day, the FTO decides who will pay for leadership—the FTO or the trainee. Leaders who absorb the cost of difficult conversations, clear expectations, and consistent standards protect their trainees from unnecessary harm. Having a heart for the trainee ensures that all other principles endure over time and shape the officer the trainee will become.

Together, these seven principles form a cohesive leadership framework that balances psychological safety with accountability. When applied intentionally, they produce officers who are not only technically competent but also emotionally regulated, ethically grounded, and capable of sound judgment under pressure. Field training, when done well, does more than prepare graduate trainees; it shapes the future of the profession.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Introduction

This lesson consists of:

1. The Individual as a Psychological System
2. Adult Development Theory
3. Generational Differences
4. The Leader Thought Process: Account for what is happening, Analyze and Explain
5.

Assignment

1. **Read Course Guide**, pages
2. When you solve a case study or act as a leader in your organization:
   I. ***Identify*** the Areas of Interest.
   II. ***Analyze*** the situation using Stages of Adult Development and Generational Differences.
      A. ***Classify*** the stage of adult development.
      B. ***Identify*** the major life issues associated with this stage of adult development.
      C. ***Classify*** the generational membership of the employee(s) and the leader(s).

D. ***Identify*** the major issues associated with each generation's attitudes toward life and work.

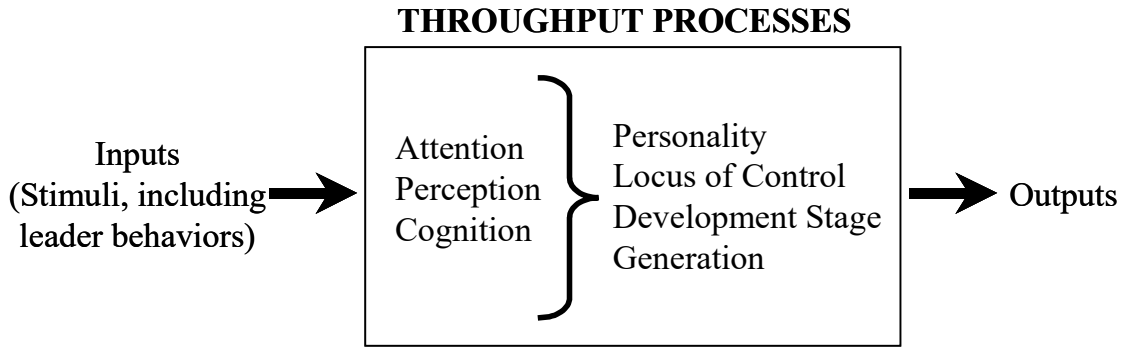
III. A. ***Explain*** an **Area of Interest** in terms of how the stage of development and/or generational membership affect a person's motivation, performance, and satisfaction.

B. ***Explain*** an **Area of Interest** using the concept of the Individual as a Psychological System.

The Individual as a Psychological System

The distinction between mediocrity and excellence often hinges on a leader's ability to discern, diagnose, and predict human behavior. Employee attitudes directly impact behavior and, ultimately, organizational success. Leaders who understand their employees' strengths, weaknesses, and tendencies—along with their own—are better positioned to make informed, effective decisions that foster development and performance.

Understanding why employees behave as they do requires examining the individual as a psychological system. Every person operates within an environment, responding to stimuli, processing information uniquely, and creating responses. These individual differences can be better understood through key psychological components: attention, perception, cognition, personality, and locus of control.



Psychological Components of the Individual

Attention is the process of focusing on specific environmental stimuli. Factors such as physical limitations, awareness levels, and the novelty of stimuli influence what individuals notice. For example, long-term employees may tune out routine workplace sounds, whereas newcomers may be highly sensitive to them.

Perception organizes and interprets sensory input, assigning meaning based on personal experience, biases, and available information. However, perception is imperfect. People often fill in gaps, leading to subjective interpretations. Eyewitness accounts of the same event frequently vary, as individuals perceive and recall details differently.

Cognition involves thinking, analyzing, and structuring sensory input into knowledge, language, and behavior. It is an active process shaped by individual values, intellect, and experiences.

Cognition is dynamic, allowing individuals to learn, reflect, and adapt over time. Effective leaders engage in intentional, strategic thinking rather than reacting reflexively to situations.

Personality is a relatively stable set of characteristics that influences behavior and interaction with others. It also affects how individuals process stimuli, combining attention, perception, and cognition into a distinct style.

Enneagram Personality and the Field Trainer

Field training works best when we stop pretending that every good officer makes a good trainer in every phase. The four-phase model in the student guide is built on Situational Leadership. As the trainee's competence and commitment shift from D1 through D4, the FTO must shift from directing to coaching to supporting to delegating. The Enneagram helps us predict which FTOs will naturally fit each phase, and more importantly, which blind spots will quietly sabotage learning if they are not managed.

Phase 1 is characterized by the trainee as an enthusiastic beginner (high commitment, low competence), and the leadership need is one of direction: high structure, clear boundaries, and immediate correction. The best fit is an FTO whose default style creates clarity without humiliation. Type 1 fits Phase 1 because they are standards-driven, process-oriented, and naturally attentive to policy and correctness; their blind spot is the inner critic, which can turn coaching into relentless correction and lead the trainee to fear mistakes rather than learn from them. Type 6 fits Phase 1 because they anticipate risk and think in contingencies; their blind spot is transmitting anxiety through over-warning or second-guessing, which can create hesitation and over-dependence. Type 8 fits Phase 1 because they are decisive and assertive and can quickly stabilize a chaotic call; their blind spot is intensity and control, which can spike the trainee's threat response and shut down learning. Type 2 and Type 9 can also fit Phase 1 when paired with strong structure, as they create interpersonal safety and calm. Their blind spots are overhelping or avoiding needed confrontation, which can delay correction and allow small performance gaps to become habits. This is why the guide's Phase 1 personality list includes 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, and 9: it is designed to select for structure, vigilance, decisiveness, and steadiness at the very start.

Phase 2 is the coaching phase, in which the trainee becomes a disillusioned learner (with some competence, lower or unstable commitment). This is where stuckness most often occurs because the trainee's confidence declines while the job's complexity increases. The leadership need is coaching: high direction and high support. The best fit is an FTO who can maintain standards while remaining relationally stable, because the trainee is developing judgment and decision-making while managing stress. Type 2 fits Phase 2 because they are warm, attuned, and good at building trust; their blind spot is a giving-to-get orientation and blurred boundaries, which can lead to rescuing or sugarcoating feedback. Type 3 fits because they bring pace, structure, and goal orientation; their blind spot is prioritizing "looking good" over the truth, which can lead to shortcuts, rushed evaluations, or pushing performance before regulation is stable. Type 4 fits because they can recognize emotional reality and help a trainee feel understood; their blind spot is mood-driven focus or over-identifying with what feels wrong, which can stall practical

correction. Type 5 fits because they diagnose patterns, teach mental models, and help trainees think; their blind spot is emotional distance, which can make feedback feel cold and can miss the trainee's confidence collapse. Type 6 fits because they emphasize safe decision-making and risk scanning; their blind spot is an overemphasis on potential risks, which can create fear of action. This aligns with the guide's Phase 2 list: 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

Phase 3 is the supporting phase, where the trainee is capable but inconsistent in confidence (higher competence, variable commitment). The leadership need is for low direction and high support. The job of the FTO is to stop solving, start observing, and coach the trainee's independent thinking without abandoning them. Type 5 fits Phase 3 because they can help the trainee develop a strategy, reflection, and problem-solving structure; their blind spot is withdrawing too far, leaving the trainee with insufficient relational reinforcement. Type 6 fits Phase 3 because they keep the trainee grounded in safety, policy, and planning; their blind spot is overchecking, which slows autonomy. Type 2 fits Phase 3 because they can restore confidence and keep the trainee engaged; their blind spot is rescuing and reducing productive struggle. Type 4 fits Phase 3 because they can help the trainee process identity stress and regain internal stability; their blind spot is becoming absorbed in emotion rather than translating insights into behavior. Type 7 can fit Phase 3 because they bring optimism, energy, and forward momentum when confidence dips; their blind spot is avoiding discomfort and skipping hard feedback or slow skill-building. This matches the guide's Phase 3 list: 2, 4, 5, 6, and 7.

Phase 4 is the delegating phase and final readiness check, during which the trainee is approaching near-independent performance (high competence, high commitment). The leadership need is to delegate: low direction and low support, with the FTO primarily observing and evaluating. The best fit is an FTO who can tolerate observing the trainee do it their way, intervene only when necessary, and evaluate accurately and fairly. Type 1 fits Phase 4 because they adhere to standards and policy fidelity; their blind spot is micromanaging or correcting preferences rather than addressing true performance gaps. Type 5 individuals fit Phase 4 because they are objective and precise evaluators; their blind spot is detachment, which can lead to missed subtle performance drift. Type 6 individuals fit Phase 4 because they identify safety and liability risks early; their blind spot is overcaution that limits independent decision-making. Type 8 fits Phase 4 because they can intervene decisively if safety lines are crossed; their blind spot is stepping in too quickly and stealing the trainee's test moment. Type 2 fits Phase 4 because they communicate feedback in a way that protects dignity and learning; their blind spot is the tendency to soften evaluation due to the relationship. This aligns with the guide's Phase 4 list: 1, 2, 6, 5, and 8.

The most straightforward rationale is this: the best Enneagram type for a phase is the one whose natural strength matches the leadership demands of that phase and whose blind spot can be managed without compromising learning. Phase 1 requires structure and boundaries; Phase 2 involves structure plus emotional steadiness; Phase 3 requires confidence-building without rescuing; Phase 4 requires disciplined observation and fair evaluation without interference. The Enneagram doesn't pick "good" or "bad" trainers; it predicts where a trainer is most likely to be naturally effective, and where they are most

likely to drift under stress. When you assign FTOs intentionally by phase and train them to monitor their blind spots, you reduce stuck trainees and stuck trainers and produce better outcomes in judgment, decision-making, problem-solving, and professional identity.

While the Enneagram helps identify the natural strengths and blind spots an FTO brings into each phase of training, it does not operate in isolation. Personality tendencies influence how leaders interpret success, failure, resistance, and progress, but locus of control determines how those interpretations translate into action. Two FTOs may share similar Enneagram patterns, yet respond very differently to the same training challenge depending on whether they operate from an internal or external locus of control.

Locus of control shapes whether an FTO perceives stuckness as something that happens to them or as something they can influence through leadership choices. An internal locus of control reinforces accountability, adaptability, and ownership, allowing the FTO to adjust structure, pacing, feedback, or boundaries when a trainee struggles. An external locus of control, particularly under stress, increases the likelihood that an FTO will attribute difficulty to the trainee's attitude, the program, or the organization, leading to rigidity or disengagement. When Enneagram blind spots combine with an external locus of control, stuck trainers and stuck trainees are more likely to emerge.

Integrating Enneagram awareness with locus of control provides a powerful lens for leadership. The Enneagram explains where an FTO is most naturally effective and where they are vulnerable to drift; locus of control determines whether that drift becomes growth or stagnation. When FTOs are trained to recognize both their personality-driven tendencies and their default explanations for outcomes, they are more likely to intervene intentionally rather than reactively. This integration supports stronger judgment, better decision-making, and a leadership posture that models responsibility and resilience for trainees across all phases of field training.

Locus of Control plays a critical role in leadership and decision-making. Individuals with an **internal locus of control** believe that their actions shape outcomes, thereby fostering accountability and proactive behavior. Conversely, those with an **external locus of control** attribute outcomes to external factors, leading to a passive approach toward challenges and opportunities.

Other personality traits, such as introversion/extroversion, dogmatism, and self-esteem, further influence workplace dynamics. By enhancing their awareness of psychological factors, leaders can better understand diverse personalities, improve communication, and create an environment that supports employee development and the achievement of shared goals.

Adult Development Theory

As leaders, we interact with individuals at vastly different stages of adult development. Some employees may be much older than us, while others are younger and just entering the workforce. Each stage of adult development brings unique challenges and transitions that influence an individual's motivation, performance, and work satisfaction.

Dr. Daniel Levinson's **Adult Development Theory** outlines a predictable pattern in human growth. People experience **structure-building (stability) periods**, during which they actively pursue established goals, and **structure-changing (transition) periods**, where they reassess their choices and explore new possibilities.

Understanding where individuals are in their development helps leaders adjust their leadership strategies to align with organizational goals while fostering employee growth. To effectively apply Adult Development Theory, leaders must consider:

1. The approximate age ranges for each stage.
2. The major issues an individual faces at each stage.
3. How these issues affect motivation, performance, and workplace satisfaction.

Stages of Adult Development

1. Early Adult Transition (Ages 17-22)

This phase is marked by instability as individuals begin to separate from family support systems and experiment with new adult roles.

2. Entering the Adult World (Ages 22-28)

Individuals establish career paths or relationship commitments but still feel the need to explore alternative possibilities. They may juggle conflicting priorities.

3. Age Thirty Transition (Ages 28-33)

This is a period of reflection during which individuals reassess their past decisions, including career and personal life choices. They may begin to question how they allocate their time and resources.

4. Settling Down (Ages 33-40)

Individuals solidify their commitments and actively pursue career advancement. They seek recognition for their achievements and become more independent, often resisting external control.

5. Mid-life Transition (Ages 40-45)

A period of turmoil as individuals recognize the effects of aging and confront their own mortality. Many reconsider past life choices, careers, and relationships, leading to major lifestyle changes or reaffirmations.

6. Entering Middle Adulthood (Ages 45-50)

This marks the beginning of the second era of life. Individuals implement changes made during their midlife transition but may still experience uncertainty about long-term direction.

7. Age Fifty Transition (Ages 50-55)

Those who experienced a mild midlife transition may now face significant change. Individuals refine their personal and professional goals based on lessons learned in their 40s.

8. Culmination of Middle Adulthood (Ages 55-60)

This stable period focuses on executing revised life plans. Individuals channel their energy into completing personal and professional milestones.

9. Late Adult Transition (Ages 60-65)

As individuals near retirement, they reassess their priorities and begin planning for Late Adulthood. This period often involves redefining personal identity beyond professional roles.

10. Late Adulthood (Age 65 and Beyond)

This phase is characterized by reflection on past achievements, legacy-building, and adaptation to changes associated with aging, retirement, and shifting family roles.

By recognizing these stages, leaders can better understand employees' evolving needs, motivations, and challenges, fostering a more supportive and effective work environment.

Generational Differences and Leadership Considerations

Understanding Generational Differences

Generations are shaped by the social, economic, and political landscapes of their formative years. These shared experiences influence their values, work ethic, communication styles, and approaches to leadership. Leaders who recognize these differences can create inclusive environments, bridge generational gaps, and leverage the strengths of a diverse workforce.

Each generation has experienced unique defining moments that shape their worldviews and approaches to work, authority, and relationships. The following sections outline the key characteristics of each generation and the leadership considerations for engaging with them effectively.

The Civic or GI Generation (Born 1901–1931)

This generation, often referred to as "The Greatest Generation," grew up during the Great Depression and fought in World War II. They are characterized by discipline, resilience, and a strong sense of duty.

Defining Characteristics:

- Valued hard work, sacrifice, and loyalty to organizations.
- Prioritized civic responsibility and national pride over personal gain.
- Believed in clear hierarchies and had a black-and-white sense of right and wrong.
- Built much of the modern infrastructure, including highways, social programs, and large institutions.

Leadership Considerations:

- Value structure, tradition, and hierarchy in the workplace.
- Respond well to formal communication and recognition of service.
- Prefer face-to-face interaction over digital communication.
- May struggle with rapid technological changes and prefer traditional work models.

The Mediating Generation (Born 1932–1944)

This generation, often overshadowed by the Civics and Boomers, played a critical role in bridging the gap between tradition and modernity. They came of age after World War II, during a period of economic expansion and social change.

Defining Characteristics:

- Adapted to a shifting society that moved from individual craftsmanship to corporate loyalty.
- Strong emphasis on mediation and conflict resolution, contributing to civil rights and social justice movements.
- Created the modern corporate structure, valuing organizational hierarchy and stability.

Leadership Considerations:

- Prefer collaborative and consensus-driven decision-making.
- Value institutional stability and organizational loyalty.
- Appreciate direct, clear communication and pragmatic problem-solving.
- May resist rapid, unstructured change without clear reasoning and strategic planning.

The Boomer Generation (Born 1945–1963)

Boomers were the first generation to be raised in an era of economic abundance and mass media influence. They experienced the civil rights movement, the Vietnam War, and the rise of corporate America.

Defining Characteristics:

- Work defines identity—they seek purpose and meaning in their careers.
- Idealistic and ambitious, often challenging societal norms.
- Grew up in an era of social activism and political engagement.
- Value teamwork, process, and participation as problem-solving tools.
- Are competitive and results-driven, striving for achievement.

Leadership Considerations:

- Appreciate hierarchical structures but also value collaboration.
- Respond well to formal recognition and advancement opportunities.
- Prefer direct, in-person communication over digital methods.

- May resist change if they perceive it as undermining their experience and authority.

The Diversity Generation (Born 1964–1981) (Gen X)

Gen X was the first generation to experience high divorce rates, latchkey childhoods, and economic instability, which led to greater self-reliance and adaptability.

Defining Characteristics:

- More skeptical of authority and institutions than previous generations.
- Highly independent and entrepreneurial, preferring autonomy over rigid structures.
- Experienced rapid technological advancements, including the rise of personal computers.
- Developed a pragmatic and results-oriented approach to work.
- Less focused on job loyalty—value work-life balance and professional mobility.

Leadership Considerations:

- Prefer flexibility, efficiency, and results-driven leadership.
- Expect transparent and authentic communication.
- Value merit-based recognition over seniority-based promotions.
- Thrive in decentralized and innovative environments.

Millennials (Generation Y) (Born 1981–1996)

Millennials and Generation Y came of age during the rise of the internet and witnessed significant technological advancements. They experienced events such as the 9/11 attacks and the 2008 financial crisis, which have influenced their perspectives on security and stability.

Defining Characteristics:

- **Tech-Savvy:** Grew up with technology and are comfortable with digital communication and social media.
- **Value Experiences:** Prioritize experiences over material possessions, often seeking work-life balance and meaningful work.
- **Collaborative:** Enjoy teamwork and open communication, often preferring a participative approach to decision-making.
- **Continuous Learners:** Value personal development and are likely to pursue further education and training.

Leadership Considerations:

- **Provide Feedback:** Offer regular and constructive feedback to support their development and satisfy their desire for growth.
- **Embrace Technology:** Utilize digital tools and platforms for communication and collaboration.
- **Foster Flexibility:** Allow flexible work arrangements to accommodate their pursuit of work-life balance.
- **Encourage Development:** Support continuous learning opportunities and career advancement paths.

Generation Z (Born 1997–2012)

Generation Z is the first cohort to grow up with smartphones and social media from a young age. They have been shaped by global events, including climate change movements and the COVID-19 pandemic.

Defining Characteristics:

- **Digital Natives:** Highly proficient with technology, having been immersed in digital environments since childhood.
- **Entrepreneurial:** Demonstrate a strong desire for independence and entrepreneurial ventures.
- **Socially Conscious:** Value diversity, inclusion, and are concerned with social and environmental issues.
- **Pragmatic:** Tend to be realistic and financially minded, often seeking job security and stability.

Leadership Considerations:

- **Leverage Technology:** Incorporate advanced technologies and digital communication methods in the workplace.
- **Support Autonomy:** Provide opportunities for independent work and entrepreneurial projects.
- **Promote Values:** Align organizational practices with social responsibility and ethical standards.
- **Ensure Transparency:** Maintain open and honest communication to build trust and engagement.

Millennials (Born Early 1990s–Early 2000s)

Millennials, also known as the "micro-generation," bridge the gap between Millennials and Generation Z. They share characteristics of both cohorts but have unique experiences that set them apart.

Defining Characteristics:

- **Transitional Tech Adoption:** Experienced the shift from analog to digital, adapting to rapid technological changes.
- **Hybrid Communication Preferences:** Comfortable with both in-person and digital communication methods.
- **Adaptive:** Skilled at navigating change due to exposure to evolving technologies and societal shifts.
- **Balanced Outlook:** Blend the optimism of Millennials with the pragmatism of Generation Z.

Leadership Considerations:

- **Offer Flexibility:** Provide options for both remote and in-office work to suit their adaptable nature.

- **Encourage Skill Diversification:** Support learning opportunities that span various disciplines and technologies.
- **Recognize Individuality:** Acknowledge their unique position between generations and tailor approaches accordingly.
- **Facilitate Mentorship:** Promote mentorship programs that leverage their ability to connect across age groups.

Understanding these generational nuances enables leaders to create inclusive environments that harness the strengths of each cohort, fostering collaboration and driving organizational success.

Understanding the Generational Perspective on History

Developmental psychologists suggest that core human values are shaped during adolescence (ages 8–13), when individuals begin to distinguish between right and wrong. This period is crucial in forming a generational outlook on life.

Morris Massey's concept, "You Are Now What You Were Then," highlights that understanding today's workers requires recognizing the social, political, economic, and cultural environments in which they grew up. Each generation's experiences shape their attitudes, behaviors, and approaches to work, leadership, and problem-solving.

Strauss and Howe's lifelong railroad track analogy illustrates the generational journey. Each generation moves along this track, passing through "Phases of Life Stations" from childhood to elderhood. Generational trains travel at the same speed but occupy different positions on the track, influencing and interacting with one another along the way.

Key generational questions include:

- Do generations shape history, or does history shape generations?
- How do different generations respond to crises and change?
- How do they interact with both older and younger generations?
- Can we predict the future trajectory of society by analyzing present generations?

By understanding generational patterns of influence, we gain insight into historical trends, cultural shifts, and leadership dynamics, enabling us to anticipate better and adapt to future challenges and opportunities.

Managing a Multi-Age Workforce: Understanding Generational Differences

As workplaces continue to evolve through restructuring, technological advancements, and demographic shifts, managers must effectively engage employees of different age groups. Recognizing and respecting generational differences is crucial for fostering collaboration and productivity.

Robert Wendover of the Center for Generational Studies emphasizes that workplace conflict often arises when one generation perceives another's values and behaviors as character flaws rather than cultural differences. He encourages managers to reflect on their own practices before attempting to understand other generations and their work styles.

The Impact of Experience on Work Behavior

Different generations bring unique perspectives shaped by their experiences. For instance, older employees may rely on personal networks and phone calls, whereas younger employees turn to instant messaging and digital tools for quick collaboration. Workplace friction can arise when one generation views another's approach as ineffective or disrespectful.

To bridge this gap, managers should focus on outcomes rather than processes. Younger workers, particularly Millennials and Gen Z, prefer flexibility in completing tasks and value autonomy over rigid step-by-step procedures. Meanwhile, older generations like the Matures and Baby Boomers value loyalty, teamwork, and structured efficiency.

Shifting Workplace Values Across Generations

Each generation carries distinct **work expectations** based on societal influences:

- **Matures (Born before 1946):** Value loyalty, discipline, and long-term stability with one employer.
- **Baby Boomers (1946–1964):** Emphasize personal fulfillment, teamwork, and process-driven success while balancing work and financial security.
- **Generation X (1965–1980):** Experienced corporate layoffs and economic uncertainty, leading to a skeptical view of traditional employment and a focus on self-sufficiency. They seek work-life balance and expect employers to honor commitments.
- **Millennials (1981–1996):** The most technologically adept and diverse generation until Gen Z. They value autonomy, creativity, and meaningful work, challenging traditional work structures and questioning why specific rules exist.
- **Generation Z (1997–2012):** The first fully digital-native generation, growing up with social media, automation, and artificial intelligence. They prioritize mental health, diversity, and inclusion, and expect rapid career progression with regular feedback.

Key Workplace Themes by Generation

Matures	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Millennials	Generation Z
Hard Work	Personal Fulfillment	Uncertainty	"What is Next?"	Innovation & Disruption
Duty	Optimism	Personal Focus	On My Terms	Social Justice & Activism
Sacrifice	Crusading Causes	Live for Today	Just Show Up	Work-Life Integration
Thriftiness	Buy Now/Pay Later	Save, Save, Save	Earn to Spend	Financial Freedom & Side Hustles
Work Fast	Work Efficiently	Eliminate the Task	Do Exactly What's Asked	Work Smarter, Not Harder

Adapting Workplace Policies to Generational Needs

Successful managers must adapt HR policies, communication styles, recruiting techniques, and benefits plans to align with their diverse workforce. This includes:

- Encouraging open dialogue across generations.
- Allowing flexible work arrangements where possible.
- Focusing on performance outcomes rather than rigid processes.
- Providing mentorship opportunities to foster collaboration and learning.

Navigating a Global and Diverse Workforce

The increasing immigrant workforce adds another layer of complexity, as employees from different cultures may not fit neatly into generational stereotypes. Unlike their American counterparts, immigrant workers may prioritize survival and economic security over generational values.

In this ever-evolving workplace, effective leadership requires managers to balance teaching and learning, ensuring that all employees feel valued and engaged regardless of generation or background.

Leading the Generations: Managing Leadership Styles Across Age Groups
By Mike Mazarr

Understanding Generational Leadership in the Workplace

Leadership has always been a demanding discipline, but managing a multi-generational workforce adds another layer of complexity. As workplaces become more participatory and collaborative, understanding how different generations approach leadership and management is essential.

Applying the same leadership approach to all generations—from pre-Boomers to Millennials and now Gen Z—can be ineffective. While individuals should always be treated uniquely, each generation brings distinct values, work ethics, and expectations shaped by their experiences. With Generation Z entering the workforce, companies must reassess their management strategies to effectively integrate the perspectives of multiple generations.

Generational Differences in Leadership and Work Styles

While defining generational borders can be **imprecise**, specific trends in leadership styles are evident across different age groups.

Generation X (1965–1980). The Independent Leaders

Jay Conger, an expert on leadership and organization, noted that Gen X managers value:

- Independence and autonomy—They are more likely to switch jobs and embrace a "free agent" mentality.
- Skepticism toward authority—They challenge hierarchical leadership and expect organizational transparency.

- Workplace participation and teamwork—Despite their autonomy, they value collaboration in leadership roles.
- Demand for information—They expect openness and communication from senior leaders.

Many of these traits stem from the economic and corporate instability they witnessed in the 1980s, reinforcing their self-reliant mindset.

Generation Y (1981–1996). The Optimistic and Engaged Leaders

Gen Y leaders share some Gen X tendencies but bring a more optimistic and socially conscious perspective to management:

- Higher confidence and passion—Polls show that 80% believe they will be better off than their parents.
- Commitment to positive change—They embrace corporate social responsibility and diversity initiatives.
- More traditional values—Having witnessed career-driven parents struggle with work-life balance, they place greater importance on family and well-being.
- Respect for authority, with expectations—They are willing to respect leadership, but only when integrity and transparency are demonstrated.
- Engagement and empowerment—They expect to be challenged and given autonomy, much like Gen X.

While Gen Y leaders push for change, they are also less rebellious than Gen X and focus more on collective progress and workplace inclusivity.

Generation Z (1997–2012). The Digital-First, Agile Leaders

With Gen Z entering the workforce, companies must prepare for a generation shaped by hyperconnectivity, automation, and global crises:

- Tech-savvy and innovation-driven—They grew up with social media, AI, and remote work, making them highly adaptable.
- Expecting speed and efficiency—Used to instant results, they dislike rigid structures and prefer agility in the workplace.
- Mental health and inclusivity-focused—They prioritize well-being, diversity, and meaningful work over traditional job security.
- Entrepreneurial mindset—Many seek side hustles and financial independence rather than long-term corporate careers.
- Demanding constant feedback—Unlike older generations who waited for annual reviews, the new generation expects frequent communication from leadership.

Gen Z leaders will push workplaces toward more fluid, digital-first, and values-driven environments where work-life integration is paramount.

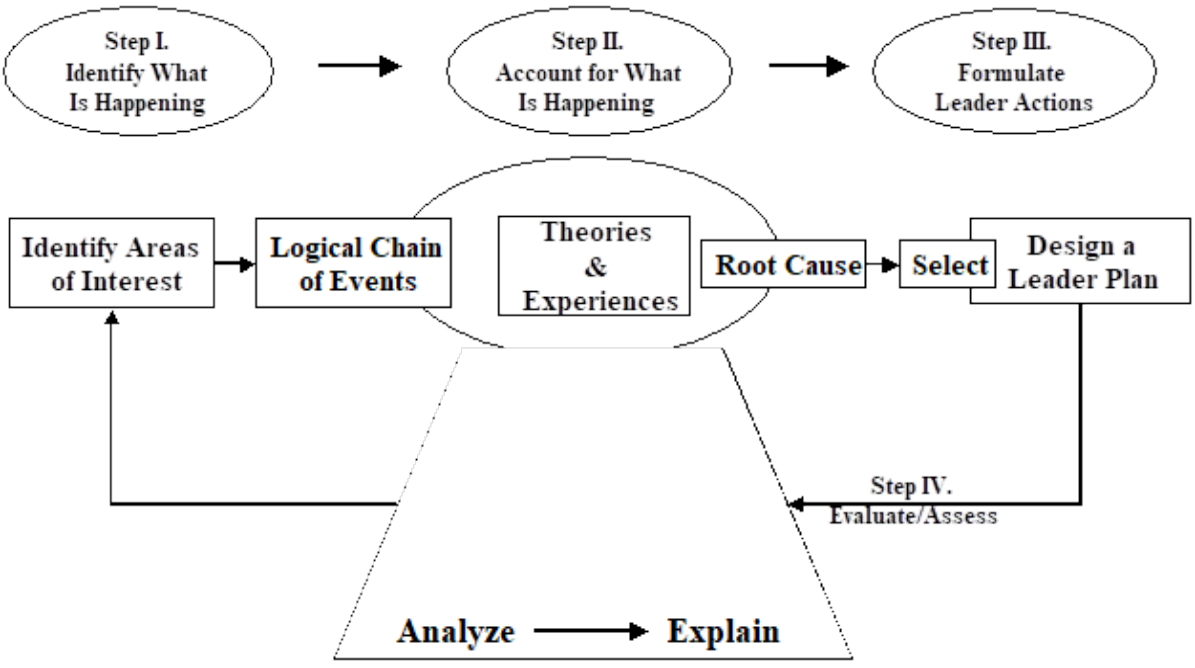
Future Leadership Trends and Organizational Adjustments

As new generations take on leadership roles, organizations must:

- Encourage intergenerational collaboration—Mentorship programs can bridge gaps between generations, fostering knowledge transfer.
- Adapt leadership development programs—The Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) is researching how leadership styles differ across generations and how training should evolve.
- Create flexible work environments—Each generation values different levels of structure, autonomy, and communication, requiring hybrid approaches.
- Conduct internal assessments—Organizations should survey young leaders to understand their expectations and align management practices accordingly.

Understanding generational leadership styles is no longer optional—it is crucial for sustaining engagement, innovation, and business success. As organizations evolve, those that embrace generational diversity in leadership will thrive in a rapidly changing workplace.

The Leader Thought Process



Step II – Account for What Is Happening

Rather than rushing to action, reflective leaders improve the quality of their decisions by analyzing and explaining what is happening. This step in the Leader Thought Process helps leaders understand events and their causes, clarifying the logical sequence and potentially identifying the root cause.

The first step is determining the logical chain of events by time or causal relationships. The second step involves analyzing the situation using leadership theories and concepts to understand employee motivation, performance, and satisfaction. The final step is to explain each Area of Interest, ensuring a clear answer to "Why?" and "How?" before developing a plan to influence followers.

Analyze

To analyze a situation, leaders must ask:

- What information in this situation can be explained using leadership theories and concepts?
- Which theory (or theories) best apply?
- What are the relevant variables, and how can I organize and understand them?

Leaders should identify patterns and relationships that align with leadership theories. Each theory provides insights into human behavior that may help organize and resolve the situation effectively.

For example, using Adult Development Theory, a leader might consider:

1. In what stage of Adult Development is this employee?
2. What major life issues are involved with this stage?

Answering these questions frames the analysis and guides leaders toward relevant solutions. Not every theory applies to every situation; multiple theories may be used for a deeper understanding. By analyzing and explaining steps, leaders develop targeted, long-lasting, and practical actions.

Explain

Once analysis is complete, leaders move beyond restating observations to logically explain the relationships between the Areas of Interest and employee motivation, performance, development, and satisfaction. This step does not merely describe theories; it applies them to draw cause-and-effect conclusions.

Leaders identify the root cause and develop appropriate leadership actions by utilizing the logical chain of events. Without a strong theoretical foundation, leadership decisions may be based on assumptions rather than evidence, leading to ineffective solutions.

Mastering the Leader Thought Process ensures that leaders think critically, analyze effectively, and act strategically to guide their teams and organizations toward success.

Case Study

You are a forty-one-year-old patrol supervisor in Southeast Division (Frank Sector). Lately, you have been concerned with one of the probationers on your watch, twenty-year-old Officer Jake Lewis. Although Officer Lewis is nearing completion of his probationary training, he continues to have difficulty adjusting to his new surroundings. Home is 500 miles away, and it looks nothing like the city we police. Before being hired by the department, Lewis was a correctional officer at a rural county jail where his father is the warden.

Lewis often talks about missing the family ranch. He wonders aloud whether he made the right decision by leaving his parents to run the place on their own. You can tell that part of Jake Lewis is a cop in our city, while a big part is still a kid in the country. Lewis addresses everyone politely as "sir" or "ma'am," and is willing to take on any task the sergeants or training officers ask. However, he is somewhat slow to respond to tactical situations and seldom, if ever, makes independent observations. With his probation nearly over, you really wonder how Jake will do when he is charged with making decisions on his own. On occasion, he has taken actions that are significantly different from department policies and procedures, and you have wondered where he came up with such ideas. He has expressed concern about whether he will ever be able to do things his way and wonders whether the department will ever provide patrol officers with lightweight laptop computers with wireless modem connections.

To make matters worse, you have heard that Officer Lewis has begun hanging out with the team after the end of watch. You hoped he had better sense than to get too involved with the regulars (the cops with extensive complaint histories who spend all their free time drinking). After all, Jake seems to be ripe for external influence.

Use the first two steps in the Leader Thought Process.

I. (Step I) ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

(If necessary, continue listing **Areas of Interest** on another page.)

II. (Step II) ***Analyze*** the situation using Adult Development Theory.

What is the relationship among the Areas of Interest listed above? More specifically, is there a chronological order or **logical chain of events** that helps you make sense of the facts you have? If so, outline the time sequence of events.

_____

_____

_____

_____

In what stage of Adult Development is this employee?

_____

What major life issues are involved with this stage of development?

_____

_____

_____

Analyze the situation using Generational Differences.

Of what generations are you and Lewis members?

_____

_____

What are the differences between your generation and Lewis's generation in terms of work-related expectations, preferences, and behaviors?

_____

_____

_____

_____

III. (Step II)

A. ***Explain*** an Area of Interest in terms of how the stage of development and/or generational membership affect a person's motivation, performance, and satisfaction.

How has his stage of Adult Development and/or his generational membership affected Jake Lewis' motivation?

_____

_____

_____

His satisfaction? _____

_____

His performance? _____

_____

B. ***Explain*** an **Area of Interest** using the concept of the Individual as a Psychological System.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Do the facts of the case and your explanation form a pattern that allows you to identify a fundamental or **root cause** (i.e., is there something in the case information that suggests it is the underlying cause of all or most of the Areas of Interest)?

_____
_____
_____

ATTRIBUTION

Introduction

This lesson consists of:

1. Attribution Theory
2. Assignment

1. **Read Course Guide**.

2. When you solve a case study or act like a leader in your organization:

   I. ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.

   II. ***Analyze*** the situation using Attribution Theory.

      A. ***Identify*** the attributional biases evident in the situation, if any.

      B. ***Identify*** the rational factors evident in the situation, if any.

III. ***Explain*** an **Area of Interest** in terms of how attributions, attributional biases, and rational factors are influencing the behavior of the leader and responses of others to the leader.

Attribution is the psychological, often subconscious process of making inferences and judgments about the causes of people's behavior. This natural tendency is a convenient way to categorize and organize the behavior we see in others and ourselves. However, the attribution process is subject to numerous errors and inaccuracies. Similar to the attention, perception, and cognition differences we learned in Lesson 3, attributions vary greatly from person to person. Different leaders, followers, and observers can evaluate identical circumstances; yet all can arrive at vastly different judgments. It is paramount that leaders recognize that their attributions are not identical to objective fact.

One way to look at attribution is to equate it to blame or credit. When something goes wrong, most people develop an opinion as to who or what is responsible, thereby assigning blame. When something succeeds, we similarly decide whether the person deserves credit for the victory. Attributions can be *internal*, meaning that we blame or credit a particular person. *External* attributions mean that we blame or credit other factors such as bad weather, bad luck, insufficient resources, lack of time, etc.

Rational Factors

When making attributions, people incorporate two elements—rational factors and biases. Rational factors are based on multiple observations. As the leader observes followers over a longer period of time, the leader will base their attributions on more objective information and less personal perception. As such, rational factors are more reliable, but still not entirely accurate, elements in the attribution process. Psychologists have identified three rational factors; these are *distinctiveness*, *consistency,* and *consensus*.

Distinctiveness is whether the person has done well or poorly on different tasks. Consider an employee who fails to complete a project on time. The attribution will likely be internal if the employee has failed at other jobs. Conversely, external factors will probably be blamed if the person has excelled at other tasks.

Consistency describes the person's performance of this same task on other occasions. If the person routinely performs this job poorly, an internal attribution will probably occur. If the person normally does this job well but experiences problems one particular time, the leader would likely blame outside circumstances, making an external attribution.

Consensus is an evaluation of how other people perform this task. If other people normally succeed at this job, but this employee is having difficulty, do you think the leader's attribution will be internal or external?

Certainly, there is room for error in applying the rational factors. Leaders are limited by how much they know about the person's distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus.

Bias

The other element in Attribution Theory, biases, causes even more mistakes in judging human behavior. Five of these can play a direct role in the interactions between leader and follower:

1. **Fundamental Attribution Error** is the common tendency for an observer to overestimate internal factors and underestimate external/environmental factors when interpreting and explaining the behaviors of others. For example, an officer is late for roll call so the general tendency is to say that the person lacks the discipline to get to work on time (an internal attribution) rather than to assume there was unusually heavy traffic or the offer made a traffic stop on the way to work (external attribution).

2. **Actor/Observer Bias** is the common tendency for the person involved in a problem (the actor, usually the employee) to blame external factors beyond his control. At the same time, the person observing the event (often the boss) blames the actor (an internal attribution).

3. **Self-serving bias** is related to the Actor/Observer bias, but it goes a step further. The Self-Serving Bias is the tendency for actors to attribute all successes to themselves and their talent, hard work, etc. (internal attributions), while still attributing failures to external forces, such as weather or luck.

4. **Negative Outcome Bias** is when a leader is much more likely to punish a follower if a negative consequence occurs than if the same act were performed without negative ramifications. For example, a police officer who is cleaning his gun and accidentally fires a round into his television set at home will likely receive a fairly minor penalty. But if another officer has a well-publicized accidental discharge that strikes and kills an innocent bystander, the punishment is likely to be far greater.

5. **Apology Effect** occurs when the leader is less likely to punish the follower who says he or she is sorry, regardless of the sincerity of that apology. Followers who appeal to the sympathies of the leader are far less likely to sustain serious sanctions compared to other followers who perform similar misdeeds but fail to apologize.

Leader Strategies

Empathetic Listening

Suspend Judgment

Gather All Available Facts

Summary

Whenever a leader uses judgment and takes action, there is a chain reaction effect upon the employees, the group, and ultimately the organization. Since the first steps of the Leader Thought Process are to Identify, Analyze, and Explain what is happening, consider how a leader's personal attributions could influence the entire problem-solving process.

A leader's first impressions make important contributions to effective leader actions, but care should be taken to incorporate as much objective fact and as little bias as possible by realizing there is usually more to the story than a leader's attribution.

By alerting leaders to some of the rational factors and biases that influence decisions, this course aims to make you more aware of your own attribution errors and more willing to listen to and appreciate the viewpoints of others.

THE EXPECTANCY THEORY OF MOTIVATION AND GOAL SETTING THEORY

Introduction

This lesson consists of:

1. Expectancy Theory
2. Goal Setting Theory

Assignment

1. Read **the Course Guide for Expectancy and Goal Setting Theories**.
2. I. ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.

   II. ***Analyze*** the situation using Expectancy Theory.

   A. ***Identify*** the individual behavior(s), performance outcome(s), and reward outcome(s).

   B. ***Classify*** the components of Expectancy Theory that are high, low, or missing: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence.

Alternately,

II. ***Analyze*** the situation using Goal Setting Theory.

A. ***Identify*** the current explicit individual goal(s).

B. ***Classify*** the current conditions for successful goal setting.

1. Specific and measurable?

2. Difficult and challenging?

3. Participative process followed by goal acceptance and commitment by employee(s)?

4. Employee(s) receives objective and timely feedback on goal attainment?

C. ***Identify*** the missing goal setting conditions.

III. ***Explain*** how the low component(s) of Expectancy Theory contributes to a drop in motivation and an Area of Interest(s).

Alternatively,

III. ***Explain*** how the lack of effective goal-setting techniques has decreased individual motivation, satisfaction, and performance.

IV. ***Select*** a theoretically correct leader strategy(ies) to increase motivation and address an Area of Interest(s).

V. ***Apply*** the theoretical leader strategy(ies) to the situation in the form of a specific leader plan that addresses all Areas of Interest.

Expectancy Theory

"But there is one element that must be kept in mind, and that is…that no amount of motivation will incite a man to undertake zealously that which he knows is manifestly beyond his capabilities."

—General Bruce C. Clarke

Expectancy Theory offers us a three-part framework to understand human motivation. This theory, developed by Victor Vroom in the 1960s, helps us see how leaders can close the gap between individual needs and organizational goals. Expectancy theory claims that motivation is a function of three components:

1) **Expectancy** or the individual's belief that his or her effort will lead to an acceptable level of performance. **Individual behavior** is the knowledge, skills, and abilities a person has. According to expectancy theory, a person must have confidence that their individual behavior (knowledge, skills, and abilities) will lead to an acceptable level of performance. In other words, the person asks, **"If I try, can I perform to standard?"**

2) **Instrumentality** or the confidence that achieving an acceptable level of performance will result in a reward. **Performance Objectiv***e*, often called performance outcome, is the action or behavior in question and the standard to which it needs to be completed. The performance objective is determined by evaluating the quantity or quality of work done. According to expectancy theory, a person must have confidence that meeting performance objectives will result in a reward. The person asks, **"If I perform to standard, will I get a reward?"**

3) **Valence** or the perception that the resulting reward has value to the individual. *Reward,* or **Reward Outcome**, is received for the extended effort. According to expectancy theory, a person must consider the reward to be valuable enough to perform to standard. The person asks, **"Do I really want the reward?"**

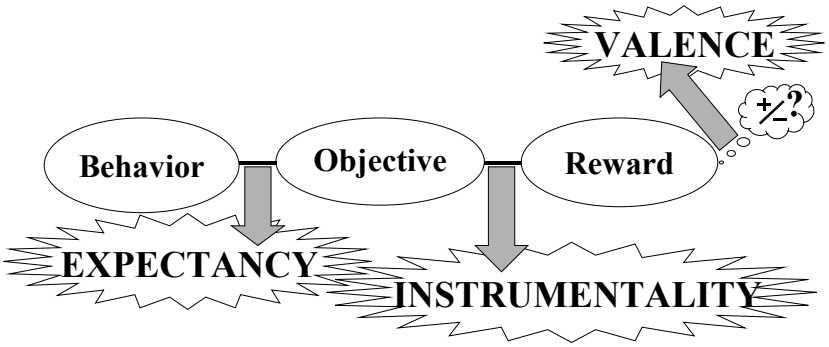
Expectancy Theory claims that all three of the above components need to be present, in sufficient quantity, to cause motivation. This means that the higher the expectancy, instrumentality, and valence, the stronger a person is motivated to perform any given behavior. Additionally, if any one of the three components is zero, motivation is also zero. For those mathematically inclined, the relationship between expectancy, instrumentality, valence, and motivation can be expressed as follows: **M = E x I x V**

People who won't apply for advanced pay grades because they know they can't make it, employees who no longer trust their boss to give them a good rating, and burned-out individuals who no longer seem to care about anything can all be favorably influenced by Expectancy Theory.

Expectancy Theory makes the assumption that human beings will choose to engage in behaviors that they believe will lead to the rewards they want. Conversely, if people do not believe they can accomplish tasks that lead to these rewards, those activities will be avoided (or only minimal effort will be expended).

Although this sounds simple enough, the ramifications for the leader are enormous. Suddenly, traditional wisdom such as, "Work hard, and you will be rewarded," is called into question. Sometimes, effort alone is not enough. Employees need the skills, abilities, resources, and confidence to succeed. They also need to believe that a fair opportunity exists for them to reach their goals, and they must be offered goals that have value to them.

Figure 5.



Expectancy is the link between the individual behavior(s) and the performance objective. Instrumentality is the link between the performance objective and the reward. High instrumentality cannot always be assumed. People realize that in the real world, not everyone gets the just rewards they deserve; they take this factor into account when deciding how much effort they will put forth. Instrumentality is influenced by a variety of factors, many of which are beyond the control of the employee or even the supervisor. A few examples of these influences are organizational policies, judicial decisions, and leaders' behavior.

Valence is the value or importance that the employee places on the reward; it can be the most motivating component of all. If an employee wants something badly, whether that reward is extrinsic or internal, the person will likely be motivated to overcome all obstacles. Frequently, leaders make the mistake of assuming that employees share the leader's sense of which rewards are valuable. Reflective leaders realize, however, that each person has his or her own assessment of the rewards that matter most.

Leader Actions

Understanding Expectancy Theory can greatly increase a leader's ability to motivate employees. Armed with this insight, leaders can diagnose motivation problems and take concerned, strategic action. The following list of guidelines, coupled with practical experience, can help leaders craft specific actions to increase workers' motivation.

1. To increase expectancy:
    a. Clarify the path (between behavior and objective) by breaking the job into smaller parts or showing the employee the specific behavior(s) that will lead to the desired job standard.
    b. Lower the performance standard if this is consistent with organizational goals.
    c. Conduct training to provide the employee with requisite skills.

d. Build the employee's confidence by altering the perception of his/her capabilities.

e. Restructure the work environment by ensuring that adequate resources are available.

2. To increase instrumentality:

   a. Clarify the requirements for receiving a reward by ensuring that the leader does, in fact, control the advertised rewards.

   b. Distribute rewards equitably by administering them in a timely, fair manner.

3. To increase valence:

   a. Determine which rewards are valued by asking employees, in person or via surveys, to identify the rewards that matter most to them.

   b. Provide valued rewards by making desired rewards available.

   c. Explain the benefits of available rewards by clarifying the positive aspects the employee may overlook.

Goal Setting

A goal is simply a desired end state. Regardless of the nature of individual achievements, successful people tend to have one thing in common: their lives are goal-oriented.

Goal setting is developing, negotiating, and forming the targets or objectives an employee is responsible for accomplishing. Goals provide leaders the necessary road markers to guide our assessment of our followers, as well as road markers that may be used to guide our followers' behavior. Edwin Locke, a respected goal-setting researcher, and his colleagues define a goal as "what an individual is trying to accomplish: it is the object or the aim of an action."

In Lewis Carroll's classic *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, the smiling Cheshire cat advises the bewildered Alice, "If you don't know where you are going, any road will take you there." Goal-oriented leaders find the right road toward achieving their goals because they know where they are going. In addition to knowing the right road to take, the goal-oriented leader must ensure that his or her followers are committed to the chosen goals as well.

The main idea of goal setting is that setting a goal can often lead to better performance. According to Goal Setting Theory, goals are the main drivers of motivation because goals guide their thoughts and actions. However, not all goals lead to success. This can happen if a goal clashes with other goals the person has or if the goal doesn't fit the situation. For leaders, the most important thing is to make sure people are committed to the set goals.

How and why does goal setting work? According to Edwin Locke's model, Goal Setting Theory has four specific motivation mechanisms, described below.

1. **Goals Direct Attention**

People have limited attention and can only focus on a certain amount of information at once. This affects how we use our mental energy and effort. Goals help us focus our attention. We are usually more engaged and attentive to personally meaningful goals.

2. **Goals Regulate Effort**

Generally, the level of effort that one expends on a project or task is proportionate to the difficulty of the goal.

3. **Goals Increase Persistence**

Persistence represents the effort expended on a task over an extended period of time. Persistent people tend to see obstacles as challenges to be overcome rather than reasons to fail.

4. **Goals Foster Strategies and Action Plans**

Goals assist people by encouraging them to develop strategies and action plans that enable them to achieve their goals.

Much research has supported the concept of goal setting as a motivational technique. Listed below are four practical insights for leaders in terms of goal setting.

1. ***Difficult*** goals lead to higher performance. A difficult goal shows how much effort is needed to achieve it. Research by Locke and his colleagues found that harder goals are linked to better performance—the tougher the goal, the more people push themselves to succeed. However, this only works up to a point. Performance starts to drop if a goal seems impossible because people may feel discouraged or overwhelmed.
2. ***Specific***, difficult goals lead to higher performance. Goal specificity pertains to the ability that we as leaders have to quantify a goal. Specific goals lead to higher performance than just the comment "do your best."
3. ***Feedback*** enhances the effect of specific, difficult goals. Feedback helps employees understand whether they are on track to achieve their goals or if they need to adjust their efforts. When combined with clear, specific goals, feedback plays a key role in improving performance.
4. ***Participative*** goals are superior to assigned goals. Research shows that goals set through participation, rather than being assigned, lead to better performance. Participation helps people feel more competent and increases their acceptance of challenging goals. While earlier studies suggested mixed results, recent findings confirm that involving people in goal setting boosts motivation and performance.

Practical Application of Goal Setting

1. ***Goal Setting***

    a. Goals should be specific, which often includes being quantitative and having a built-in time limit or deadline.

    b. Consider individual differences in the skills and abilities of your employees when establishing goals since it is often necessary to establish different goals for people performing the same job.

2. ***Goal Acceptance***—the extent to which an individual is committed personally to achieving an organizational goal.

    a. Provide instructions and an explanation for implementing the goal-based program.

    b. Be supportive and do not use goals to threaten your employees.

    c. Encourage employees to participate in the goal-setting process.

    d. Train leaders in how to conduct goal-setting sessions with followers.

    e. Provide rewards for accomplishing goals.

3. ***Support***—the ability to provide the necessary support elements or resources to employees to complete the required task (e.g., training, resources, time, people, etc.).

4. ***Feedback***—providing people with information about their own progression toward attaining their goals.

    a. Conduct frequent performance-based feedback sessions with all employees.

    b. Allow employees to share their perceptions of the level of success—then ensure that it is accurate and based on objective measures.

    c. Get and give feedback from a variety of sources.

EQUITY THEORY

Introduction

This lesson consists of:

1. Equity Theory

Assignment

1. **Read Course Guide**.
2. When you solve a case study or act like a leader in your organization:
   I. ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.
   II. ***Analyze*** the situation using Equity Theory.
      A. ***Classify*** all components of the comparison ratio.
      B. ***Identify*** the employee's resolution technique.
   III. ***Explain*** Areas of Interest in terms of the employee's chosen resolution technique(s).
   IV. ***Select*** an appropriate theoretical leader strategy(ies) to address your Areas of Interest.
   V. ***Apply*** the theoretical leader strategy(ies) to the situation in the form of a specific leader plan that addresses all Areas of Interest.

Equity Theory

Most individuals believe life owes them a fair shake. This belief in an equitable distribution of rewards is deeply embedded in our culture and our social system. Most people believe they should get out of a job what they put into it, and that other people should be similarly, not excessively, rewarded.

Equity Theory, developed by **John Stacey Adams** in 1963, explains how fairness influences motivation in the workplace. **Equity Theory** observes that human beings frequently compare their skills, talents, and efforts against those of other people. Then, a social comparison is made between the inputs each involved person contributes and the outcomes or rewards received. Especially when a particular reward, such as a promotion, choice days off, recognition, or anything else is sought, people often evaluate whether they received the rewards they believe they deserve. In short, people tend to decide whether or not they are treated fairly. This concept can be found in various current bodies of research, such as equity theory, social exchange theory, and organizational justice.

This expectation of fairness is a powerful motivating force. Research has shown that people who perceive unfairness will take affirmative steps to correct this imbalance. These steps, termed ***Resolution Techniques***, are designed by the employee to make themself feel better about the situation. Resolution Techniques help the person restore their own perception of equity, but they can have unpleasant effects on fellow employees, the leader, and even the organization at large.

Some managers may be tempted to ignore an employee's perception of inequity, but reflective leaders realize that ***actual or perceived unfairness*** needs to be addressed. As a leader, every decision you make can have equity consequences. Inequity is more than someone else's problem – it is your problem because it affects the motivation, satisfaction, and performance of your employees.

Definitions

1. ***Comparison Other*** is the person, group of people, or ideal that an individual compares themself to in order to determine if they were treated fairly. The comparison other is "the other person."

2. ***Inputs*** are the work, effort, time, etc., invested by the individual. Inputs are what each party contributes to the situation.

3. ***Outcomes*** are the rewards and/or punishments received by the individual and the comparison other.

4. ***Comparison Ratio*** is a mathematical depiction of the mental comparison (Figure 6):

Figure 6.

$$\frac{\text{The Person's Own Outcomes}}{\text{Inputs}} \text{ versus } \frac{\text{The Comparison Other's Outcomes}}{\text{Inputs}}$$

Resolution Techniques

A person uses resolution techniques in an attempt to restore their perception of equity. Understand that the person could potentially use multiple resolution techniques. Furthermore, their resolution techniques may not be obvious to you as the leader.

1. ***Altering Inputs*** is changing the amount or quality of work I submit, thereby making my efforts match the relative rewards I am receiving.

2. ***Attempting to Alter Outcomes*** is trying to get more for what I am already doing. This may involve approaching a boss to plead my case, submitting a grievance or lawsuit, or using other means to get my desired rewards.

3. ***Changing the Comparison Other*** is switching the reference point. If I formerly compared myself with someone and I am dissatisfied with the results, I may elect to find a new person to use as a comparison other. The comparison other could also be an ideal, such as a better version of the person making the comparison. Some employees may discover this technique on their own. An informed leader may counsel others to this solution.

4. ***Acting on the Comparison Other*** is doing or saying something to the other person in an effort to get them to change the effort they are exerting. This is done in order to make their inputs, or even their outcomes, appear more equal to my own.

5. ***Cognitively Distorting the Situation*** is adjusting my perception of reality to appear more favorable or explain an unfavorable outcome. Statements like, "I really didn't want that promotion anyway" or "I never had a fair chance" are examples of cognitive distortion.

6. ***Leaving the Field*** is quitting or escaping the situation I believe is unfair. This could include transferring to another division, moving to a different agency, retiring, or resigning and quitting the profession altogether. Some people quit and leave. Others quit and stay – a concept referred to commonly as "retired on duty."

Leader Strategy

There is only one theoretical leader strategy for Equity Theory: **attempt to restore the employee's perception of equity in a manner consistent with organizational goals**.

This restoration can be done in various ways and must be customized to the individual and the situation. But, knowing about equity theory is a strong start! By recognizing which technique(s) the employee is using, smart, thoughtful, effective leaders can communicate with their people and redirect employees' efforts toward more positive goals.

In summary, Equity Theory:

1. Reminds leaders to be aware of their employees' perceived sense of fairness.

2. Informs leaders of the most commonly used Resolution Techniques.

3. Asks leaders to explore the ramifications of the Resolution Techniques.

4. Encourages leaders to take a more active role in restoring employees' perception of fairness by replacing employees' Resolution Techniques with actions that support organizational goals.

MOTIVATION THROUGH CONSEQUENCES (MTC)

Introduction

This lesson consists of:

1. Motivation through Consequences (MTC) Theory

2.Assignment

1. **Read Course Guide**
2. When you solve a case study or act as a leader in your organization:
   - I. ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.
   - II. ***Analyze*** the situation using MTC Theory.
     - A. ***Identify*** the behavior(s) the leader wants to increase/decrease.
     - B. ***Identify*** the consequences that presently follow the behavior/Area(s) of Interest.
     - C. ***Identify*** the models or examples of behavior that have been observed and imitated.
     - D. ***Classify*** the employee's(s') level of self-regulation.
   - III. ***Explain***
     - A. ***Describe*** the effect of the present consequences on the desired behavior.
     - B. ***Describe*** how the behavior of a model(s) has affected the behavior of the employee(s).
     - C. ***Describe*** how the employee's(s') capacity for self-regulation affects his or her current behavior.
   - IV. ***Select*** an appropriate theoretical leader strategy(ies) to address Areas of Interest.
   - V. ***Apply*** the theoretical leader strategy(ies) to the situation in the form of a specific leader plan that addresses all Areas of Interest.
   - VI. ***Assess***, evaluate, and revise your leader plan.

Motivation through Consequences Theory

"Praise makes good men better and bad men worse."

—Thomas Fuller

This lesson addresses how leaders can direct the future behavior of followers by managing the consequences of their past behavior. The six key terms for this lesson are:

- Positive Reinforcement (Reward)
- Negative Reinforcement
- Punishment
- Extinction
- Observational Learning

- Self-Regulation

These six key terms are also the leader strategies for this lesson.

Motivation through Consequences holds great potential for the leader. By re-examining the way leaders reward and punish, by recognizing how much followers rely upon their leader's guidance, and by capitalizing upon the powerful influences of observational learning and self-regulation, leaders can steer employees' behavior toward organizational goals employee development. In the process, we can examine our own behavior and learn to avoid some common failures of leadership, thereby boosting our understanding of human behavior and becoming smarter, more thoughtful, and more effective leaders!

You have probably received a pat on the back for doing a task well. Did the pat on the back influence your subsequent performance? Chances are, it did. You probably tried to match or even exceed your previous level of performance. You have probably also been reprimanded for an undesirable act. Did you stop performing that act? Chances are, you may have—or you at least made sure you were not caught again. In both cases, your behavior was influenced by past consequences. One way for the organizational leader to influence the behavior and performance of followers is by managing the consequences of past performance.

This chapter deals with how a leader may use a system of rewards and punishments to help motivate followers to accomplish organizational objectives. Is there something from the scientific study of rewards and punishment that can be useful for an organizational leader? Does the frequency of reward or punishment have an impact on performance? Does it cost the leader to reward? To punish? Are group punishments and rewards effective? To address these and other questions, we will examine the theories of Operant Conditioning, Observational Learning, and Self-Regulation.

Operant Conditioning

In 1905, the American psychologist E.L. Thorndike asserted that when behavior in a particular situation is followed by satisfaction, the satisfaction will become associated with that situation. When that situation recurs, the behavior is also likely to reappear. In contrast, he stated that any behavior that produces discomfort in a particular situation is less likely to reappear when the situation recurs. Together, these two statements constitute what is called the **Law of Effect.** This theory was further developed by B.F. Skinner through controlled experiments, reinforcement schedules, and a more systematic approach into what is now known as **Operant Conditioning**.

For organizational leaders, this concept means that what happens to a follower as a result of job performance will have an effect on subsequent job performance. Although the proponents of this approach would not use the term *motivation*, the net result of understanding this process is the same for the leader—improved job performance.

Operant Conditioning is the direct application of consequences to follower behavior to either keep followers doing what the leader wants or stop them from doing what the leader does not want. There are four key concepts that underlie this theory:

1. The original research in Operant Conditioning was done training animals. As researchers learned to start and stop different behaviors in animals using these concepts and then looked to transfer what they learned to human behavior, the basic assumption was made that there is no need to communicate expectations and there is no need to understand what, if any, thinking is going on. The leader is purely reacting to follower behavior by providing rewards or punishments.
2. Operant Conditioning only applies to behavior that is actually done by a follower. If a person is not at a required place at the right time because they were chatting up a potential significant other in the break room and the leader punishes the follower, the punishment is for (and is intended to stop) the behavior (chatting up the potential significant other). It is not a punishment for being late as you cannot punish something a person does not do; you punish what they are doing instead of what you want them to do. In week 3, when we discuss counseling, you'll see that to effectively change someone's behavior, you must specifically indicate the behaviors that are undesired so the follower can do something about them.
3. All consequences are neutral until you see what the consequence does to future behavior. This means that the leader cannot say in advance whether a consequence is a reward or a punishment until you see what it does to the follower's behavior in the future. Consider the example of a person who works overtime and gets paid, and then refuses to work overtime in the future. In this case, the behavior was working overtime, and the punishment was money. Working overtime is not a punishment for everyone, but in this example, it is possible the officer does not want to have to pay extra money to an ex.
4. The last concept is timeliness. To be most effective, a consequence must follow immediately after a behavior. Remember Operant Conditioning is a learning theory so when a consequence immediately follows a behavior, the follower learns what will happen when they do this behavior. For example, if you put your hand on a hot stove, the consequence to your act is immediate and painful. You learn to do something else with your hand instead of putting it on the stove. If the consequence does not immediately follow the behavior, the follower may associate with a different behavior that you did not intend to punish.

Contingencies: How Behaviors and Consequences are Combined

The combination of behaviors and consequences is referred to as contingencies. There are four contingencies: positive reinforcement (or reward), punishment, negative reinforcement, and extinction.

1. **Positive Reinforcement (reward)**

Most people are familiar with the concept of rewards. This contingency occurs when a person does something, a pleasant consequence occurs immediately following the behavior, and the person continues to do the behavior in the future. Behaviors that are rewarded (or that allow a person to escape/avoid a punishment) will continue regardless of whether the behavior is good or bad.

2. **Punishment**
   The second contingency is also a familiar one – punishment. When a person does something, an unpleasant consequence occurs immediately following the behavior, and the behavior stops.

3. **Negative Reinforcement**
   Negative reinforcement is often confused with punishment. When a person does something, an unpleasant consequence occurs immediately following the behavior, and the person chooses a *new alternative behavior* to avoid the unpleasant consequence. This is negative reinforcement: when a new or different behavior is followed by no unpleasant consequence (thus, avoiding or escaping an unpleasant consequence) and results in a continuation of the new or different behavior in the future.

4. **Extinction**
   According to the theory, when a person does something, and there is no consequence, eventually the behavior stops. Practically, this is true of positive behaviors, such as extra effort. When there is no consequence (extinction) for an officer's negative behaviors (ex., being late, turning in mediocre reports, and having a bad attitude), those behaviors tend to continue – similar to a reward.

Keep in mind, as a leader, you cannot label or classify a contingency until you see what the consequence does to the officer's future behavior. If you believe that you are rewarding a behavior, yet the behavior does not continue, it is not actually a reward according to this theory. Similarly, if you believe that you are punishing a behavior, yet the behavior does not stop, it is not actually a punishment according to this theory. Also, Operant Conditioning is absolutely neutral about behaviors it encourages or discourages. It is purely about what follows a behavior.

In review:

- A behavior followed by a consequence and the behavior continues is positive reinforcement or reward.
- A behavior followed by a consequence and the behavior stops is punishment.
- A new behavior is started to avoid or escape an unpleasant consequence is negative reinforcement.
- A behavior is NOT followed by any consequence and the behavior stops is extinction.

Observational Learning: Learning from Others' Experiences

So far, we have examined the effects of external consequences on behavior. As we have seen, external consequences that follow an action exert a powerful influence on subsequent behavior.

However, it is not necessary to receive a reprimand directly to learn that a particular action is undesirable. We can also learn by observing what happens to others in similar situations. Psychologist Albert Bandura and his colleagues point out that "people can benefit from the successes and mistakes of others as well as from their own experiences." Observing the consequences of someone else's actions can influence our own behavior as much as a personally experienced outcome. Therefore, we are likely to imitate a behavior that brought a reward to someone else if we have the ability to perform it. Similarly, we are unlikely to voluntarily imitate a behavior that resulted in punishment for another person. This process is known as observational learning; the observed consequences are referred to as vicarious reinforcements and vicarious punishments.

It is crucial for organizational leaders to consider observational learning when administering rewards and punishments. By observing the consequences of others' actions, we can develop expectations that specific consequences follow particular actions. Consequently, we may act as if we experienced those consequences directly. Likewise, the behavior of others that goes without consequence—meaning behavior that receives no reward or punishment—also shapes our expectations. For example, one might think, "Joe did all that work, and not a peep about it from the boss. What's the point?" or "I can't believe the boss didn't get upset about what Joe did. It must be okay to do it." Organizational leaders should recognize that the consequences given to one person can influence the behavior of others in the organization.

Self-Regulation

While our behavior is heavily influenced by both the external consequences we experience and those we observe, these factors do not fully explain our behavior. If our actions were dictated solely by external consequences, we would resemble a flag fluttering in the wind, perpetually swaying with each gust. Our behavior would depend strictly on whom we are with at any given moment. This perspective offers a rather narrow view of behavior. As humans, we have the ability to regulate our own actions and exercise self-control. While Skinner emphasizes external environmental factors to maintain scientific rigor, other psychologists, like Bandura, account for internal cognitive processes when exploring the connection between actions and their consequences. Bandura's research helps us understand how internally generated consequences impact behavior. This concept is referred to as *self-regulation*.

The process of self-regulation involves the measurement of behavior against certain internal standards and the administration of internally imposed consequences. The table below summarizes the three components of self-regulation as formulated by Bandura.

Components of the Self-Regulation Process

Performance	Judgmental Process	Self-Response
Evaluative Dimensions	Personal Standards	Self-evaluative Reactions
Quality	Modeling/vicarious consequences	Positive
Quantity	Own reinforcement history	Negative
Originality	Referential Performance	Tangible Self-applied
Authenticity	Norms	Consequences
	Social comparison	
	Personal comparison	
	Collective comparison	
	Valuation of Activity	

Behavior can be classified into a variety of evaluative dimensions. For example, a basketball player's efforts may be gauged in terms of the number of points scored in a game, while a swimmer's performance may be classified according to time. We often use quantity, quality, and originality in classifying work performance. Social behavior may be judged on the basis of authenticity, results, deviancy, and ethical quality. Indeed, a single performance involving several actions may even be classified along a variety of dimensions. A marathon runner may run at record speed (rate) and thus win the meet (results) but take a shortcut in the process (ethics). In self-regulation, the individual learns to set personal standards upon which to base judgment.

The judgment of performance may be based on several standards. Indeed, the final self-evaluation is a function of the judgment standard selected. Operant conditioning processes help explain the development of personal standards. That is, through our reinforcement history we learn which behaviors are correct. This past experience can form the basis for the assessment of present and future actions. Similarly, observational learning also accounts for personal standards. The nature of the models we encounter and the consequences of their actions also provide a basis for evaluating our own behavior.

Ideal standards of performance are often impractical or inappropriate for many of our daily activities. Consequently, we sometimes refer to others' actions in judging our own performance. Through *social comparison processes*, we compare our own performance to that of another individual or to a group of individuals. As discussed in Equity Theory (Lesson 4, Individual Needs, Expectations, and Motivation), we tend to select as a basis for comparison others who are or have been in similar situations. Have you ever noticed students comparing examination scores? "I got a 65 on the test. What did you get?" A 65 means one thing if the group

average is 92 and another if the average is 25. We also may use our performance at an earlier time and group norms as a basis for judgment. Along with comparing our performance to that of others, we also compare it to the formal and informal rules of the group.

A person's assessed value of an activity provides another basis of judgment and has an impact on the self-regulation process. We probably do not care how we perform in situations that are of little value to us. Why spend the effort on an insignificant activity? Valued activities, on the other hand, may have a significant effect on self-appraisal. For example, extremes in self-regulated behavior can be observed among some religious groups.

Internal consequences are influenced by the perceived determinants of an individual's actions. We are proud of good performance that results from our own effort and ability. Little self-satisfaction comes from actions resulting from external factors. Similarly, we are often critical of ourselves when failure is our responsibility, but not when it is the result of factors beyond our control.

As a result of self-judgment processes, we generate internally controlled consequences (self-responses). These may be in the form of positive or negative emotional responses such as self-pride, self-satisfaction, or self-criticism, or in the form of tangible self-administered consequences. "When I finish reading this chapter, I will get something to eat and watch television."

It should be apparent that any given behavior produces two sets of consequences—those that come from external sources and those that are generated through self-regulation. **The organizational leader needs to be aware that both internal and external consequences influence the behavior of followers**. Further, internal and external consequences may become dysfunctional when they oppose each other. People generally experience internal conflict when anticipated external and internal consequences are incongruent. For example, the person who is ordered by a supervisor to falsify a report may experience conflict between anticipated external punishment for noncompliance with the order and anticipated internal self-reproach for compliance. If internal consequences outweigh external inducements, the internal controls will determine the action taken; but if the action produces greater external consequences than the self-evaluative process, the internal controls will have little influence on the actions.

APPLICATION OF REWARDS AND PUNISHMENT

Until now, we have been concerned primarily with the theory of rewards and punishment. We will now examine a reinforcement-oriented approach to motivation, discuss considerations and techniques of rewarding and punishing, and develop a functional model for applying rewards and punishment at the organizational level.

Scheduling Rewards: When does a Leader Reward?

Skinner and his associates discuss a variety of reinforcement schedules. The two general categories that are most relevant to the organizational leader include continuous and partial reinforcement schedules. Under a *continuous reinforcement schedule*, a reinforcer follows every correct response. Using this schedule increases behavior rapidly; however, when the reinforcement is removed (extinction), performance also decreases rapidly. Since it is difficult for the organizational leader to be present to observe and reward every correct response of each follower, continuous reinforcement is not very practical for use over a long period of time. Imagine the cost to the leader in terms of the time and effort it takes to praise everyone in the organization every time they did something desirable.

With *partial reinforcement schedules*, a reinforcer is not administered after every correct response. Rather, reinforcers are only presented some of the time. These schedules have been shown to be more resistant to extinction; that is, desired responses continue longer without reinforcement.

There are two basic dimensions to partial reinforcement schedules—interval versus ratio, and fixed versus variable. *Interval* refers to time (every so often), while *ratio* refers to events (every so many successful performances); *fixed* refers to a predefined schedule, while *variable* means that the reinforcement occurs irregularly but averages at a particular schedule. When we combine these as shown below, we see examples of four basic partial reinforcement schedules pertinent to our study of motivation in organizations.

Examples of Partial Reinforcement Schedules

	Interval	**Ratio**
Fixed	Weekly or Monthly Paycheck	Piece-rate Pay, Commission Pay
Variable	Praise, Recognition, Supervisory Visits	Monetary Sales Bonuses

With a *fixed ratio schedule,* the number of correct responses is held constant. For example, in a fixed ratio five schedule, a reinforcer is administered after every five correct responses. Piece rate pay systems in which a worker is paid based on the number of units produced (a dollar for every five boxes produced) and sales commissions are examples of fixed ratio schedules. These schedules produce very high rates of response.

With a *variable ratio schedule*, the number of correct responses necessary for a reinforcer is varied from the occurrence of one reinforcer to the next, around the average. So, for example, an individual on a ten to one variable ratio schedule might receive a reinforcer after five

responses, then after fifteen, then after ten, with the average of one reinforcer for every ten correct responses. Playing a slot machine represents a variable ratio schedule. In an organization, monetary bonuses lend themselves to this type of reinforcement schedule.

Salary pay schemes where the individual receives a weekly or monthly paycheck represent *fixed interval schedules*. In a fixed interval schedule, the time interval is constant (e.g., every day, each week, once a month). These schedules produce an interesting response pattern. Since only one correct response is necessary in the time interval, the response rate tends to drop off following reinforcement and then increases until a high rate occurs just before the end of the interval. If we want followers to work hard all the time, we probably do not want to use this schedule by itself. It is probably most appropriate for administering base pay.

With a *variable interval schedule*, reinforcers are administered at a variable time interval around some average. Praise, supervisory visits, and promotions may be appropriate for this type of schedule. Because reinforcers are unpredictable, response rates are very high and are extremely resistant to extinction.

For the organizational leader, the issue of reinforcement schedules can be critical. Leaders often become so involved in the day-to-day activities that they either forget to reinforce at all or revert to the time saver: "If you don't hear from me, you're doing alright."

Of all the schedules, the variable interval or variable ratio, where response rate is high and extinction is low, are probably the best for most organizational situations. Variable interval is usually more convenient for the leader. In service organizations, where the types of available reinforcers are greatly restricted, variable reinforcement is particularly useful.

A Reinforcement-Oriented Approach to Motivation

As we have already learned, a reinforcement-oriented approach to motivation is generally preferable in most leadership situations. This is not only because it seems to promote higher performance levels and is more acceptable to followers, but also because it allows the leader to focus on results rather than the complex side issues of follower attitudes and emotions that result from punishment. One such approach is proposed by organizational behaviorist W. Clay Hamner and associates. They suggest a four-stage program as follows.

First, the leader conducts an *audit* (a detailed, orderly examination) of present individual performance. In other words, he examines what the follower is actually doing.

Second, the leader specifies goals—clearly defined, measurable, and published—that are developed for each follower based on the performance audit and knowledge of organizational goals. Follower goals should incorporate the specific terminology of the audit and use the audit status as a point of departure. In the process, reward contingencies, plan of evaluation, and timeframe of evaluation are clearly spelled out. When invited, followers may make contributions to the development of their goals.

Third, the follower, as measured against the goals, maintains a record of personal performance. This activity provides continuous feedback and stimulates intrinsic reward and punishment processes. The work and specific goals are so structured that recording is done frequently—daily or weekly. While the mechanics of recording and the unit of performance measurement are dependent on the nature of the job, Hamner specifies that the process should accentuate the positive approach. That is, goals should be expressed in terms of accomplishment units completed or equipment kept operating, rather than failure, number of units rejected, or equipment items inoperable.

Fourth, the leader reviews the follower-kept performance record and provides positive reinforcement such as praise, a bonus, or recognition when appropriate. This complements the intrinsic reinforcement already experienced by the follower. When positive reinforcement is withheld because of substandard performance, the follower should already be aware of the deficiency. Therefore, in most cases no action by the leader is necessary.

Such a system can be effective if appropriate reinforcers are available to the leader. While the leader can always rely on praise and approval, a more detailed discussion of organizationally available reinforcers is necessary.

Reinforcement in Organizations

Reinforcers are generally divided into two categories—*primary* and *secondary*. Primary reinforcers have value in and of themselves. These reinforcers satisfy basic human needs such as food, water, rest, and recognition. Secondary reinforcers do not have innate value; nevertheless, they usually have a powerful influence on behavior because they can be used to acquire personal need satisfiers. People learn to value money, promotion, time off, and the like because of how they can be used. Because these are learned relationships, their relative value fluctuates among followers. If a person has not learned to associate free time with rest, fun, or some other satisfying activity, it may be of little value as a reinforcer.

Just as followers learn to value secondary reinforcers, they can also learn to value or devalue an award because of the manner of presentation. The manner in which the award is presented can enhance the value of an otherwise routine award. For instance, an award that is normally presented in the leader's office along with kind words and a handshake might be awarded in front of family, friends, and a photographer with an accompanying news release. A reception in pleasant surroundings might further enhance the value of the award. The leader's method of presenting the award can make the same award more or less prestigious and prized, even though there may be little difference in the cost to the leader of the organization.

The value of a reinforcer can also be reduced if it is used routinely or too frequently--too much of a good thing can actually become unrewarding. Anyone who has become bored with inactivity after a few days of school vacation can attest to this. Followers may begin to take a reward for granted; hence, the worth of the prize is diminished. Such is frequently the case with awards for service rendered (as opposed to performance awards).

Technique is important in reinforcement. Although situational factors often determine appropriate techniques, the leader would do well to establish a technique around certain fundamental characteristics like sincerity, quality, consistency, and timeliness. Followers are usually quick to identify false or half praise, and the result is often resentment and tainted leader integrity. Likewise, when a follower deserves a quality compliment for a quality performance, the leader must follow through with reinforcement or his or her lack of action will serve as a non-reinforcer (recall that non-reinforcement leads to extinction of behavior). Consistency in administering rewards and punishment, therefore, enhances their effectiveness in influencing follower behavior. Inconsistency may cause confusion about what the leader expects and would thus be detrimental to good morale. Timely reinforcement, for instance, heightens the impact of a reward. That is, the sooner the reward is given following the desired behavior, the greater the influence on subsequent behavior. In the case of major awards in large organizations, delays due to administrative processing are often encountered. It may be advisable, therefore, to provide interim recognition of the behavior immediately and then to follow up with the principal award when it is ready.

Hamner outlines an appropriate reinforcement process in three steps. First, "select reinforcers that are sufficiently powerful and durable to 'maintain responsiveness while complex patterns of behavior are being established and strengthened.'" Second, design reinforcement contingencies so that the reward is tied to the desired performance both in kind and magnitude. It is just as inappropriate to reward with great fanfare the follower who only achieves specific goals for a period of a week, as it is to give only faint praise to one who has consistently performed well above the specified goals for more than a year. Third, use the reward contingencies in such a way that the follower understands what performance is desired as well as when and how it is desired. When the leader's expectations are not communicated as part of the reinforcing mechanism, reinforcement of the follower may be ineffective or even squandered. In this case, training may be instrumental in developing the desired performance patterns.

When the desired behavior is not simple, *shaping* may be used to build or mold it. In shaping, the leader reinforces behaviors that get successively closer to what is desired until the desired performance is achieved. Nearly everyone has been exposed to shaping. Teaching a child to swim, training a soldier to parachute, or training a young adult to fly a helicopter are examples of shaping. The teacher cannot wait for the entire act to be performed before reinforcement is given.

Punishment in Organizations

Organizational theorists are often accused of naiveté because they appear to promote reward and discourage punishment. This, of course, is not the case. The point that behavioral scientists are making is that the two have very different purposes—one promotes behavior; the other stops it.

Although punishment can be a highly effective contingency, its execution is often very demanding on the leader. The underlying purpose of punishment should be to motivate the follower to not perform in an undesirable manner. The vindictive or malicious

application of punishment for punishment's sake produces many undesirable side effects in follower behavior.

Not unexpectedly, the effective use of punishment has certain principles that the leader should understand. Some of these are presented below.

- The punishment should be directed at the behavior, not the follower. It is the follower's undesirable behavior or performance that prompts the leader's response. General attacks upon the follower's character such as, "You zero!" or "You're worthless!" provide no specific constructive criticism and may produce lingering, injurious effects—not to mention an uncomfortable personal relationship.
- The punishment should be rendered as soon after the undesirable behavior as possible. Delays tend to diminish the effects of the punishment and may cause confusion concerning precisely what prompted it.
- The follower should understand exactly what behavior has caused the punishment and that once the punishment is completed, the air will have been cleared, and the leader and follower will not bear a grudge.
- The punishment should be sufficiently strong to stop undesired behavior; however, it should not be excessive or unreasonable.
- The follower must know the desired behavior and be able to perform it acceptably. Continued unacceptable behavior is then the choice of the follower and punishment by the leader is justified.
- The period of punishment administration should be short. This characteristic does not imply that the follower is likely to forget the well-executed punishment lesson. Indeed, this is the lesson that is most likely to be remembered.
- The leader should not allow conflicting factors and emotions to confuse the punishment process.
- Shows of support, sympathy, misgiving, or reluctance weaken the overall effects; consequently, these punishment contaminants actually do injustice to the follower because they tend to weaken the deterrent effect of the punishment.
- Withholding or denying expected reinforcement (that is, withholding an announced promotion or canceling a work holiday) could also result in a decrease of the follower's undesirable behavior. In other words, not following behavior with an expected positive reinforcer can have the same effect as following that behavior with an aversive stimulus. The term *timeout* comes from the idea of removing an individual from an environment where behavior will be followed by positive reinforcement. The effectiveness of the use of timeouts is directly linked to how highly the follower values the missed reinforcement; therefore, unless the leader knows the follower well, the effect of this strategy may not be precisely what is intended.

Punishment that is ineptly administered can cause hostility and other counterproductive results. This may be due to a number of factors, among which are the inability of the involved parties to divorce themselves from the strong emotions that surround the situation, the violation of the principles of timeliness and intensity, and an inability to control the immediate environment of the punishment act, thereby introducing any number of contaminants (e.g., third parties or unwanted observers).

Douglas McGregor provides an example of simple, effective punishment in the **Hot Stove Rule**. He observes the following:

> We learn quickly from nature, and we learn without serious emotional problems. If we get too close to the hot stove and accidentally touch it, the reaction is immediate. What is it about the hot stove that makes it such a good teacher? It is swift: the association between our behavior and its consequences is undeniable. It is relatively intense on the very first instance of our improper response. It is impersonal: the hot stove has nothing against us as persons and doesn't lose its temper: our behavior, our specific response, is singled out. The hot stove is unerringly consistent: regardless of who touches it or when, the result is the same. Finally, an alternative response is available: move away from the stove. The point, then, is to strive to emulate nature in carrying out disciplinary measures.

Recall that extinction of behavior—not following a particular undesirable behavior with a reinforcement—is another contingency that theoretically can be used to reduce the frequency of undesired behavior. Extinction alone is often an impractical contingency for use in organizations; sufficient time and other resources are not usually available. Nevertheless, when employed in conjunction with reinforcement, extinction can function as a co-partner in a potent leader-controlled combination.

Group Rewards and Punishments

Until now, the focus has been upon rewarding and punishing the individual. But what of the group? Most people have experienced the strong influence of effective group reinforcement in promoting unit cohesiveness and morale. Others have witnessed the repercussions of well-intended but poorly planned group punishment.

While generally the same principles of reward and punishment apply in both individual and group cases, the latter is vastly more complicated because of the greater number of personalities involved and because of their interactions, of which the leader may or may not be aware. The basic problem is that group solutions not only apply to the group collectively but to each individual in the group. It is often difficult for even the experienced leader to predict the important effects of rewards and punishments that are applied to the group. Recall that the

effectiveness of a reward or punishment depends on its relative value to the person who receives it. Therefore, the various members will regard a group reward differently. It is also unlikely that all group members performed or contributed equally. Hence, the same reward may be differentially rewarding. Nevertheless, the group is a powerful influencer of behavior. When the leader can inform the group in advance about the adverse consequence of their undesirable behavior, they may exert the internal pressure necessary to avoid the adversity, and the results can be very beneficial. When the consequence is reward or punishment for individuals or subgroups within a larger body, the leader must be sensitive to the resultant perceptions of equity, fairness, and timeliness by group members who may have performed as expected, as well as those who did not. In this situation, the leader should also keep in mind that other organization members who were not involved in the performance may form their own perceptions of how the reward or punishment act was carried out. Clearly, group rewards and punishments can be effective, and they can provide relief to the hard-pressed leader who can ill afford the time to deal with multiple individual cases. At the same time, however, the leader has to be willing to sacrifice the desirability and greater precision of the individual solution.

Communicating Reward and Punishment Contingencies

The communication process carries the reinforcement or punishment message from the leader and returns feedback. As both reward and punishment messages can have far-reaching impact on the organization (recall vicarious learning), the leader must plan the communication from the follower's point of view. That is, the leader should consider how the message will be perceived and whether that perception will correspond with the intended message. For example, will strong punishment be perceived when strong punishment is intended? The leader must also be especially sensitive to feedback with regard to impact of the communication. Asking followers directly how they perceived the punishment (or reward) is appropriate.

In fairness, the leader's true expectations concerning the follower's performance should be clearly communicated. Often, a leader will unknowingly ask for the accomplishment of one goal, while making the rewards contingent upon another goal's accomplishment. To verbalize that an individual's promotion potential is based on performance while, in fact, the promotion system is based largely on favoritism, would produce unexpected and usually undesirable results. In troubleshooting deficient follower performance, the leader should examine "what behaviors are being rewarded." If these are not the desired behaviors, adjustments must be made.

Summary

1. **Reinforce good performance** – If someone is performing well, reward them to encourage continued success.
2. **Address poor performance** – If performance is lacking, examine the organization's reward system. Are rewards encouraging the right behavior, or are they unintentionally reinforcing the wrong actions? If the latter, adjust the reward system and give the person another chance to meet expectations.

3. **Identify the root cause of poor performance** – If rewards align with expectations but performance is still lacking, determine whether the issue is due to:
    - **Lack of ability or understanding** → Provide training or guidance.
    - **Intentional poor behavior** → Use consequences like withholding rewards, punishment, or ignoring the behavior to discourage it.
4. **Reassess after taking action** – Once steps are taken, review performance again and repeat the process as needed.

Most of the time, performance is a mix of good and bad behaviors. Leaders should reward desirable actions while correcting or discouraging undesirable ones through training, discipline, or withholding positive reinforcement.

Reinforcement and punishment are powerful tools for influencing performance. Reinforcement increases the chance of good behavior happening again. Punishment should reduce the chance of it continuing. However, punishment must be used carefully, as poor administration can lead to negative consequences for employees.

In conducting a comprehensive assessment of a potential reward/punishment contingency, the leader should ask the following:

1. What reinforcements and punishments are available?
2. What is the relative power of my resources?
3. What approach is to be used, and am I prepared to carry out this approach?
4. How can I best communicate my expectations and their contingencies to the follower?

FOLLOWERSHIP

Introduction

This lesson consists of:

1. Followership
2. Partnering
5. Bonus Section: Leading Up

Assignment

1. **Read Course Guide for Followership and Partnering**
2. When you solve the case study or act as a leader in your organization:
   I. ***Identify*** the **Areas of Interest**.
   II. ***Analyze*** the situation using the theories of Effective Followership and Partnering.
      A. ***Classify*** the follower(s) in terms of:
         1. Quality of Thinking
         2. Active/Passive
      B. ***Classify*** the follower(s) in terms of:
         1. Performance Initiative
         2. Relationship Initiative
   III. ***Explain*** how followers can become leaders by Leading Up and how leaders develop followers to become leaders.

FOLLOWERSHIP

Introduction

Perhaps no single researcher has studied followers and followership more than Robert Kelley. According to Kelley's own account, this has not been without considerable misunderstanding, if not ridicule, from others. To that end, ask yourself, "How do I view followership?" Leaders cannot exist without followers. The two are inseparable. Many traits of great leaders are also found in effective followers. In fact, we spend most of our organizational lives as followers, even when we also take on leadership roles.

Leaders often serve as followers in some capacity. Managers report to directors, directors to vice presidents, and vice presidents to presidents. Even in the military, colonels report to generals. Leadership and followership go hand in hand.

Interestingly, there isn't always a clear connection between good followership and good leadership. Not all effective leaders were strong followers, and not all strong followers become

effective leaders. This may be due to a lack of reflection on their followership experiences and the lessons they offer for personal growth.

Since leadership is a two-way process and most people act as both leaders and followers, this chapter explores leadership by focusing on followers. It examines several aspects, including the relationship between leaders and followers, how follower traits impact leadership, follower styles, and effective partnerships.

Followership is defined as the role of followers in a leadership process; it means committing and working cooperatively with other followers and leaders to achieve shared goals by harmonizing individual roles and goals with the larger vision of the group (or the larger vision of an organization community, or society), and may include acting like a leader when the situation requires.

This means that followers are just as responsible for accomplishing the mission as leaders. Followers are part of the process and should be just as invested in the success as the leader.

The characteristics of good followership are:

- Initiative
- Accountability
- Dependability
- Learning from others
- Responsibility
- Effective communication
- Commitment

Followership Styles

Kelley has studied followership not as the antithesis of leadership but rather with the view that followers are *collaborators* with leaders in the work of organizations.

Followership behaviors can be classified using a two-dimensional taxonomy.

One of these dimensions ranges from **independent**, **critical thinking** at one end to **dependent**, **uncritical thinking** at the other end.

The best followers are those who think independently, provide constructive feedback, stay true to themselves, and are creative and innovative. On the other end of the spectrum, the worst followers need constant direction, lack initiative, and fail to think for themselves. Most followers fall somewhere in between—they follow instructions and avoid challenging leaders or the group. However, independent critical thinking alone doesn't fully capture what makes highly effective followers.

The second dimension refers to a follower's degree of active engagement in work. This dimension ranges from **active** to **passive**. According to Kelley, the best followers take initiative, take ownership of their work, actively participate, are self-starters, and consistently go above and beyond. On the other hand, the worst followers are passive, lazy, need constant prompting, require close supervision, and avoid responsibility. In between are the average followers, who complete tasks without supervision once directed, focus on covering themselves, and adapt their behavior to fit the situation.

Kelley argued that behavior tends to remain consistent over time, making it possible to classify people into five follower styles using his two-dimensional model. We'll explore each style individually and finish with the ideal: the exemplary follower.

Alienated Followers

Alienated followers act like a constant source of frustration within their organizations, often focusing on the negatives of goals, policies, and procedures while ignoring the positives. According to Kelley, this style is seen in 15–25% of followers. These individuals are capable but cynical, often holding back their best efforts or displaying grudging compliance. Interestingly, their self-perception often clashes with how leaders see them. Alienated followers may view themselves as independent thinkers with healthy skepticism or as the organization's moral compass. In contrast, leaders often see them as troublesome, negative, headstrong, and lacking teamwork or judgment—sometimes even hostile. Kelley suggests that alienated followers are often former exemplary followers who became disillusioned by setbacks or challenges. To return to being exemplary, they must reflect on their behavior and shift their negativity toward constructive problem-solving.

Conformist Followers

Conformist followers are the "yes people" of organizations. They actively carry out orders but fail to critically evaluate them, which can be risky if those orders conflict with ethical standards or organizational policies. While they work hard and are committed, their unquestioning obedience can lead to serious consequences. Historical examples include the followers of Lt. William Calley during the My Lai massacre in Vietnam and Nazi functionaries in World War II concentration camps. More recently, Oliver North demonstrated this style during the Iran-Contra hearings, stating he didn't question his superiors.This behavior is often influenced by an authoritarian leader or a rigid organizational structure. Around 20–30% of followers exhibit this style, which may also stem from a personality tendency toward submissiveness, conflict avoidance, or self-deprecation. Despite their challenges, conformists already possess one key trait of exemplary followers: active participation. To grow, they must learn to critically evaluate

ideas, including those of their leaders, and develop confidence in their own perspectives. Organizations benefit most when conformists add critical thinking to their commitment and hard work.

Pragmatist Followers

Pragmatist followers, often called "survivors," rarely commit to work-group goals but have learned to avoid making waves. They prefer to blend in rather than stand out, making them mediocre performers who can slow down organizations. According to Kelley, pragmatists make up 25–35% of the workforce, staying in the middle of the road and presenting an ambiguous image—neither strongly positive nor negative. On the positive side, pragmatists help maintain balance by keeping things in perspective, understanding how to navigate the system, and preventing extreme organizational swings. However, these same traits can also be seen negatively—as political maneuvering, self-interest bargaining, risk aversion, or excessive adherence to bureaucratic rules. Like other follower types, pragmatists may adopt this style due to personal preference, organizational conditions, or both. Some use it as a survival strategy during turbulent times but remain in that mindset even when stability returns. Others simply avoid risk, prioritizing self-preservation over potential success. They often become skilled at mastering bureaucratic rules, ensuring they are protected before making any moves—such as waiting for multiple approvals before taking action. Pragmatists exist in a constant state of organizational survival. During crises, this approach may be necessary, but in more stable times, it can limit growth. If a pragmatist wants more than just survival, they must be willing to step out of their comfort zone and embrace a more engaged and effective followership style.

Passive Followers

According to Kelley, only 5–10% of followers fall into the **passive follower** category. These individuals lack the traits of exemplary followers, relying entirely on their leaders for direction. They show little enthusiasm, take no initiative, and require constant supervision. Their work is limited to assigned tasks, and they never go beyond expectations. Leaders often assume passive followers are simply lazy, incompetent, or unmotivated. While some may fit this description, many adopt this behavior as a response to leadership that discourages independent thinking. Research on teams suggests that followers often adjust their behavior based on their leader's expectations and organizational conditions, rather than being inherently passive. To become more effective, passive followers must undergo significant change—just as pragmatists do. In some cases, they may find greater success by leaving an environment that reinforces their passivity.

Exemplary Followers

Unlike other follower styles, exemplary followers present a consistent image to everyone they interact with—leaders, co-workers, and peers alike. They are seen as independent, innovative, creative, and unafraid to challenge authority when necessary. Exemplary followers use their talents to benefit the organization, even when facing bureaucratic obstacles or dealing with less effective colleagues, such as passive or pragmatist followers.

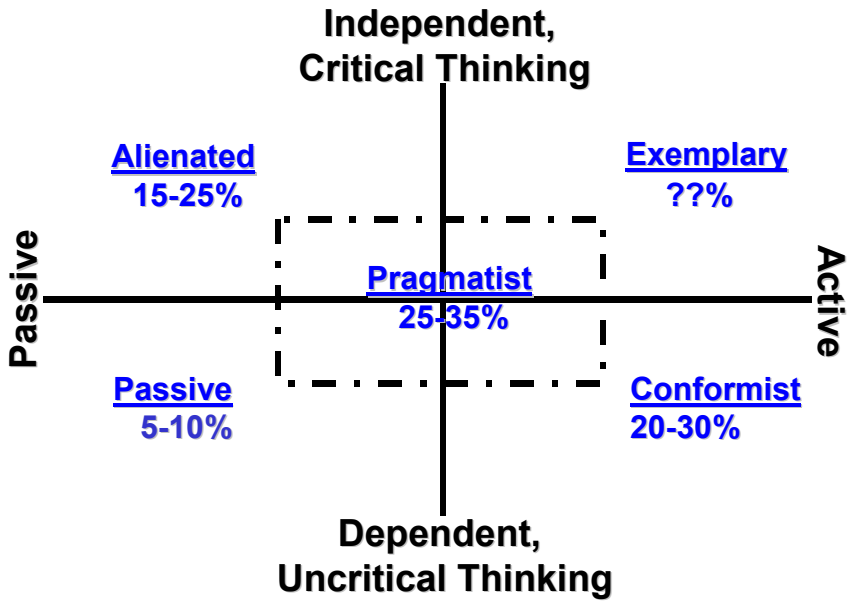
Effective leaders recognize the value of exemplary followers. Exemplary followers excel in both critical dimensions of followership—independent thinking and active engagement—and are essential to organizational success. Leaders should prioritize selecting individuals with these qualities and, more importantly, foster conditions that encourage such behavior. Kelley noted one other critical benefit to be gained from exemplary followers. They know how to get along with their co-workers and leaders in ways that benefit the organization.

According to Kelley, exemplary followers possess and use skills that other types of followers do not. These skills include:

- Self-leadership
- Focus, commitment, and motivation for incentives beyond personal gain
- Competence and credibility
- Honest courageous conscience
- Ego control

Exemplary followers try to support their superiors. They make their superior's job easier by being proactive. Exemplary followers are committed to a cause greater than themselves, and they anticipate and fulfill organizational needs. These types of followers can be delegated responsibility and do not require close supervision. Exemplary followers hold themselves to a higher standard than the organization does, and they continually seek out learning and new experiences that contribute to achieving their greater goals. Adherence to a personal ethical framework is also a hallmark of the exemplary follower. This is in part a result of their independent critical thinking, which stimulates ethical analysis of their personal and professional actions.

While they try to support their superiors, they do not blindly accept their superior's, or even the organization's, definition of ethical behavior. These followers practice moral courage in pursuing the greater good that they are committed to achieving. Furthermore, they will disagree with their superiors but will do so in a manner that is not threatening and with the organization's benefit in mind.



Kelley, 1992

Partnering

In addition to studying followership, it's essential to consider the concept of partnering, which focuses on the quality of relationships between leaders and followers rather than their individual traits. Interviews with successful leaders and followers reveal that the most effective relationships feel like true partnerships. In a strong partnership, both sides understand that long-term success depends on shared achievements. They remain flexible, willingly switching between the roles of leader and follower as needed to best support the goals of the group or organization.

Rosenbach, Pittman, and Potter began their research with two key assumptions:

1. Followers do not intend to fail—they give at least the minimum effort needed to keep their jobs.
2. Leaders do not purposely alienate the people they rely on for success.

However, most followers have not been taught that taking the initiative to strengthen their relationship with a leader can lead to greater effectiveness. Efforts to build these relationships are

often misunderstood by both parties as self-serving or manipulative rather than as a genuine attempt to form an effective partnership. To address this, the research team has developed a tool to help leaders and followers create stronger, more productive partnerships.

Like Kelley's work, the work of Rosenbach, Pittman, and Potter has developed around these two dimensions: a commitment to high performance and a commitment to develop effective relationships with their partners. Taken together, these two dimensions, **performance initiative** and **relationship initiative**, define four types of followers who are familiar to students of the workplace: the **subordinate**, the **valued contributor**, the **politician**, and the **partner**.

Types of Followers and Their Characteristics

1. **The Subordinate**
   The subordinate represents the "traditional" follower who simply follows instructions. They focus on keeping their job and may advance in organizations where seniority matters, but they show little sensitivity to relationships or commitment to high performance. Their behavior is similar to Kelley's "passive follower."
2. **The Valued Contributor**
   The valued contributor is an exemplary worker known for their hard work and high-quality results. They are thorough, creative, and resourceful, ensuring they have the skills, information, and tools to succeed. However, they do not prioritize workplace relationships, focusing instead on their tasks.
3. **The Politician**
   Politicians prioritize managing relationships over delivering strong performance. They are highly attuned to interpersonal dynamics and can offer valuable insights into group relationships. These skills are particularly helpful when dealing with conflicts or navigating tricky team dynamics. However, they often neglect their job responsibilities in favor of focusing on relationships, which can become problematic when others rely on them to deliver results.
4. **The Partner**
   The partner balances a commitment to both high performance and effective relationships. They invest energy into building relationships to gain insights that lead to better plans, actions, and contributions. This combination allows them to anticipate new opportunities and address unmet goals effectively.

The Performance and Relationship Questionnaire (PRQ), developed by Rosenbach, Pittman, and Potter in 1996, is still in use today. This tool is designed to assess effective followership behaviors by evaluating individuals' performance and relationship dynamics within organizations. Recent studies have utilized the PRQ to measure followership behaviors, indicating its continued relevance in leadership and organizational research. The two key dimensions are **performance initiative** and **relationship initiative**.

Performance Initiative:

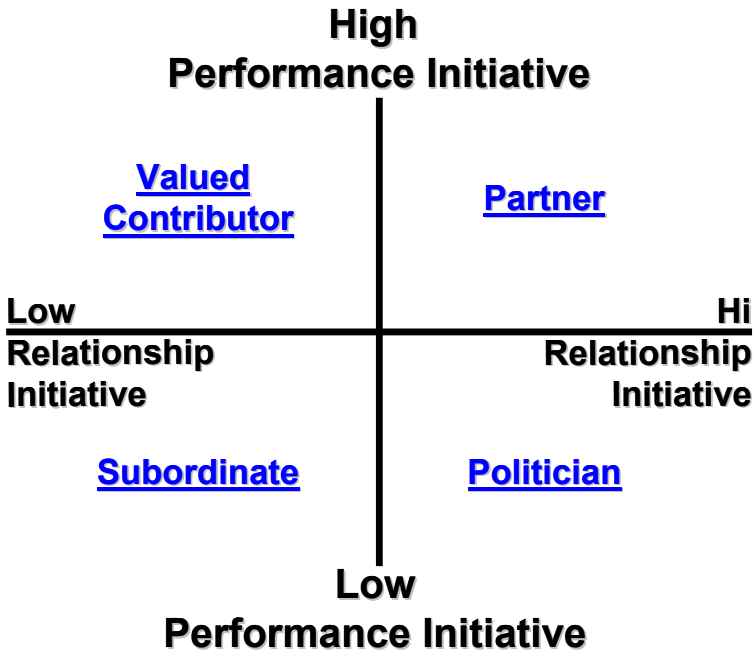
This dimension measures how effectively a follower contributes to completing their tasks and adapting to change. It includes four components:

1. **Doing the Job** – How well the follower focuses on completing assigned tasks.
2. **Self as Resource** – How much the follower values and utilizes their own skills and abilities.
3. **Working with Others** – How effectively the follower collaborates with co-workers.
4. **Embracing Change** – The follower's attitude toward organizational and environmental changes.

Relationship Initiative

This dimension focuses on how the follower builds and maintains relationships with the leader. It includes four components:

1. **Identifying with the Leader** – How well the follower understands and supports the leader's vision.
2. **Building Trust** – How actively the follower fosters mutual trust with the leader.
3. **Courageous Communication** – The follower's willingness to communicate openly and honestly with the leader.
4. **Negotiating Differences** – How effectively the follower works through disagreements with the leader.



EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence in field training is best understood by separating what the Field Training Officer sees from what the Field Training Officer does. What the FTO sees determines awareness. What the FTO does determines leadership impact. Together, these capacities shape judgment, decision-making, psychological safety, and professional identity.

What the FTO sees begins with self-awareness. Self-awareness is the ability to recognize one's own emotional state, stress level, assumptions, and internal reactions as they occur. In field training, this is most critical during moments of frustration, uncertainty, fatigue, or perceived failure. An FTO with strong self-awareness notices when impatience is building, when ego is influencing tone, or when stress is narrowing perspective. This awareness creates space between emotion and action. Without it, emotions quietly drive leadership behavior. With it, the FTO retains control over how they respond.

What the FTO sees also includes social awareness. Social awareness is the ability to accurately read the trainee and the surrounding environment. This includes noticing changes in confidence, body language, tone, pacing, and engagement. It allows the FTO to distinguish between a trainee who lacks skill and one who is cognitively overloaded, between resistance and fear, and between disengagement and exhaustion. Social awareness enables the FTO to adjust timing, pacing, and approach before problems escalate. Without social awareness, instruction becomes rigid and misaligned. With it, coaching becomes precise and effective.

What the FTO does begins with self-management. Self-management is the ability to regulate emotions, behavior, and reactions under pressure. Field training places the FTO in situations where urgency, risk, and responsibility are constant. Self-management allows the FTO to remain calm, patient, and deliberate, even when the trainee struggles or makes mistakes. This regulation prevents escalation, maintains psychological safety, and models emotional control in real time. When self-management is present, correction becomes instructional rather than punitive.

What the FTO does also includes relationship management. Relationship management is the ability to use awareness and regulation to guide, influence, correct, and support the trainee effectively. This includes building trust, setting clear expectations, providing timely feedback, and holding accountability without humiliation or threat. Relationship management allows the FTO to challenge behavior without damaging identity and to enforce standards without eroding confidence. It is how psychological safety and accountability coexist in a high-risk profession.

Together, these four elements form the emotional intelligence foundation of effective field training. Self-awareness and social awareness determine how well the FTO perceives what is happening internally and externally. Self-management and relationship management determine how the FTO responds. When emotional intelligence is present, field training develops officers who can think clearly under stress, regulate their

emotions, and exercise sound judgment. When it is absent, training becomes reactive, brittle, and fear-based.

Emotional intelligence is not an add-on to field training. It is the mechanism that allows knowledge to become judgment, experience to become wisdom, and correction to become growth.

SUMMARY OF THE PROGRAM

Leadership in field training is critical because the Field Training Officer is the primary bridge between academy knowledge and operational reality. While the academy provides legal foundations, tactics, and procedures, it is the FTO who shapes judgment, decision-making, problem-solving, and professional identity. Every interaction, correction, silence, and response communicates what truly matters in the organization. For this reason, the FTO is not simply a trainer or evaluator, but a leader whose influence extends well beyond the training phase and into the long-term culture and performance of the agency.

Within this leadership role, two common challenges emerge: the stuck trainee and the stuck FTO. A stuck trainee may appear resistant, disengaged, overwhelmed, or inconsistent, but these behaviors often reflect cognitive overload, fear, lack of clarity, or misalignment between expectations and developmental readiness. Similarly, a stuck FTO may default to rigidity, overcontrol, avoidance, or frustration when their usual strategies no longer produce progress. Recognizing that both trainee and trainer can become stuck reframes the problem from personal failure to a leadership and developmental challenge that requires reflection, adjustment, and intentional intervention.

Effective FTO leadership is grounded in a deliberate leadership thought process rather than reaction. This process involves continuously assessing the trainee's readiness, understanding what the trainee is experiencing internally, and choosing responses that promote learning rather than compliance. Situational leadership is essential in this context. Trainees require different levels of structure, support, direction, and autonomy depending on their competence and confidence. Applying the same leadership style across all trainees or all phases leads to stagnation, frustration, and misattribution of intent.

Socialization is a central function of field training. Trainees are not only learning how to perform tasks; they are learning how to think, what behaviors are rewarded, how mistakes are handled, and whether the organization is safe, fair, and purposeful. The FTO is the primary agent of socialization, modeling norms, values, and emotional responses under pressure. Through this process, trainees internalize what it means to belong and what it takes to succeed.

The Seven Principles of Leadership provide the structural backbone for this work. They guide the FTO in knowing the condition of the trainee, understanding individual SHAPE (Strengths, Heart, Attitude, Personality, Experiences), building identification and trust, creating psychologically safe environments, providing clear direction, applying correction as instruction, and leading from the heart as a lifestyle rather than a technique. Together, these principles ensure that accountability never outpaces trust and that growth is intentional rather than accidental.

Individual differences matter deeply in field training. Trainees vary in temperament, learning style, stress tolerance, motivation, and prior experience. The Enneagram provides a useful lens for understanding these differences, particularly the blind spots that influence how trainees and FTOs respond under stress. Likewise, FTOs bring their own personality patterns into training. Leadership effectiveness increases when FTOs understand both their own tendencies and those of their trainees, allowing them to adjust rather than react.

Attribution plays a critical role in leadership judgment. FTOs must be cautious not to misattribute behavior to attitude or character when it may be driven by fear, overload, or lack of clarity. Incorrect attribution leads to inappropriate correction and erodes trust. Sound leadership involves slowing down, gathering context, and distinguishing intent from impact.

Motivation in field training is influenced by several well-established principles. Expectancy theory reminds leaders that trainees are motivated when they believe effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to meaningful outcomes. Goal setting reinforces motivation by providing clarity, focus, and measurable progress. Equity matters because perceived unfairness—whether in treatment, evaluation, or opportunity—undermines engagement and trust. Motivation through consequences must be balanced; consequences should be timely, proportional, and instructional, reinforcing learning rather than fear.

Finally, effective field training recognizes the importance of followership and emotional intelligence. Trainees are learning not only how to lead someday, but how to follow well now. Emotional intelligence underpins all of this work. What the FTO sees—self-awareness and social awareness—determines understanding. What the FTO does—self-management and relationship management—determines impact. Emotional intelligence allows FTOs to maintain psychological safety while enforcing standards, correct without shaming, and lead in ways that produce resilient, self-regulating officers.

In sum, leadership in field training is the intentional integration of psychology, behavior, neuroscience, and organizational dynamics. When done well, it produces officers who are not only competent, but thoughtful, adaptable, accountable, and prepared to serve with integrity in complex and demanding environments

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