

MARINE CORPS

Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps



LEADERSHIP EDUCATION IV
STUDENT TEXT

LEADERSHIP
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IV

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Resolving Conflicts in a Group

PURPOSE

This chapter defines conflict and introduces basic guidelines on how to manage conflicts. You will learn about the causes of conflicts, what you can do to prevent them, as well as the importance of maintaining good communication in these situations. You will also learn about the role of leadership during conflicts, and the contributions of a group leader.

Introduction

It is inevitable that you will encounter many different forms of conflict throughout your lifetime. In order to make appropriate decisions and gain confidence in resolving conflicts, you must be able to:

- Recognize potential conflict situations before they occur
- Recognize the warning signs and the sequences of events that can fuel conflicts
- Predict possible consequences and stay attuned to ways to stop the conflict from occurring (or escalating)

In any group, such as family, work, and school or other organizations, occasional conflict is unavoidable. For example, at school a student may debate with a fellow student about a current political issue. At home, a teenager may disagree with a parent concerning an established curfew. At work, an employee may have a disagreement

with the employer about a company policy. In all cases, conflict of some sort is present.

What Is Conflict and How Does It Affect Us?

Conflict can be defined as any situation where **incompatible** activities, feelings, or intentions occur together. It is an everyday occurrence at home, at school, on the job, or within any group where there are people with different beliefs, values, and experiences.

If not carefully managed, conflict can **escalate** to violence and harm your personal relationships, creating wounds that will never heal. However, when conflict is completely avoided and important issues are left unresolved, it may lead to resentment, creating a tense environment. If you take the necessary steps to resolve a conflict, you may find that clearing the air reduces tension and brings about an understanding that creates a more open and honest relationship.

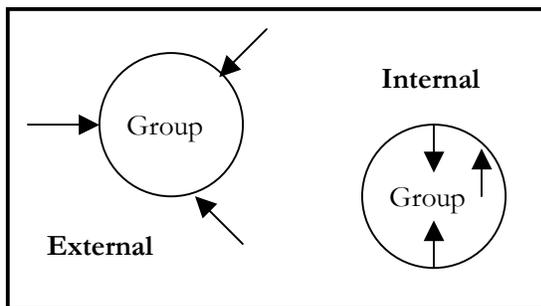
We most often find ourselves in conflict with those with whom we spend the most time: parents, friends, co-workers, teammates, etc. You must learn to recognize that your long-term relationships with these people are more important than the result of any short-term conflict. Calmly discussing issues may often bring about a quick **resolution** or a realization that a problem doesn't actually exist.

Causes of Conflict

Conflict can be caused by the external or internal circumstances of a group. External circumstances are influences outside the group, which may exert pressure on the group, causing

conflicts. For example, a community may put restrictions on a group, which could cause conflict between the community and the group.

Internal circumstances are more often the cause of the conflict within a group. Internal circumstances are those behaviors or interactions within the group itself that lead to conflict.



There are many ways in which conflicts can begin: misunderstandings, embarrassment, hurt pride, prejudice, fear, change, jealousy, insults, accusations, and peer pressures are just a few. Most of the factors or situations that lead to conflict can be classified as resulting from:

- Varied **perspectives** on the situation
- Differing belief systems and values resulting from personal background and accumulated life experiences
- Differing objectives and interests

If you recognize a potential conflict situation early, you may be able to prevent it from escalating into a dangerous fighting situation. By applying conflict management techniques, you will be able to reduce the levels of anger and frustration, which will make it easier to resolve the problem.

Types of Conflict and Their Warning Signs

In order to make good decisions and effectively manage conflict in your life, you must be able to recognize the warning signs of a potential conflict situation. Most conflicts belong to one of the five categories listed below:

- **Relationship** – conflicts that occur because of strong negative emotions, stereotypes, miscommunications, or repetitive negative behaviors. Harassment is a relationship conflict.
- **Data** – conflicts that occur because people are misinformed or lack information to make good decisions. If you are late to the drama club meeting because you thought it started at 2:00 pm, but it actually began at 1:00 pm, then you might find yourself in a data conflict with the group.
- **Interest** – conflicts that result when one party in the group believes that in order to satisfy his or her needs, the needs of other group members must be sacrificed. A conflict over what you perceive to be an “unfair situation,” would be an interest conflict. For example, if your whole soccer team had to run an extra five miles at practice because John, a teammate of yours, was late for the second time this week, you would have an interest conflict.
- **Structural** – conflicts that arise out of limited physical resources (including time), authority, geographic constraints, organizational changes, or other external forces. A **territorial** dispute is a structural kind of conflict. Similarly, if you are scheduled to begin work at your part time job at 3:00 pm on Wednesdays, but band practice is not over until 4:00 pm, then you have a structural conflict.

- Value – when people attempt to force their own personal beliefs or values on others in a group. For example, if a team member repeatedly asks teammates to help him cheat on his chemistry exam, that would be a value conflict. Another example of a value conflict would be the debate over capital punishment.

Strategies for Resolving Conflicts

You have control over how you choose to deal with conflict. In some cases, the best course of action is to walk away, or do nothing at all. Based on one of the following you may find it best to ignore the conflict.

- The issue or situation is unimportant or trivial to you.
- You will not see the other person again.
- The other person is just trying to provoke a fight.
- The timing is wrong and a cooling off period is needed.

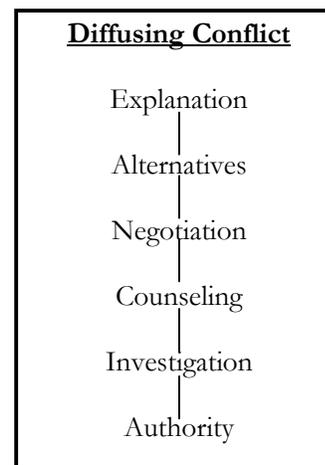
Although choosing to walk away from a conflict may be difficult, by doing so in the situations described above, you actually demonstrate a great deal of maturity and self-control.

In other cases, however, it is best to confront the conflict. Avoiding the issue will not resolve it, and unresolved, lingering conflict can lead to resentment, hostility, and may even escalate to violence. In these situations, using a process to manage the conflict and establishing certain ground rules will help you to resolve the issues peacefully.

A Leader's Role in Conflict Resolution

It is a leader's responsibility to maintain stability in the group by quickly eliminating conflict in an **objective** and reasonable manner. A leader can take certain steps to deal with conflict, whether internal or external in nature.

Explanation, alternatives, negotiation, counseling, investigation, and authority can all be used to diffuse conflict.



Group conflicts often result from unnecessary misunderstandings. These often can be resolved by a simple statement or explanation. If explanation fails, a leader can come to some sort of compromise through negotiation or the offering of alternatives.

By demonstrating a firmness and authority in attitude, a leader may be able to dissolve the persisting conflict. A leader can also ease unrest in certain situations by offering counseling or further investigation into the situation. The fact that the members with the conflict realize that someone is taking notice of the situation will further calm them.

Leadership Contributions to Conflict

A group leader is often a catalyst for the interaction of a group and can initiate either **harmony** or conflict. Although it is a leader's duty to create harmony within the group, the individual can unknowingly generate conflict. Some of the common ways in which a leader can contribute to conflict are:

- By example – setting a poor example
- **Procrastination** – being too slow or lackadaisical
- Indecision – being unable to come to a conclusion
- Rigidity – always wanting it done his or her way
- Lack of information – not gathering all the needed facts
- Criticism – affecting the style of the group
- Negative remarks – affecting the attitude of the group
- Lack of involvement – not participating

Conflict of Goals

For a group to function properly, the leader's goals and the group's goals must be the same. It is a leader's responsibility to assist the group in setting goals in accordance with the group's norms and values, with their best interest in mind, and by receiving input from all group members. At times, conflicts may arise between goals due to the fact that a small group of members are not in agreement with the whole. If the entire group does not totally agree with the set goal, it is the leader's responsibility to justify the goal and gain their agreement. The leader can

fully explain the goal and convince the **dissenting** members.

Power Struggle

Another conflict that may arise is a power struggle between leaders and members. A **power struggle** occurs when the persons of authority perceive a threat to their power, while members perceive a threat to their egos. Several factors can initiate a power struggle such as threat, fear, competition, and distrust.

The phrases, "You can't make me do it," "Who do you think you are?" and "Don't you know anything?" are verbal signals of a power struggle. Any time there is an attempt of one member to be superior or defeat another member; there is a power struggle in effect.

Communication Skills

While miscommunication can lead to conflict, good communication is the key to settling problems peacefully within a group.

Language is extremely powerful. If you have ever heard the phrase "fighting words," you know that there are some words that can escalate a conflict, and others that can be used to diffuse one. Example of some fighting words are: never, always, unless, can't, won't, don't, should, shouldn't, and the use of profanity. Likewise, good communication is blocked when either party blames, insults, puts the other down, interrupts, or makes threats or excuses. On the other hand, words that can be used to de-escalate a conflict include: maybe, perhaps, sometimes, what if, seems like, I feel, I think, and I wonder.

Non-verbal communication, or body language, also has a tremendous impact on those who observe and interpret it. It can encourage or discourage a fight. When trying to resolve a

conflict you should maintain eye contact, and use a tone of voice that is sincere and not intimidating or sarcastic. You should also keep your legs and arms uncrossed, and your fists unclenched.

Successful conflict resolution and negotiation depends on the use of positive communication skills.

If you cannot reach an agreement, the conflict may need to be resolved through **mediation** or **arbitration**.

Mediation

Mediation, from the Latin word meaning “middle,” literally means putting another person in the middle of the dispute. The mediator is sometimes an independent third party that acts as a facilitator, and can be another student. In fact, research shows that peer mediation programs, where students are trained to resolve disputes of other students, have proven to be relatively successful (Johnson, Johnson, and Dudley 1992, pg.97). The goal of mediation is to help the disputing parties find and agree on a win-win solution in which each party’s needs are met.

Mediation is usually contrasted with arbitration, which should be used as a last resort. Arbitration is the submission of a conflict to a disinterested third party, an adult such as a teacher or principal, who makes a final and binding judgment to decide who is right. Typically, arbitration leaves at least one person with resentment and anger about the decision and toward the arbitrator. However, both parties involved in the conflict should abide by the decision made by the arbitrator, and agree to “let go of the conflict” with no hard feelings toward either person.

Role of a Mediator

A mediator facilitates a discussion between the disputing parties, by asking open-ended questions that will encourage a discussion of solutions. Unlike an arbitrator, mediators will not issue orders, find fault, investigate, impose a solution, or make decisions for parties. Mediators try to help the people involved in the dispute reach their own agreement, and achieve practical, sustainable resolutions. However, a mediator cannot enforce agreements once they have been reached. It is up to all parties to enforce and implement their own agreements.

As a general rule, mediators should:

- Be honest
- Remain objective
- Act in good faith
- Show **empathy**, but avoid becoming emotional
- Use good communication skills
- Listen effectively
- Summarize accurately
- Think critically

As with any conflict situation, mediators should not get involved in an intense argument that has the potential for turning violent at any moment.



Steps to Mediating a Conflict

Have you ever helped two friends reach an agreement, or helped to settle an argument between siblings? If so, you have mediated a conflict. Mediation is a simple, straightforward process. The procedure for a successful mediation is outlined below:

1. Introductions

- Explain the mediator's role
- Emphasizes neutrality
- Establish the ground-rules such as: confidentiality, respect, no name-calling or vulgar language, no interrupting, etc.
- Explain the steps of a mediation
- Ask for questions

2. Tell the story

- Both parties tell their side of the story to the mediator
- Mediator summarizes each party's point of view including facts and feelings
- Mediator makes sure that each party understands the conflict

3. Explore possible solutions

- Ask both parties how they can solve the problem
- Write down all solutions
- Check off only those solutions that both parties can agree to

4. Don't give up

- Keep trying until you can reach an agreement. You may have to trade something that one side wants for something that the other side has.

- Ask the parties to write down the agreement in their own words
- Ask all parties to sign the agreement

Role of a Bystander

Even if you are not personally involved in the conflict as one of the disputing parties or the mediator, you have a responsibility to do your part to prevent violence by:

- Refusing to spread rumors
- Refusing to relay threats or insults to others
- Staying away from potential fight scenes
- Showing respect for people who use good judgment in ignoring insults or other trivial forms of conflict
- Appealing to your peers to help control a situation, and reduce the potential for violence.

Conclusion

Conflict is an everyday occurrence at home, at school, on the job, or within any group where there are people with different beliefs, values and experiences. Interaction within a group that leads to controversy or opposition is conflict. Group conflict can be caused by many different internal and external factors. To maintain the stability of a group, it is the responsibility of the leader to resolve conflict.

A leader may contribute to conflict without even realizing it by displaying an attitude about the issue. Conflict of goals and power struggles are direct conflicts, which occur between the person in the authority position and a member.

Conflict is a natural part of life. It can be positive or negative depending on how you choose to manage it. By recognizing potential conflicts and their warning signs, and using conflict management strategies to help you make appropriate decisions, you will have confidence and be better prepared to deal with conflict in the future. ❖

In All Fairness - Equal Opportunity, Sexual Harassment, and Fraternalization

PURPOSE

This chapter discusses three topics: equal opportunity, sexual harassment, and fraternization. You will learn the definitions of all three and how the Marine Corps looks at each of these. You will also learn the importance of equal opportunity and the negative impacts of sexual harassment and fraternization. You will also learn about the role of leadership in ensuring fairness and equal opportunity for both civilian and military personnel.

Introduction

In the Declaration of Independence, it is stated that all people are created equal. Citizens have certain **unalienable** rights: life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. In simplified terms, this means that all of us, regardless of race, religion, ethnic background, or sex are equal under the law. All citizens have a right to pursue education, a career, and the lifestyle of their choice. We may all do this free from **prejudice** and **discrimination**.

These ideals of the Declaration are strongly upheld by the Marine Corps. The basic philosophy of the Corps leadership is the responsibility for the welfare of Marines. This means ensuring fair, **impartial**, and equal treatment and opportunity.

All Marine Corps policies regarding equal opportunity and sexual harassment apply to

MCJROTC. Therefore, it is important that you as a cadet both understand and apply these policies.

Equal Opportunity

A discussion of Equal Opportunity (EO) is recognized as a contemporary leadership issue. All Marines should understand that adherence to our basic leadership traits and principles provides for the fundamentals that equal opportunity addresses. We also must recognize that discrimination based upon race, color, religion, gender, age, or national origin, are alien to the basic values of the Marine Corps. The Marine Corps Equal Opportunity Program is one method of "personnel preventive maintenance."

The Marine Corps Equal Opportunity policy is based upon DoD Directive 1350.2, the Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity Program and the Department of Defense Human Goals Charter.

The DoD Human Goals Charter is a statement concerning equal opportunity within all branches of military service:

To attain these goals the DoD has set forth specific requirements to be upheld by all branches of the military:

"Our nation was founded on the principle that the individual has infinite dignity and worth." The Department of Defense, which exists to keep the nation secure and at peace, must always be guided by this principle. In all that we do, we must show respect for the serviceman, the service woman and the civilian employee, recognizing their individual needs, aspirations and capabilities."

“To attract to the defense service people with ability, dedication, and capacity for growth;

To provide opportunity for everyone, military and civilian, to rise to as high a level of responsibility as possible, dependent only on individual talent and diligence;

To make military and civilian service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion or national origin, and to hold those who do business with the Department to full compliance with the policy of equal employment opportunity;

To help each service member in leaving the service to readjust to civilian life; and

To contribute to the improvement of our society, including its disadvantaged members, by greater utilization of our human and physical resources while maintaining full effectiveness in the performance of our primary mission.”

Having read the DoD Human Goals Charter, you will readily recognize that leaders must translate these goals into positive actions.

One way of accomplishing this is through conducting leadership training that promotes harmonious interactions among Marines across the barriers of race, ethnic group, grade, age, and gender and that provides fair treatment for all Marines.

Define Equal Opportunity

Equal Opportunity means every Marine will be treated fairly and equally, and have equality of opportunity regardless of race, color, religion, gender, age, or national origin. EO ensures that all Marines will be treated with respect and their aspirations, needs, and capabilities will be recognized.

This is a very basic principle of leadership; know your Marines and look out for their welfare. The leader must concern himself/herself with the human needs (food, clothing, housing, recreation, education, and a chance for advancement) of his or her followers. A leader must encourage individual development and self-improvement. Perhaps most important, a leader must ensure that channels of communication are kept open.

Equal Opportunity is embodied in the basic philosophy of Marine Corps leadership. Accordingly, paragraph 1100 of the Marine Corps Manual provides the following standards to be maintained by leaders:

- Strive for forceful and competent leadership throughout the entire organization.
- Inform the troops of plans of action and reasons whenever it is possible and practical to do so.
- Endeavor to remove on all occasions those causes that make for misunderstanding or dissatisfaction.
- Assure that all members of the command are acquainted with procedures for registering complaints, and the process of action taken thereafter.
- Build a feeling of confidence that will ensure the free approach by subordinates for advice

and assistance not only in military matters, but for personal problems as well.

The Marine Corps' Equal Opportunity Program

The objectives of the Marine Corps' Equal Opportunity Program (EOP) are:

- To integrate equal opportunity into every aspect of Marine Corps life.
- To understand the effects of past discriminatory practices in order to formulate specific equal opportunity objectives and to initiate affirmative actions to eliminate existing deficiencies.
- To identify, eliminate, correct, or prevent adverse or illegal institutional and individual discriminatory practices.
- To promote harmonious relationships among Marines through the elimination of prejudice and harassment.
- To ensure the opportunity and encouragement for personal and professional advancement of individual Marines without regard to age, race, color, religion, gender, or national origin.

The EOP operates through and impacts upon all existing programs and actions within every aspect of command. The commander must ensure that equal opportunity is applied in every command policy, action, and program.

In keeping with the Marine Corps leadership philosophy, the responsibility for accomplishing equal opportunity goals is not dependent on authority and is not the function of any special staff officer. Rather, all Marines are expected to exert proper leadership by promoting harmonious interactions among individuals, regardless of age, race, color, religion, gender, or

national origin, by exemplifying fair treatment for all Marines, and identifying unfair practices to higher authority via the chain of command.

Affirmative Action

Affirmative action is a method used to achieve the objectives of the EO program. It includes processes, activities, and systems designed to prevent, identify, and eliminate unlawful discriminatory treatment as it affects the recruitment, training, assignment, utilization, promotion, and retention of military personnel.

The Affirmative Action Program (AAP) is a management document consisting of spelled-out affirmative actions with goals and milestones that can be measured, used to bring about the accomplishment of equal opportunity program objectives.

Ensuring Equal Opportunity

The Marine Corps suggests several methods for ensuring equal opportunity:

- Be proactive. Emphasize teamwork. Discrimination in any form is adverse to mission accomplishment.
- Publicize Marine Corps and local command policy. Stress leadership accountability.
- Ensure all Marines are aware of the avenues of filing EO complaints and actions that will be taken against personnel in substantiated cases.



Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is one type of discriminatory behavior that erodes morale and discipline and is capable of destroying unit readiness.

Defining Sexual Harassment

All Marines share responsibility for maintaining the proper environment of mutual respect and confidence within their units. Teamwork, esprit de corps, and identity with a common purpose are the key aspects that make the Marine Corps what it is today; a proud, effective military force.

Sexual harassment is defined as a form of discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when one or more of these conditions exists:

- Submission to or rejection of such conduct is made either **explicitly** or **implicitly** a term or **condition** of a person's job, pay, or career.
- Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person.
- Such conduct interferes with an individual's performance or creates an **intimidating, hostile**, or offensive environment.

This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be considered harassment, does not have to result in severe psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or **pervasive** that a reasonable person would perceive the work environment as hostile or abusive. (Note: "workplace" is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day).

Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual

behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment.

“Reasonable Person” Standard

An objective test used to determine if behavior constitutes sexual harassment is the “reasonable person” standard. This standard considers what a reasonable person's reaction would be under similar circumstances and in a similar environment. The reasonable person standard considers the recipient's perspective and not stereotyped notions of acceptable behavior. For example, a work environment in which sexual slurs, the display of sexually suggestive calendars, or other offensive sexual behavior abound can constitute sexual harassment even if other people might deem it to be harmless or insignificant.

Types of Sexual Harassment

There are three types of sexual harassment.

- Verbal sexual harassment
- Nonverbal sexual harassment
- Physical sexual harassment

Verbal Sexual Harassment

Verbal sexual harassment requires conscious effort, such as:

- Whistling or making rude noises at someone
- Sexual comments about someone's clothing or body
- Personal sexual questions

- Telling “off-color” jokes or stories
- Turning discussions into sexual topics
- Using sexual **connotations** or **innuendoes**
- Telling lies or spreading rumors about a person's personal sex life

Nonverbal Sexual Harassment

Like verbal behaviors, nonverbal behaviors that constitute sexual harassment take on many forms. Some examples are:

- Paying unwanted attention to someone by staring at his or her body.
- Displaying sexually suggestive visuals (centerfolds, calendars, cartoons, etc.).
- Displaying ashtrays, coffee cups, figurines, and other items depicting sexual parts of the anatomy through actuality or innuendo.
- Allowing sexually oriented entertainment in organizations, base facilities, or officially sanctioned functions.
- Making sexually suggestive gestures with hands or through body movement (blowing kisses, licking lips, winking, lowering pants, raising skirt, etc.).

Physical Sexual Harassment

To qualify as physical sexual harassment, an action must be unwelcome and of a sexual nature so as to constitute a violation or policy. Examples are:

- Hanging around, standing close to, or brushing against a person
- Touching a person's clothing, hair, or body
- Hugging, kissing, patting, or stroking
- Touching, pinching, bumping, or cornering
- Blocking a passageway

Sexual Remarks

Sexual remarks from subtle hints to direct propositions for sexual favors constitute sexual harassment and include, but are not limited to:

- Invitations by a senior to a subordinate to lunch, drinks, dinner, having an implied (perceived) purpose of leading to sexual favors.
- Threats from hints such as: "Your life would be easier here if you were friendlier," to blunt statements: "If you want that training or assignment, maybe we'd better get to know each other better this evening."

Marine Corps Policy on Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment, as defined above, is unacceptable behavior for military or civilian personnel. Such behavior will be dealt with immediately through the leadership/supervisory structures of the Marine Corps, to include the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

Leaders and supervisors have a responsibility to create an environment of mutual respect in which all personnel can work toward mission accomplishment.

Commander Responsibility

What is the responsibility of the commander? One of the responsibilities of all commanders is to ensure the contents of MCO 5300.10A are brought to the attention of all military members and civilian employees.

Another responsibility of the commander is to conduct training to promote an understanding of sexual harassment and its potentially adverse impact on mission readiness.

Individual Responsibility

Every Marine shares responsibility for maintaining proper behavior with one another so that everyone can contribute their best efforts to the accomplishment of the unit mission.

Leader Responsibility

What are the responsibilities of the leader in the event of a sexual harassment situation? The leader must take some form of action. The action taken will be appropriate for the individual situation.

- Inform the chain of command, if appropriate.
- It may be possible to refer parties involved to support services, such as:
 - Legal Office
 - Employee Employment Opportunity Counselor (civilians)
 - Family Service Center
 - Medical Treatment Facility
 - Chaplains
 - Equal Opportunity Advisers

The leader will deal with complaints of sexual harassment in the same manner as any complaint of violation of the UCMJ. It is the responsibility of the leader to maintain proper standards of behavior by all Marines in accordance with the Marine Corps' traditional requirement for good order and discipline.

Most important, the leader is responsible for ensuring that subordinates do not suffer any repercussions for reporting sexual harassment.

Overall, "prevention" of sexual harassment is a leadership responsibility. Sexual harassment is degrading to the individual,

destructive of morale, and is punishable under the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

Fraternization

Fraternization was not mentioned in the Uniform Code of Military Justice when it was first enacted; improper relationships between seniors and subordinates were prosecuted as conduct unbecoming an officer. In 1984, however, fraternization was explicitly recognized as an offense under military law.

Fraternization Defined

Fraternization is the term used to describe improper personal and business relationships among Marines of different ranks or positions.

When contact and relationships exceed standards and become those of "buddies" or peers, then fraternization exists. Here are the questions to ask:

- Is there a compromise of the chain of command?
- Is there an appearance of partiality? (When dealing with the subject of fraternization, perceptions are as deadly as reality.)
- Is there the potential for good order, discipline, morale, or authority to be undermined?

Marine Corps Policy on Fraternization

The Marine Corps policy regarding fraternization is the product of naval service customs. The Marine Corps specifically, and military society in general, has historically imposed social constraints on personal relationships between individuals of different rank, grade, or position. It is important to keep in mind that because customs vary between branches of the armed forces, the Marine Corps' view of

fraternization can be different (stricter) than that of the Air Force or the Army.

Fraternization is a social or business relationship between Marines of different grades in violation of a custom of the naval service that, in the eyes of one experienced in military leadership, impacts adversely on good order and discipline, or degrades or at least threatens to degrade the character or status of the position that a Marine holds.

Some possible examples of activities encompassed by the term "fraternization" are:

- Playing cards or gambling together.
- Going to private homes or clubs together.
- Dating or engaging in sexual activities.
- Engaging in commercial transactions, except for one-time sales or leases.
- Showing favoritism or partiality.
- Using one's authority for personal gain.

The military services demand a regard for authority by juniors toward their seniors, which experience has shown is enhanced by the observance of decorum, tradition, custom, usage, and conventions that are peculiar to the services alone. The unquestioned obedience mandated in time of battle rests on regard and respect for authority. This respect is lessened by the failure to observe niceties of military courtesy and other traditions and customs.

Marriage – A Special Case

The Marine Corps cannot legally act to prevent marriages between service members. A marriage between Marines of differing grades will constitute fraternization when the impact of the marriage detracts or tends to detract from the respect due a senior, or is perceived by others to do so.

A marriage stemming from a previously existing improper relationship does not excuse those involved from responsibility for their activities before the marriage.

Conclusion

Discriminatory practices within the Marine Corps are unacceptable. Discrimination undermines morale and prevents the maximum utilization and development of **human resources**. It likewise destroys teamwork. This in turn reduces combat readiness.

Sexual harassment is a form of discrimination. It is any unwelcome sexually related contact between individuals. It can be verbal or physical in nature. Sexual harassment can imperil the well-being of the entire unit. It destroys morale and esprit de corps. It is a leader's responsibility to recognize behaviors related to sexual harassment. A leader must quickly correct such situations before they become serious. Sexual harassment is a serious offense.

The regulations against fraternization are meant to ensure that the relationships maintained within the Marines are of the most professional and productive nature. If we, as leaders, expect our Marines to respect us, there cannot be even a hint of favoritism. Fraternization gives the appearance of favoritism, which can have a negative effect on morale and unit cohesiveness.

It is a leader's responsibility to ensure that fairness and equal opportunity are extended to ALL personnel, both civilian and military.

**Violations of Marine Corps policy
will not be tolerated. ❖**

Portraits of Patriots

PURPOSE

Patriots are people who love, defend, or support the ideals of their country. Many of the people that we think of as patriots are individuals who were involved in the American Revolution. These individuals rebelled against British laws, fought in the War for Independence, and helped start a new nation. They challenged the way government had operated and reasoned that this new country should embrace the goal of a democratic system that protected the rights of the individual.

This lesson will primarily focus on the individuals who helped form and shape our country. Two other patriots have been included who performed great service to the United States during the great conflicts of the twentieth century.

Introduction

In 1765, there was no United States. In the decade that followed, a series of events occurred that resulted in a revolution. That revolution was more about ideas than it was about battles. When the British began imposing what the colonists deemed unfair taxes and regulations on them, they began to resist. The resistance was led by many of the most thoughtful people in the colonies. John and Sam Adams of Massachusetts, Ben Franklin of Pennsylvania, and Thomas Jefferson of Virginia were among the best known of the individuals who spoke and wrote about

what government should be like. When the colonies declared themselves to be free, it took courage to fight for these ideas. Many of these thinkers and fighters are represented in the pages that follow.



Abigail Adams (1744 – 1818)

Abigail Adams was self-taught, and home schooled her five children. One of her children, John Quincy Adams, became the sixth president. Her marriage to John Adams, our second president, lasted for 54 years.

While her husband traveled, she maintained a constant correspondence with him. Her letters to him displayed a political inclination that few women had during the Revolutionary period. Her commitment to promoting education for women was so strong that she urged her husband to incorporate the issue into the body of

laws that he and other founding fathers were drafting in 1776. Abigail made her strongest appeal for women's rights when John Adams was in Philadelphia serving in Congress. As members of Congress drafted laws to guarantee independence for the colonies, Abigail wrote to her husband begging him to remember that women also needed to be given the right to independence. She was among the first women in the new country to begin to put forth a woman's rights and role in a free society.

John Adams (1735 – 1826)

John Adams studied at Harvard, after which he established a law practice in Boston. Adams was a prominent thinker and writer of his time.

He was sent as a Massachusetts delegate to the First (1774) and Second (1775-77) Continental Congresses. He helped edit Thomas Jefferson's Declaration of Independence and led the debate that ratified in 1776.

During the American Revolution, Adams chaired several committees and served on many more; he was also commissioner to France and Holland. After the war, Adams served as the U.S. ambassador to England from 1785 to 1788, where he wrote the "Defense of the Constitution of the United States."

He assumed the presidency in 1797--1801 after eight years as vice-president under George Washington.

Samuel Adams (1722 – 1803)

Samuel Adams became active in politics as a member of the Caucus Club in 1764. The Caucus Club was established to help control local elections. When British policy tightened controls of colonial revenues during a recession in England, passage of the Sugar Act in 1764 provided Adams with incentive to inspire colonial resistance.

Enforcement of the Sugar Act was against the interests of Boston merchants who did not intend to pay the new tax. Urged on by his radical Caucus Club associates, Adams drafted a set of grievances for the colonial assemblymen. These grievances attacked the Sugar Act. He cited the act as an unreasonable law because it had been levied without consent from a legally elected representative. The alarm "no taxation without representation" had been sounded.

The British Parliament passed an even more restrictive measure in the Stamp Act of 1765. Unlike the Sugar Act, this measure would be felt beyond the colonies of New England. Adams' essays and activities helped to shape American opinion into viewing the Stamp Act as a detestable piece of legislation.

The Townshend Acts of 1767 furnished Adams with a larger and more militant forum. He made his name known in the front ranks of the patriot group, and he earned the hatred of King George III. Working with the Caucus Club, he and other radicals demanded an economic **boycott**. This refusal to buy British goods became a common bond for the 13 colonies. Though its actual success was limited, Adams had proved that an organized minority could keep a larger but disorganized group at bay.

In the course of events, from the Boston Massacre of 1770 to the Boston Tea Party, Adams continually threw British Crown officials off guard, making friends with radical patriots, writing dozens of inflammatory newspaper articles, and keeping company with outspoken leaders in other colonies.

Adams served in the Continental Congress between 1774 and 1781 and was a delegate to the Massachusetts ratifying convention in 1788. He served as the lieutenant governor of Massachusetts from 1789 to 1793 and then became governor for three terms.



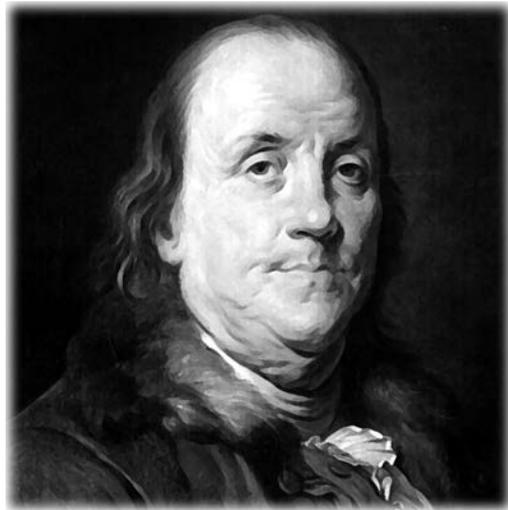
Crispus Attucks (1723 – 1770)

Of mixed African and American Indian ancestry, Crispus Attucks was the slave of William Brown of Framingham, Massachusetts. Attucks escaped around 1750 and found work on the Boston wharves and whaling ships.

On March 5, 1770, Boston patriot Samuel Adams convinced sailors and dockworkers to protest the presence of British troops in Boston. Attucks led a group of 50 men in protest.

Shouting “Don't be afraid,” they advanced and began throwing snowballs at a lone British soldier who was guarding the State House. Fearing that the situation was getting out of control, a British captain called out a small unit of guards. They fired on the protestors, killing Attucks and four others in what became known as the **Boston Massacre**. To honor them, the bodies of the dead lay at Faneuil Hall for three days so that people could pay their respects. Then, they received a public funeral attended by 10,000 people.

Although the soldiers were acquitted of the shootings on the grounds that the seamen were inciting a riot, Attucks and the others quickly became heroes. In 1888, a statue was dedicated to Attucks on the Boston Common.



Benjamin Franklin (1706 – 1790)

Benjamin Franklin, the fifteenth child in his family, went to work at age 10 in his father's candle making shop, and then worked in a brother's printing business.

Franklin was active in his community and founded a discussion group called the Junta in 1727. It later evolved into the American Philosophical Association. He helped establish the first lending library in the colonies in 1731, as well as an academy in 1751 that later became the University of Pennsylvania.

In 1748 Franklin retired and spent most of his time in scientific pursuits. In the early 1740s, he developed the fuel-efficient Franklin open stove. In 1752, Franklin conducted his famous kite experiment, demonstrating that lightning is an electrical discharge; he also announced his invention of the lightning rod. A later invention for which Franklin is well known is the bifocal lens (1760).

Franklin returned to politics in 1754 by representing Pennsylvania at the Albany Congress, called in response to the French and Indian Wars. Between 1757 and 1775, he pursued diplomatic activities in England, securing the repeal of the Stamp Act and representing the interests of several colonies. In 1776, Franklin was a member of the committee that was charged with the responsibility to write the Declaration of Independence. Franklin also helped negotiate treaties of commerce and alliance with France. In France, he won financial aid for the American Revolution, and then helped negotiate a peace treaty with Great Britain, signed in Paris in 1783.

Franklin returned to the U.S. and served as a mediator at the **Constitutional Convention** in 1787.

Elbridge Gerry **(1744–1814)**

Elbridge Gerry was elected in 1772 to the Massachusetts General Court. He became a follower of the patriot, Samuel Adams, who

enlisted him in colonial activities before the American Revolution.

He served in the Continental Congress and signed both the Declaration of Independence and the Articles of Confederation.

After the Revolutionary War, Gerry was an opponent of maintaining a large standing army and of a strong, central government. However, he modified his views after Shay's Rebellion. Shay's Rebellion, a farmers' uprising named for its leader Daniel Shays, reached its climax when in 1787 Shays led 1,100 men in an attempt to seize the arsenal in Springfield, Massachusetts. The state **militia** put a stop to the rebellion. The uprising had been caused by the harsh economic conditions faced by Massachusetts's farmers, who sought reforms and issuance of paper money.

Gerry was one of the most frequent speakers as a delegate to the Constitutional Convention in 1787, and although realizing the need for a stronger union; he nevertheless opposed leaders who wanted to consolidate power in the proposed central government.

He served from 1789 to 1793 in the first two U.S. Congresses. In 1797, President John Adams chose him, together with C. C. Pinckney and John Marshall, for a mission to France in an attempt to secure recognition of U.S. rights from Talleyrand, the French foreign minister.

He was elected governor of Massachusetts in 1810 and was reelected in 1811. In his second term, his political party wanted to retain control of the state. They rearranged the election districts in their favor in a bizarre salamander-like shape. His opponents named this political maneuver a **gerrymander** (a combination of his name and salamander). Gerry was defeated for reelection in 1812, but he was immediately

nominated for Vice President on the ticket with James Madison, and was elected.

Nathan Hale **(1755 – 1776)**

Nathan Hale was a soldier and hero of the American Revolution. He graduated from Yale University in 1773 and became a Continental Army captain in 1776. He was a young schoolteacher when the Revolution began.

Commissioned as an officer in the Connecticut militia, he served in the attack on the British in Boston, and then took part in militia actions in New York. He volunteered for the dangerous mission of spying on British forces on Long Island, in order to gain information about their troops. He was captured and hanged without a trial. He is best remembered for his declaration from the gallows, “I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country.” Hale became a symbol of the Revolutionary spirit.

Alexander Hamilton **(1755 – 1804)**

Alexander Hamilton, as a young man, went to the North American colonies where he studied at King's College (now Columbia). In the turbulent times before the American Revolution, he wrote articles and pamphlets promoting the colonial cause.

By 1780 Hamilton had outlined a plan of government with a strong central authority that would replace the weak system of the Articles of Confederation, and as delegate to the Continental Congress, he lobbied continually for strengthening the national government.

Although he believed the Constitution was deficient in the powers that it gave the national government, he did much to get it ratified, particularly by his contributions to *The Federalist Papers*.

The Federalist Papers, a series of 85 political essays authored by Hamilton from 1787–88, were written with the intention of persuading New York to approve the Federalist Constitution, which endorsed the new government. James Madison and John Jay collaborated with Hamilton in writing essays for *The Federalist Papers*.

In the first decade of the new Republic, Hamilton played a major role in shaping domestic and foreign policy. As the first Secretary of the Treasury under George Washington, he presented an extensive financial plan to the first Congress. He proceeded to structure the new nation's fiscal system, set up a national bank, a national mint and took on the task of dealing with the national and states' debt after the war.

In the early years of the Republic, the President and Vice President were not always members of the same party. For example, John Adams was a Federalist and his Vice President, Thomas Jefferson, was a Democratic-Republican. In 1801, the electoral vote ended in a tie between Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. The House of Representatives selected the new President. Alexander Hamilton used his influence to help get Jefferson elected over Burr. A few years later, Hamilton again prevented Burr from being elected to public office. This time Burr missed becoming the governor of New York. Burr challenged Hamilton to a duel, and Hamilton was killed.

John Hancock **(1737 – 1793)**

John Hancock inherited his uncle's prosperous merchant business, which undoubtedly influenced his opposition to the Stamp Act of 1765 and other British trade restrictions. Because of this position, he entered the patriot ranks and engaged in smuggling. The British confiscated one of his ships, a riot ensued, and later the ship was burned.

He served as the president of the Massachusetts Provisional Congress from 1774 to 1775 and as president of the First and Second Continental Congresses from 1775 to 1777. He was the first member to sign the Declaration of Independence. The term "Put your John Hancock right here" is often used to request a signature.

Following his term in Congress from 1775 to 1780, he helped to frame the Massachusetts constitution and was elected as the first governor of that state. He presided at the state convention that ratified the Constitution and he died during his ninth term as governor.

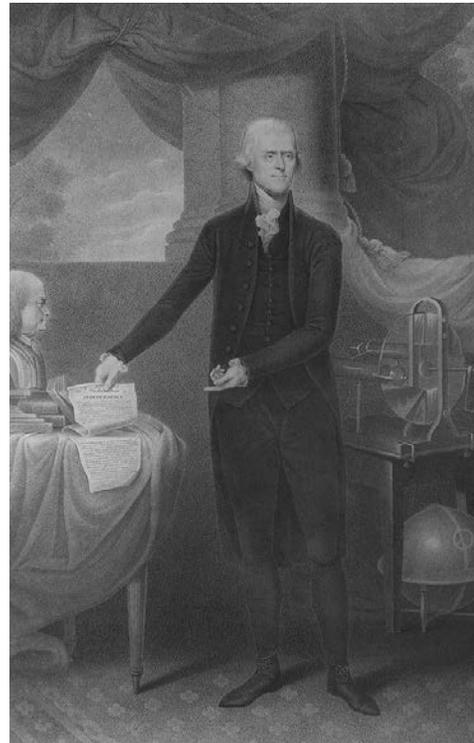
Patrick Henry **(1736 – 1799)**

Patrick Henry, mostly self-educated, took up law in 1760 and became a prominent trial lawyer.

He vigorously denounced the Stamp Act of 1765 and in the years that followed, helped incite revolts in the South.

In 1775, he presented revolutionary ideas to the Virginia assembly, including one for the arming and training of militiamen. He carried the day with a speech that included, "I do not know what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death."

Henry was elected governor of Virginia twice. He opposed the new Constitution because he believed it endangered individuals' and states' rights. He worked successfully to have the first 10 amendments, the Bill of Rights, added to the Constitution.



Thomas Jefferson **(1743 – 1826)**

Thomas Jefferson was a graduate of William and Mary College, in Williamsburg, Virginia. Although he studied law with the state's most prominent legal scholar, he showed a greater interest in science and philosophy. His writing skill and political thinking brought him to the forefront of the revolutionary movement in Virginia.

As delegate to the Second Continental Congress, he wrote the first draft of the

Declaration of Independence. He delivered this key statement of democratic value:

Jefferson began his efforts to reform Virginia's legal code, in order to bring it more in line with the revolutionary principles of equality, especially in the areas of distribution of property and education. Jefferson caused a good deal of controversy with his strong advocacy of religious freedom and the separation between church and state.

Sent to Congress in 1783, he helped lay down the decimal system and drafted policy regarding the entrance of the Western territories into the new United States. In 1785 he was appointed minister to France and in 1789, George Washington appointed him Secretary of State.

Elected vice president in 1796, Jefferson continued his opposition to a strong central government, as advocated by the Federalists. He was particularly opposed to the repressive **Alien and Sedition Acts**. These laws, passed by the Federalists, were designed to limit the opportunity for immigrants to gain voting privileges and to prevent criticism of the government. They eventually expired or were repealed. While the Federalists had hoped that the laws would strengthen their party and weaken Jefferson's, they actually had the opposite effect.

He was elected President in 1801 by the House of Representatives and was the first President to be inaugurated in Washington, which he had helped to design.

The purchase of the Louisiana Territory from France in 1803 was the most notable act of his administration. Re-elected in 1804, Jefferson tried to keep the United States out of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe, by establishing a very unpopular policy of limiting trade with the warring nations.

After his retirement to Monticello in 1809, he developed his interest in education, founding the University of Virginia.

“We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.”

James Madison (1751 – 1836)

James Madison obtained his education at the College of New Jersey (later Princeton), after which he returned to Virginia and in 1774 assumed the first of several positions in state government.

As a member of the Virginia House of Delegates, Madison's support helped secure passage of Thomas Jefferson's religious freedom bill. Dissatisfied with Congress under the Articles of Confederation, he became influential at the Constitutional Convention of 1787, advocating for a strong central government. Many of Madison's ideas went into the final draft of the Constitution. Although not the official secretary, he kept the most complete record of the convention. His journals are the principal source of later knowledge of the convention. Madison was instrumental in adding the Bill of Rights. His contributions, earned him the title “master builder of the Constitution.” and “father of the Constitution.”

He collaborated with Alexander Hamilton and John Jay to write the controversial *Federalist*

Papers, and in Virginia he led the forces for the Constitution against the opposition of Patrick Henry and George Mason.

He served in the U.S. House of Representatives (1789-97) and then as President Jefferson's Secretary of State (1801-09). As President from 1809 to 1817; Madison had to deal with the results of the foreign policy that he had helped to shape as Secretary of State. He was unable to deal with the domestic and foreign forces that led to the War of 1812 and ultimately, the burning of the city of Washington.

Francis Marion **(1732 – 1795)**

A planter, Marion fought against the Cherokees in 1759 and 1761, and when the American Revolution began, he volunteered and fought in several engagements. He escaped capture from the British when they took Charleston because he left the city with a sprained ankle before its surrender.

He was available to command the remaining resistance in South Carolina after the colonials' loss at Camden. Marion was often referred to as the "Swamp Fox" because of his habit of disappearing into the swamps to evade capture by the British. Engaging in guerrilla tactics, he disrupted the British lines of communication, intimidated Loyalists, captured scouting and foraging parties, and freed prisoners before disappearing into the wilderness.

From 1781 on he led troops under General Nathaniel Greene, and after the war he served in the South Carolina Senate where he advocated a lenient policy toward the Loyalists, persons who remained loyal to the British during the American Revolution.

George Mason **(1725 – 1792)**

George Mason served on the Virginia Committee of Safety, and as a member of the Virginia Constitutional Convention of 1776, he drafted the well-known declaration of rights, which was extensively copied by other American states, and which was drawn on by Thomas Jefferson in the first part of the Declaration of Independence. Mason believed that "there never was a government over a very extensive country without destroying the liberties of the people," and he sought to remedy that with a Declaration of Rights.

Although he considered himself to be a private citizen rather than a politician, he served in the Virginia House of Delegates, the House of Burgesses, and was a delegate to the 1787 Constitutional Convention.

He opposed the new Constitution because it provided for the centralization of power in the government. Additionally, he objected to provisions for compromises between the New England and the Southern states on tariff and slave trade issues, and the failure of the Constitution to include a bill of rights. Mason refused to sign the Constitution, and with Patrick Henry he led the fight in Virginia against its ratification. He supported the Bill of Rights that eventually became the basis for some of the first 10 amendments (the Bill of Rights) to the Constitution. He is sometimes thought of as the "Father of the Bill of Rights."

Charles Pinckney **(1757–1824)**

Charles Pinckney fought in the American Revolution and was taken prisoner in the British

capture of Charleston in 1780. He was a South Carolina delegate to the U.S. Constitutional Convention of 1787, where he submitted a plan for the Constitution. Although its exact provisions are not known, his plan had considerable influence on the final draft of the Constitution.

As governor of South Carolina, he extended the right to vote to all white males, obtained civil rights for Jews, and established free schools.

In 1798, he became a U.S. Senator, and his support of Thomas Jefferson's presidential candidacy was rewarded by his appointment in 1801 as Minister to Spain. There he negotiated Spain's acceptance of the Louisiana Treaty. His primary mission in Spain was to secure, with the help of James Monroe, the **cession**, or surrender, of Florida to the United States. The attempt failed, but Florida was eventually turned over to the U.S. for \$5 million in 1819. Pinckney returned home in 1805.

From 1819 to 1821 he was a member of the House of Representatives, where he made a celebrated speech against the **Missouri Compromise**. The Missouri Compromise was an act of Congress (1820) by which Missouri was admitted as a slave state, Maine as a free state, and slavery was prohibited in the Louisiana Purchase north of latitude 36°30'N, except for Missouri.

Molly Pitcher **(1744–1832)**

Molly Hays carried water for her husband and other soldiers in the Battle of Monmouth in 1778, which earned her the nickname, Molly Pitcher. When her husband was wounded at his cannon, she is said to have taken over and continued firing.

Her story is sometimes confused with that of Margaret Corbin who, during the battle of Harlem Heights in September 1776, took over her husband's battle station and was wounded, suffering permanent loss of use of one arm.

Paul Revere **(1735 – 1818)**

Paul Revere learned to work gold and silver in his father's smithy, and he became a leading silversmith of New England. He also took up various other skills, such as designing, engraving, printing, bell founding, and dentistry.

He was a soldier in the French and Indian War and spread anti-British sentiment in the period of growing colonial discontent with the British, after the Stamp Act in 1765. He joined the Sons of Liberty and took part in the Boston Tea Party.

Revere became a figure of popular history and legend because of his famous ride on the night of Apr. 18, 1775. As a trusted courier for the Massachusetts Committee of Safety, he arranged to signal the people of the Massachusetts countryside to warn them that British soldiers were being sent. The arrival of the British became the start of the American Revolution

After the war, Revere designed the first seal for the united colonies and designed and printed the first Continental bond issue. After the war, Revere became a pioneer in the process of copper plating, and made copper spikes for ships.

In October of 1778, Deborah Samson of Plymouth Massachusetts disguised herself as a man and presented herself to the American army. She enlisted for the whole term of the war as Robert Shirliffe and served in the company of Captain Nathan Thayer of Medway, Massachusetts. For three years, she served in various duties and was wounded twice - the first time by a sword cut on the side of the head and four months later, she was shot through the shoulder.

After the war, Deborah Samson married Benjamin Gannett of Sharon and they had three children. During George Washington's presidency, she received a letter inviting Robert Shirliffe, or rather Mrs. Gannett, to visit Washington. During her stay at the capital, a bill was passed granting her a pension, in addition to certain lands, which she was to receive as an acknowledgment for her services to the country in a military capacity as a Revolutionary Soldier, in part thanks to the efforts of Paul Revere.

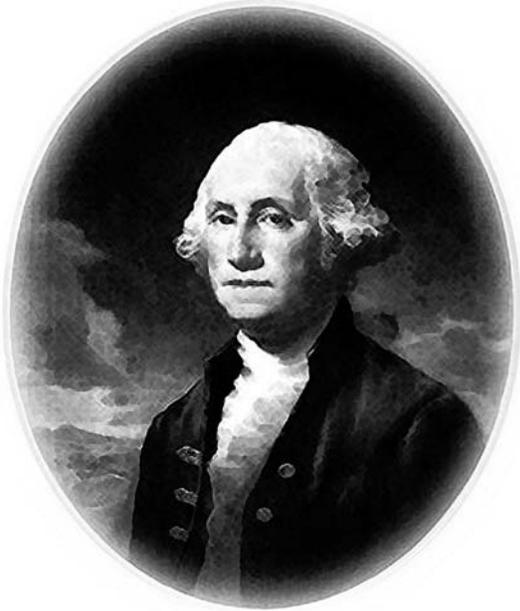
Roger Sherman (1721 - 1793)

Without benefit of a formal legal education, he was admitted to the bar in 1754 and embarked upon a distinguished judicial and political career. In the period 1755-61, except for a brief interval, he served as a representative in the colonial legislature and held the offices of Justice of the Peace and County Judge. Somehow, he also made time to publish an essay on monetary theory and a series of almanacs incorporating his own astronomical observations and verse.

Meanwhile, Sherman's political career had blossomed. He rose from justice of the peace and county judge to an associate judge of the Connecticut Superior Court and to representative in both houses of the colonial assembly. Although opposed to extremism, he promptly joined the fight against Britain. He supported non-importation measures and headed the New Haven committee of correspondence.

Roger Sherman had the distinction of being the only person to sign all of the following documents: the Articles of Association (1774), the Declaration of Independence (1776), the Articles of Confederation (1777), and the Constitution (1787). He was a prime mover behind the Connecticut, or **Great Compromise**, which broke the deadlock between the large and small states over representation. The Great Compromise provided that one house of government, the Senate, would have equal representation among the states. The other house, the House of Representatives, would be based on population, including counting 3/5 of all slaves. He was, in addition, instrumental in Connecticut's ratification of the Constitution.

He was prominent in Connecticut colonial and state politics and was Mayor of New Haven and Treasurer of Yale College. Sherman was a U.S. Representative (1789–91) and U.S. Senator (1791–93).



George Washington (1732 – 1799)

George Washington began his military career as district adjutant for the Virginia colony. At the age of 20, he became Major Washington and was charged with training the militia in the quarter assigned to him. Washington began several years' service with the Virginia militia in the French and Indian Wars participating in several dangerous actions. He resigned his commission in 1758, following his election to the Virginia House of Burgesses (1759-74).

In 1774, Washington participated in the First Continental Congress and took command of the entire Virginia militia. After the American Revolution broke out at Concord and Lexington, the Congress organized for defense. Impressed with Washington's military experience, his commanding personality, and through the recommendation of John Adams, Washington was

named Commander in Chief of the Continental forces in June 1775. His remarkable skill, patience, and courage helped Washington lead the American forces through the Revolution.

Among his remarkable achievements, were his courageous crossing of the Delaware River to rout enemy forces at Trenton on Christmas night 1776 and holding his army together during the terrible winter encampment at Valley Forge in 1777-78. His victory over the British at Yorktown virtually ended the war.

Washington returned to Mount Vernon in 1783, but remained active in the debate over the country's future. He strengthened his role when he chaired the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention of 1787. In 1789, the first electors unanimously voted Washington as President and reelected him in 1793. Washington is considered one of the great Presidents in part because he set a **precedent** for everything that he did as chief executive. For example, Washington decided not to run for a third term of office. Other Presidents followed his lead until 1940, when Franklin Roosevelt decided to run for a third term. Eventually, Presidents were limited to two terms by the 22nd amendment to the Constitution.

Douglas MacArthur (1880 -- 1964)

Douglas MacArthur was the son of a Union army hero who fought during the Civil War. MacArthur and his father are the only father and son to win the Congressional Medal of Honor. He graduated from West Point in 1903.

World War I

MacArthur rose steadily in the army during World War I, to chief of staff of the 42d (Rainbow) Division. He fought in France where

he was wounded three times; he earned a reputation for bravery. He was promoted in June of 1918 to Brigadier General and Commander of the 84th Infantry Brigade.

He served as the Superintendent of West Point from 1919 to 1922 and helped modernize the academy's military training program.

World War II

On Dec. 7, 1941, the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor. Shortly thereafter, MacArthur was named Commander of the U.S. forces in the Far East and led the defense of the Philippines. President Roosevelt ordered MacArthur to leave his forces on the Bataan peninsula, (with his promise, "I shall return!") and to go to Australia to take command of Allied forces in the Southwest Pacific.

From Australia, he launched an island-hopping offensive that resulted in the return of U.S. forces to the Philippines and their liberation. In December 1944, he was promoted to the rank of General of the Army (five-star General). MacArthur accepted the surrender of Japan on the U.S.S. *Missouri* on Sept. 2, 1945. He was then named Commander of the Allied powers in Japan and directed the Allied occupation of Japan.

The Korean Conflict and After

At the beginning of the Korean Conflict MacArthur was appointed Commander of UN military forces in South Korea. In his capacity as Commander, he directed the Inchon offensive that drove the North Korean army back over the 38th parallel, forcing the invaders to surrender their gains in South Korea. MacArthur wanted to advance his troops farther into North Korea and go all the way to the Yalu River, which borders North Korea and Communist China. MacArthur received warnings that this maneuver might

provoke the Chinese to enter the war. MacArthur pushed the North Koreans to the Manchurian border, and China did intervene. MacArthur pressed President Truman for permission to bomb Chinese bases in Manchuria. Truman refused and finally, after MacArthur had made the dispute public, removed him from command in April 1951.

MacArthur was given a hero's welcome on his return to the United States and was invited to address a joint session of Congress. He concluded his address with his citation of an old military song, "Old soldiers never die, they just fade away."

George S. Patton, Jr. (1885–1945)

George Patton graduated from West Point in 1909. He began his service in World War I as an aide to Gen. Pershing. He accompanied him on an expedition to Mexico in 1916 and then to France in 1917. While stationed there, he learned about the tank, which was a new weapon at the time. He was wounded while commanding a tank brigade in France, but distinguished himself in battle.

Patton believed that tanks were the weapons system of the future. By World War II, he was Commander of the Second Armored Division and subsequently became Commanding General of I Armored Corps.

From 1942 to 1943, he commanded a corps in North Africa and the 7th Army in Sicily. Patton excelled militarily and had a brilliant record. His career, however, was almost ended because of a much-publicized incident in which he verbally abused two soldiers suffering from battle fatigue, one of whom he also slapped. This

incident delayed his promotion to the permanent rank of Major General.

Patton, given command of the 3rd Army early in 1944, lead the campaign of U.S. forces from Normandy through Brittany and Northern France. His forces relieved Americans troops trapped in the Battle of the Bulge and crossed the Rhine to race across Southern Germany into Czechoslovakia.

As Military Governor of Bavaria, he was criticized when he argued for leniency toward former Nazis by keeping them in administrative and other positions. He was removed from command of the 3rd Army in October of 1945 to take charge of the U.S. 15th Army. Patton was fatally injured in an automobile accident in Germany.

Patton is probably the most admired, if not the most controversial, of all American generals in World War II. Despite his shortcomings, he was regarded as one of the most successful American field commanders of any war.

Conclusion

Many, many individuals who are not included in these pages believe in the American ideal. Not all patriots have books written about them. Most patriots are not famous. In the more than 225 years of our nation's history, millions of men and women have stood up for and defended our country. It is the unrecognized patriots who teach in our schools, work in our factories, and serve in our armed forces that will continue to make our country the leader of the free world. ❖

Great Americans and Their Contributions

PURPOSE

In this lesson, you will learn about several great Americans. Their contributions took many forms and influenced us in many different ways. You will read personal facts about these contributors and learn what contributions these people made to America.



Susan B. Anthony (1820–1906)

Personal Data

- American **reformer**
- **Abolitionist**
- Leader of the woman-**suffrage** movement
- President of the National American Woman Suffrage Association
- Born in Adams, Massachusetts

Contributions

From the age of 17, as a teacher in rural New York state, Susan B. Anthony argued in support of equal pay for women teachers, for coeducation, and for college for women.

Anthony taught for 10 years and then directed her energies to benefit the **temperance** movement. Women and children were suffering from abuse at the hands of husbands and fathers who drank too much and banning alcohol was thought to be the only solution to end the problem. She organized the first women's temperance association, the Daughters of Temperance, when the Sons of Temperance refused to admit women into their movement.

Introduction

Throughout America's history, many people have been recognized as having influenced our past and present through their accomplishments.

Sometimes contributions are made "in the public eye," and other times contributions are made quietly, in the background. Either way, the people recognized in this lesson have had an impact on the lives of Americans in the past, in the present, and in many cases their impact will be felt in times to come. The way you live your life today, the very freedoms you enjoy, were influenced by these great American contributors.

This is not an exclusive set of people. There are many more men and women that could have been added to the list. The people here are examples of contributors about which every American should know. They are listed alphabetically within the lesson, citing selected personal data as well as contributions.

She traveled to Seneca Falls, New York, where a temperance convention was being held and there she met suffragist leader Elizabeth Cady Stanton. From that time on their names were associated as the leaders of the woman's suffrage movement in the United States. They became friends and lifelong collaborators.

Anthony lectured on women's rights and on abolition of slavery, and with Elizabeth Stanton, pressured the New York state legislature to **repeal** most of the Married Women's Property Acts. Repeal of this act guaranteed women rights over their children and control of their own property and wages. Prior to this, women did not have those rights. During the Civil War, she was a co-organizer of the Women's Loyal League that supported Lincoln's government. She and other suffragists became particularly active in the abolitionist's cause in support of Lincoln's emancipation policy.

Anthony and Stanton organized the National Woman Suffrage Association in 1869 and in 1890 this group united with the American Woman Suffrage Association to form the National American Woman Suffrage Association. Anthony was president from 1892 to 1900.

The 1900s witnessed a number of dramatic changes that had taken place because of Anthony's dedication to women's rights. For example, all professional and **vocational** fields were open to women; women were no longer compelled to marry for financial support; most of the institutions of higher learning admitted female students; working women had their own unions; and there was significant progress made in improving the legal status of women. However, although Susan B. Anthony was once arrested for attempting to vote, she did not live long enough to see women receive their right to vote in 1920.



Clara Barton (1821–1912)

Personal Data

- American **humanitarian**
- Organizer of the American Red Cross
- Born in North Oxford, Massachusetts

Contributions

Clara Barton completed her education at the age of 15 and began teaching at Bordentown, New Jersey, in 1850. In New Jersey, at that time, schooling was not free, and as a result, few children were educated. Barton made a deal to teach without pay, if the school tuition was waived. She took pride in having established the first free school in New Jersey. During her **tenure**, school enrollment in Bordentown was raised from 6 to 600. When town officials appointed a male administrator over her, she resigned.

After teaching, she was employed as a copyist in the U.S. Patent Office. She was the first woman in America to hold such a government post. After the outbreak of the Civil War, she was determined to serve the Federal troops. She established a service of supplies for soldiers in army camps and on the battlefields. Barton was present with Federal forces during the siege of Charleston, South Carolina, and also at engagements in the Wilderness and at Fredericksburg, Virginia, and elsewhere. She was

called the Angel of the Battlefield. Barton not only provided nursing services on the battlefields. Her aptitude for obtaining and distributing much-needed provisions, made her welcome everywhere.

In 1865, after receiving the endorsement of President Lincoln, she began her search for missing prisoners. The 20,000 names she compiled established the Bureau of Records in Washington and allowed the identification of thousands of the dead at Andersonville Prison in Georgia. She later visited the notorious prison camp to mark Union graves.

In Europe for a conference of the International Red Cross, she offered her services of military hospital administration at the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War (1870). Her most original idea was to put needy Strasbourg women to work sewing garments for pay. This was an opportunity for them to earn money.

She returned to the United States in 1873 and in 1881 organized the American National Red Cross, which she headed until 1904. Her successful efforts brought about United States ratification of the Geneva Convention for the care of war wounded (1882). Her work also emphasized Red Cross involvement in national catastrophes other than war.



Thomas Alva Edison **(1847–1931)**

Personal Data

- American inventor
- Born in Milan, Ohio

Thomas Edison had limited schooling and was mostly home schooled by his mother. He started working at the age of 12 selling fruit and candy, and was also a newsboy on the Grand Trunk Railroad. It was during these years that Edison began to suffer from deafness, which worsened through the rest of his life. Exempt from military service because of deafness, he was a telegrapher in various cities until he joined Western Union **Telegraph** Company in Boston in 1868.

Contributions

Among Edison's early inventions were the transmitter and receiver for the automatic telegraph, the quadruplex system of transmitting four simultaneous messages, and an improved stock-ticker system. He received his first patent for an electric vote recorder.

In 1877, he invented the carbon telephone transmitter for the Western Union Telegraph Company, which marked progress toward making the Bell telephone practical. Edison's phonograph (patented 1878), his most original and lucrative invention, was distinguished

as the first successful instrument of its kind. Edison is most famous for creating the first commercially practical **incandescent** lamp with a carbon filament in 1879.

Other significant inventions of Edison's were: an experimental electric railroad, superior storage battery of iron and nickel with an alkaline electrolyte, the Kinetoscope, or peep show machine, and the synchronization of motion pictures and sound. Talking pictures were based on his work in this area. Edison held over 1,300 U.S. and foreign patents.

During World War I, Edison served as head of the U.S. Navy Consulting Board and contributed 45 inventions, including substitutes for previously imported chemicals (especially carbolic acid, or phenol), defensive instruments against U-boats, a ship-telephone system, an underwater searchlight, smoke screen machines, anti-torpedo nets, turbine projectile heads, collision mats, navigating equipment, and methods of aiming and firing naval guns. After the war, he established the Naval Research Laboratory, the only American institution for organized weapons research until World War II.

His workshops at Menlo Park and West Orange, N.J., were significant predecessors of the modern industrial research laboratory in which teams of workers systematically perform research.



Frederick Douglass (1817–1895)

Personal Data

- American abolitionist
- Born in Easton, Maryland
- Wrote “Up From Slavery”

Contributions

Frederick Douglass was the first African American leader of national stature in United States history. He took the name of Douglass after his second, and successful, attempt to escape from slavery in 1838.

An impromptu speech about his experiences as a slave before a meeting of the Massachusetts Anti-Slavery Society in 1841 was so effective he was immediately hired as a lecturer for the Society.

In 1847, Douglass, who had learned to read and write while a slave, established the *North Star* and edited it for 17 years for the abolitionist cause.

During the Civil War, President Lincoln asked Douglass to recruit African American soldiers for the Union Army. As the war progressed, Douglass met with Lincoln twice to discuss the use and treatment of African American soldiers by the Union forces. As a result, the role

of African American soldiers was improved each time they met, and the soldiers' military effectiveness greatly increased.

After the war and during the **Reconstruction**, Douglass continued to urge **civil rights** for African Americans. Douglass was the one African American with status enough to make suggestions to politicians. President Rutherford B. Hayes appointed him to the post of U.S. marshal for the District of Columbia (1877–81), recorder of deeds for the same district (1881–86), minister-resident and consul-general to the Republic of Haiti (1889–91), as well as chargé d'affaires to Santo Domingo.



John Herschel Glenn, Jr.

(1921 –)

Personal Data

- American aviator
- **Astronaut**
- Senator

Contributions

Upon graduating from high school in 1939, John Glenn enrolled at Muskingum College to study chemical engineering. He left Muskingum

to become a naval aviator after the United States entered World War II.

Glenn was commissioned in the Marine Corps Reserve, based in the Marshall Islands, and flew 59 combat bombing missions against the Japanese during the war. His primary job upon returning to the United States was as a flight instructor. In July 1945, he was promoted to captain and remained on active duty after the war. He was brought into the regular Marine Corps in 1946.

Glenn flew jets in ground support missions for the Marines during the Korean conflict. Additionally, he flew the Air Force's new F-86 fighters in air-to-air combat, completing a total of 90 missions between February and September 1953. He earned the reputation for flying at such close range to the enemy that often he returned with aircraft that appeared as if it would never fly again. He returned from one flight with an aircraft that had more than 200 holes in it, and it was immediately nicknamed "Glenn's flying doily."

After his return from Korea in 1953, Glenn was promoted to major. While assigned to the Bureau of Aeronautics, he developed a project in which an F8U Crusader jet fighter would try to break the non-stop transcontinental speed record, refueling in mid-air three times. He made the flight himself, and on July 16, 1957, he flew from Los Angeles to New York in 3 hours, 23 minutes. Glenn received his fifth Distinguished Flying Cross for this achievement and added it to the many medals he had earned.

In 1958, the U.S. government began Project Mercury, a top-priority plan to place a man in orbit around the earth. The same month Glenn was promoted to lieutenant colonel. After going through strenuous physical and psychological testing, he was named one of the seven Mercury

astronauts. Glenn was backup pilot for the **suborbital** flights of Alan Shepard and Gus Grissom in 1961.

On Feb. 20, 1962, he flew the first American orbital mission, in the "Friendship 7," circling the earth three times in a vehicle launched from Cape Canaveral, Florida.

Before leaving the Marines, Glenn was promoted by President Lyndon Johnson to full colonel at a White House ceremony in October 1964. Glenn retired from the military in January 1965.

Glenn entered Ohio politics and was elected to the U.S. Senate as a Democrat in 1974. While serving in the Senate, he became the principal author of the Nuclear Nonproliferation Act of 1978, which sought to limit the spread of nuclear weapons. In 1980 he was re-elected to the Senate. Glenn campaigned unsuccessfully for the Democratic Presidential nomination in 1984, but won back his Senate seat both in the 1986 and 1992 elections.

Glenn proposed a plan that would allow him to go into space again. His plan was to study the effects of space on older Americans. Still in good physical shape, Glenn re-entered the space program and on October 29, 1998 - 36 years after his first orbital flight around the earth, he became the oldest person to go into space. In 1999, he retired from the Senate.



Bob Hope

(1903–)

Personal Data

- American comedian
- Born Leslie Townes Hope
- Born in Eltham, England

Bob Hope, born in England, moved with his family to Cleveland, Ohio, at the age of four. He began performing in **vaudeville** in the 1920s and moved to Hollywood in 1938 to pursue a film career.

Contributions

Beginning in 1953, Hope hosted annual Christmas television specials, many of which were broadcast internationally to U.S. troops stationed abroad. During World War II, the Korean conflict, the Vietnam War, and even in peacetime, Hope toured with a number of United Service Organization (USO) shows, entertaining U.S. troops and earning the title of "USO's Ambassador of Good Will." Hope entertained the troops, often at great risk.

Hope continued to entertain American servicemen and servicewomen around the world even in his later years. In 1971, he applied for a visa in order to go to Hanoi and to attempt negotiations for the release of U.S. prisoners of war. An almost 90-year-old Hope traveled to the

Persian Gulf to visit U.S. troops prior to the start of the Gulf War. A favorite performer of many U.S. presidents, beginning with Franklin D. Roosevelt, Hope received an honorary knighthood in 1998 from Elizabeth II, Queen of his native England.



John F. Kennedy (JFK) (1917 – 1963)

Personal Data

- American **statesman**
- Thirty-fifth president of the United States
- Born in Brookline, Massachusetts
- Married Jacqueline Bouvier
- Wrote “Why England Slept” and “Profiles in Courage”

In the fall of 1936, John F. Kennedy enrolled at Harvard University, graduating *cum laude* in June of 1940. While an undergraduate at Harvard, he served briefly in London as secretary to his father, who was ambassador there.

Contributions

In 1941, during World War II, Kennedy enlisted in the Navy and in 1943 became commander of a PT (torpedo) boat in the Pacific. In action off the Solomon Islands, his boat was rammed and sunk by a Japanese destroyer. Kennedy, despite personal serious injuries, led the

surviving crew through miles of perilous waters to safety and is credited with saving the life of at least one of his crew.

In 1947, he became a Democratic Congressman from Boston, and in 1952 was elected to the Senate. Kennedy nearly gained the Democratic nomination for vice president in 1956, and four years later was a first-ballot nominee for president.

Kennedy became the 35th president of the United States in 1960, the youngest president ever elected, and the first Roman Catholic.

Soon after his inauguration, Kennedy set out his domestic program to the Congress, which launched the country onto a period of extended growth not seen since World War II. The program was known as the **New Frontier**. He proposed:

- Tax reform
- Federal aid to education
- Medical care for the aged under Social Security
- Aid to depressed areas
- An accelerated space program that led the first Americans into orbit and to reach the moon
- A federal **desegregation** policy in schools and universities
- Civil Rights reform
- The 10-year Alliance for Progress to aid Latin America
- The Peace Corps

Kennedy's proposals for medical care for the aged and aid to education were defeated, but on minimum wage, trade legislation, and other measures he won important victories.

At the height of the **Cold War**, Kennedy displayed moderation and a firm hand in foreign policy. His first crisis came in April 1961 with an unsuccessful invasion of the Bay of Pigs in Cuba by Cuban exiles trained and aided by the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). Although Kennedy did not plan the invasion, it had been planned under Eisenhower; Kennedy had approved it and accepted the responsibility. The action was considered a political blunder, which created an enormous setback in foreign relations for him.

In June 1961, the President met with Soviet Premier Khrushchev with hopes of thawing out the cold war. These hopes were shattered by Khrushchev's threat that the USSR would enter into a peace treaty with East Germany. In the period of tension that followed, the East German government erected the Berlin Wall to prevent East Germans from moving to the West. While the East Germans erected the Berlin Wall, the United States increased its military strength.

In October 1962, U.S. reconnaissance planes discovered Soviet missile bases in Cuba. Kennedy immediately ordered a blockade of the harbor to prevent more weapons from reaching Cuba and demanded the missiles' removal. Kennedy ordered a "**quarantine**" of Cuba and moved troops into position to eliminate the threat to U.S. security. After an interval of extreme tension, when the world appeared to be on the brink of nuclear war, the USSR complied with Kennedy's demands. Kennedy won much praise for his firm position in the crisis, but some criticized him for what they felt to be an unnecessary confrontation. The signing of a limited test-ban treaty in Moscow, which prohibited the atmospheric testing of nuclear weapons, eventually thawed tension with the USSR.

The Kennedy administration saw a growing Communist threat to the South Vietnamese government in Southeast Asia. In response, the U.S. steadily increased the number of military advisers in South Vietnam and for the first time placed U.S. troops in combat situations. As hostility in South Vietnam grew, the United States involved itself in political manipulation and finally conspired the overthrow of the corrupt South Vietnamese dictator, Ngo Dinh Diem in October 1963.

Unfortunately, many of Kennedy's domestic reform proposals never made it through Congress. To protect civil rights and integration, the administration assigned federal marshals to protect Freedom Ride demonstrators. Federal troops were sent to Mississippi in 1962 and a federalized National Guard was sent to Alabama in 1963 to quell disturbances resulting from enforced school desegregation. Much of Kennedy's proposed civil-rights legislation was not addressed until after his death.

As his third year in office drew to a close, he recommended an \$11-billion tax cut to bolster the economy. The measure was pending in Congress when Kennedy, planning a second term in office, traveled to Texas for a series of speeches. While riding in a motorcade in Dallas on Nov. 22, 1963, Kennedy was shot to death by an assassin, Lee Harvey Oswald.



Martin Luther King, Jr. (1929 – 1968)

Personal Data

- American clergyman
- Civil-rights leader
- Born in Atlanta, Georgia
- Married Coretta Scott

Martin Luther King, Jr., the son of a pastor, graduated from Morehouse College (B.A. 1948), Crozer Theological Seminary (B.D. 1951), Boston University (Ph.D. 1955), and became minister of the Dexter Ave. Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama in 1954.

Contributions

King joined the supporters of Rosa Parks, an African American woman who had been arrested in Montgomery for refusing to give up her bus seat to a white person. He led the boycott of segregated city bus lines in Montgomery and in 1956 was instrumental in getting them to operate on a desegregated basis.

King, with the Rev. Ralph Abernathy, organized the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), which provided him with a means to pursue further civil-rights activities, first in the South and later across the nation. His philosophy of **nonviolent resistance**, inspired by his studies of Mahatma Gandhi, led to his numerous arrests in the 1950s and 60s.

He organized the August 1963 march on Washington, which brought more than 200,000 people together. From the Lincoln Memorial, he gave his famous "I have a dream" speech. He said that he dreamed of that day, when "my four little children ... will not be judged by the color of their skin but the content of their character."

In 1964, he was awarded the **Nobel Peace Prize** for his civil rights work, becoming the youngest recipient of that prize in history.

His causes widened from civil rights to include criticism of the Vietnam War and a concern over poverty. He interrupted his plans for a Poor People's March to Washington, for a trip to Memphis, Tenn., to show support for striking sanitation workers in their push for better salaries.

On Apr. 4, 1968, he was assassinated as he stood on the balcony of the Lorraine Motel, which later became a civil-rights museum. His birthday is a national holiday, celebrated on the third Monday in January.



Abraham Lincoln (1809 – 1865)

Personal Data

- Sixteenth president of the United States
- Born on February 12, 1809
- Born in Hardin County, Kentucky
- Married Mary Todd 1842

Contributions

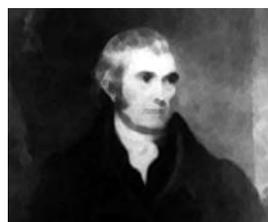
Lincoln gained national attention in his political career in 1858 when as the Republican candidate for senator from Illinois, he engaged in a series of debates with Stephen A. Douglass, his Democratic opponent. He lost the election, but continued to prepare for the 1860 Republican convention, where he earned the presidential nomination on the third ballot. He won the presidential election over three opponents and became the sixteenth president.

Lincoln's election caused great dissent in the South (because of his position on slavery) and was the signal for **secession**. By the time of Lincoln's inauguration, seven states had seceded from the Union. Determined to preserve the Union at all costs, Lincoln condemned secession but promised that he would not use of force to bring the seven states in line. Eventually, he had no choice but to order the **provisioning** of Fort Sumter, which the South interpreted as an act of war. On April 12, 1861, Fort Sumter was fired upon, and the Civil War began.

Lincoln was not an abolitionist, and he felt that preserving the Union was a more important issue than slavery. He soon realized that the Civil War could not be brought to a successful end without freeing the slaves. The Union victory at Antietam gave him a position of strength from which to issue his own **Emancipation Proclamation**.

Lincoln was deeply affected by the atrocities of war inflicted upon all soldiers. He gave one of the noblest public speeches ever made, the Gettysburg Address, at the dedication of the soldiers' cemetery at Gettysburg in 1863. The Gettysburg Address of Nov. 19, 1863, marks a high point in Lincoln's presidency.

Lincoln was re-elected to his second term in 1864, defeating Gen. George B. McClellan. His inaugural address urged leniency toward the South: "With malice toward none, with charity for all . . . let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds . . ." He was assassinated in Ford's Theatre in Washington, D.C.



John Marshall (1755 – 1835)

Personal Data

- 4th Chief Justice of the United States (1801–1835)
- Born in Prince William County, Virginia

Contributions

John Marshall's only formal education was listening to lectures on law given by George Wythe at the College of William and Mary. His excellent skill in debate made him one of the most respected lawyers of Virginia.

Although Marshall gave outspoken support to the Federalists' position on the need for a strong central government, he declined President George Washington's request to be the U.S. Attorney General in 1795.

Marshall, served in the House of Representatives the 1799 to 1800, and then left when President John Adams appointed him Chief Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court in 1801. During

his 34 years on the bench, Marshall's court greatly influenced the direction of the law and government by testing and defining the powers of the new Constitution.

The concept of "**judicial review**," which recognizes the authority of the Supreme Court to declare laws unconstitutional, was possibly the most important decision made by the Court. In 1803, the case of *Marbury v. Madison* came before the Court. The decision in this case was the first by the Supreme Court to void an act passed by Congress that the Court considered in violation of the Constitution.

In various other decisions over the years, Chief Justice Marshall enforced his view of the supremacy of a strong federal government, while opposing states' rights in governing. Marshall also presided over the treason trial of Aaron Burr in 1807.



Norman Rockwell (1894–1978)

Personal Data

- American **illustrator**
- Born in New York City, New York

Contributions

Norman Rockwell spent his summers as a child with his family on farms in the country. He later recalled in his autobiography, *My Adventures as an Illustrator*, "I have no bad memories of my summers in the country," and commented that his memories "all together form[ed] an image of sheer blissfulness." He felt that his summers in the country "had a lot to do with what I painted later on."

A dedicated and solemn student at the Art Students League, his fellow students nicknamed him "The Deacon."

Rockwell traveled to Philadelphia in March of 1916 attempting to see the editor of the *Saturday Evening Post*. He brought several paintings and sketches that he thought would make good covers for the *Post*. The editor liked Rockwell's work so much that he accepted everything for *Post* covers. This began his long-term relationship with the *Post*.

Rockwell joined the Navy in 1917, shortly after the United States entered World War I. Assigned to the camp newspaper; he continued to paint for the *Post* and other publications.

Rockwell painted his famous "Four Freedoms" series after President Franklin Roosevelt made his 1941 speech to Congress setting out the "four essential human freedoms." The paintings portrayed Freedom of Speech, Freedom of Worship, Freedom from Want, and Freedom from Fear. The series of paintings became popular after they were published in the *Post* in 1943. The federal government arranged a national tour for the paintings in order to sell war bonds. The editor of the *Post* at that time, noted in Rockwell's autobiography, "They were viewed by 1,222,000 people in 16 leading cities and were

instrumental in selling \$132,992,539 worth of bonds."

Over the years, Rockwell painted 317 covers for the Post. His last Post cover appeared in December of 1963. In 1975, at the age of 81, Rockwell was still painting, working on his 56th Boys Scout calendar. The artist lived the last 25 years of his life in Stockbridge, Mass., where a large museum devoted to his work opened in 1993.



Eleanor Roosevelt (1884–1962)

Personal Data

- American humanitarian
- Born in New York City, New York
- Married Franklin D. Roosevelt March 17, 1905
- Niece of President Theodore Roosevelt

Eleanor Roosevelt attended the Allenswood School in England from 1899 - 1902, where she demonstrated a superior intellect and was seen as “a born leader.” Upon her return to the United States, she acquired a firsthand awareness of the discrimination and poor working conditions within the garment industry, as well as the poverty of immigrant living conditions from her work with the Junior League and the Consumers League, both in New York from 1903-1904.

During her husband’s early political career Eleanor acted as political helpmate and became even more involved while attending her first Democratic Party convention. She joined the Red Cross during World War I and visited wounded veterans in the hospital, a practice she continued throughout her life.

Eleanor joined the **League of Women Voters** in 1920. This organization devoted itself to the advancement of women in politics. She made her first public speeches for the League of Women Voters. She later joined the Women’s Trade Union League and the Women’s Division of the Democratic State Committee. In 1926, with help from her activists’ contacts, she purchased a school for girls, named Todhunter. There she taught history and government. During this time, Redbook magazine published one of her writings, “Women Must Learn to Play the Game as Men Do” (1928). Her views in the article strengthened her position as a powerful force for female independence. The same year, she became director of the Bureau of Women’s Activities of the Democratic National Committee.

In 1921, Franklin Roosevelt contracted poliomyelitis, which left him paralyzed from the waist down and in a wheelchair for the rest of his life. To encourage him to remain in politics, Eleanor traveled extensively throughout the nation for the next 10 years. She acted as his representative, making observations for him and speaking on his behalf on many issues. She spoke about civil rights and feminist mobility, effectively maintaining his presence and consequently keeping his career alive as he gradually recovered.

Eleanor became the first wife of a president to hold a press conference allowing only female journalists to attend. This was her way of pressuring the largely male-staffed newspapers to hire female reporters. Throughout her husband’s

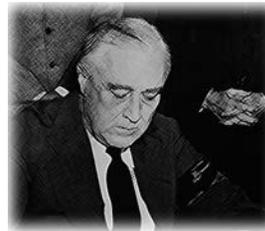
four terms as president, she held more than 300 press conferences. Her ideas influenced her husband's policy decisions and impacted popular opinion as well. In 1935, she began to publish her opinion in a daily syndicated column, "My Day," which she continued to write until her death in 1962.

Examples of Eleanor's social advocacy during the 1930s are as follows:

- Spearheaded an experimental homestead project for coal miners in West Virginia
- Helped initiate the National Youth Administration, securing employment rights for young employees
- Arranged numerous meetings between the President and various activists
- Urged the President to:
 - expand the role of women in politics
 - denounce **segregation** policy in the South
 - create anti-lynching legislature in cooperation with the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (**NAACP**)

Eleanor publicly resigned from the Daughters of the American Revolution (DAR) after it barred Marian Anderson, an African-American singer, from performing before its assembly in Washington, D.C. The DAR, a feminist league, received a public reprimand in her letter of resignation where she stated, "I am in complete disagreement with the attitude taken in refusing Constitution Hall to a great artist...You had an opportunity to lead in an enlightened way and it seems to me that your organization has failed." Marian Anderson was then invited by the federal government to perform on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial on Easter Sunday, 1939.

President Harry S. Truman asked Eleanor to become a U.S. delegate for the United Nations after Franklin's death in 1945. She served as a delegate from 1945 – 1953. She was subsequently made chair of the Commission on Human Rights, a subsidiary of the UN Economic and Social Council. She spent the remainder of her life devoted to improving awareness and international policies towards civil and human rights issues.



Franklin D. Roosevelt (FDR) (1882 – 1945)

Personal Data

- Thirty second president of the United States
- Born in Hyde Park, New York
- Married Eleanor Roosevelt March 17, 1905
- Fifth cousin of President Theodore Roosevelt

Contributions

Franklin D. Roosevelt began a career as a lawyer after attending Groton, Harvard University, and Columbia Law School.

FDR, as he was called, entered politics following the example of his fifth cousin, President Theodore Roosevelt, whom he greatly admired. FDR won election to the New York Senate in 1910. President Woodrow Wilson appointed him Assistant Secretary of the Navy from 1913 to 1920. In 1920, he was selected by James M. Cox to be his Vice Presidential

candidate on the Democratic ticket. They lost overwhelmingly to Warren Harding and Calvin Coolidge.

FDR was elected President in 1932, his first of four terms, over the republican incumbent, Herbert C. Hoover. Assuming the Presidency at the height of the **Great Depression**, FDR acted quickly to help the American people regain confidence in themselves and the country. He brought hope as he promised with prompt, vigorous action, and asserted in his Inaugural Address, "the only thing we have to fear is fear itself."

By March of 1932, there were 13,000,000 unemployed, and almost every bank was closed. In his first "hundred days," he proposed, and Congress enacted, a sweeping program to bring recovery to business and agriculture, relief to the unemployed, and to those in danger of losing farms and homes.

The government also acted directly to develop the natural resources of the country with the establishment of the Tennessee Valley Authority in 1933 and the Rural Electrification Administration in 1935.

The Nation now had achieved some amount of recovery, but businessmen and bankers were turning against Roosevelt's **New Deal** program. Roosevelt responded with a new program of reform: Social Security, a long-range plan for the future protection of the worker in unemployment, sickness, and old age. Heavier taxes were placed on the wealthy, and new regulations over banks, which loosened credit and insured deposits, were enacted. An enormous work relief program, called the Works Progress Administration (later the **Work Projects Administration**), was established with the intent to offer immediate work programs for the unemployed. In 1936 FDR was re-elected.

Roosevelt endorsed a "good neighbor" policy in foreign affairs and pledged "**hemisphere solidarity**" toward Latin America. He signed reciprocal trade agreements that greatly improved the United States' relationship with the neighboring countries to the south. Additionally, he extended diplomatic recognition to the USSR.

FDR opposed the entry of the United States into the Second World War. Nonetheless, when England came under siege in 1940, he began to send Great Britain all possible aid and stopped short of actual military involvement.

When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, Roosevelt directed organization of the Nation's manpower and resources for global war.

The majority of FDR's third administration was dominated by U.S. entry into World War II. During this time, the first peacetime Selective Service Act (the Draft) came into full force. Roosevelt was mostly responsible for the rapid growth of American military strength.

Roosevelt was respected abroad as one of the great leaders of the world during this period of upheaval. Roosevelt did not live to see Germany surrendered to the Allies; Franklin Delano Roosevelt died suddenly almost a month earlier.

Roosevelt spoke eloquently for human freedom and during his lifetime, worked toward the establishment of the United Nations.



Theodore (Teddy) Roosevelt (1858 – 1919)

Personal Data

- Twenty sixth president of the United States
- Born in New York City, New York
- Fifth cousin of Franklin Delano Roosevelt

Contributions

Teddy Roosevelt became President with the assassination of President McKinley in 1901. Not quite 43, he became the youngest President in the Nation's history. He brought new excitement and power to the Presidency, as he vigorously led Congress and the American public toward progressive reforms and a strong foreign policy.

As President, Roosevelt held the ideal that the Government should be the great **arbiter** of the conflicting economic forces in the Nation, especially between capital and labor, guaranteeing justice to each and dispensing favors to none. He fathered important legislation, including the Reclamation Act of 1902 (the Newlands Act), which made possible federal irrigation projects;

the bill establishing the U.S. Department of Commerce and Labor (1903); and the Elkins Act of 1903, which put an end to freight rebates by railroads.

During his second term as president, Roosevelt supported the passage of the Hepburn Act in 1906, which revitalized the Interstate Commerce Commission and authorized greater governmental authority over railroads. Additionally in 1906, he promoted the passage of the Meat Inspection Act and the Pure Food and Drug Act. By his aggressive domestic policy, Roosevelt resolutely increased the power of the President.

Roosevelt piloted the United States more actively into world politics. Aware of the strategic need for a shortcut between the Atlantic and Pacific, Roosevelt ensured the construction of the Panama Canal by intervening in the Panamanian revolution in 1903. A U.S. navy warship, the *Nashville*, prevented the landing of Colombian troops in Panama, thus contributing to the success of the revolution. His **corollary** to the Monroe Doctrine prevented the establishment of foreign bases in the Caribbean and assumed the sole right of intervention in Latin America to the United States.

He won the Nobel Peace Prize for mediating the peace conference for the Russo-Japanese War, reached a Gentleman's Agreement on immigration with Japan to discourage emigration of Japanese laborers to the United States, and sent the Great White Fleet on a goodwill tour of the world.

Some of Theodore Roosevelt's most effective achievements were in conservation. He added enormously to the national forests in the West, reserved lands for public use, and fostered great irrigation projects.



Jonas Salk (1914 – 1995)

Personal Data

- American physician, **microbiologist**
- Born in New York City, New York

Contributions

Jonas Salk earned a B.S. from the College of the City of New York in 1934 and his M.D. from New York Univ. College of Medicine in 1939.

Salk did research on the influenza virus at the University of Michigan in 1946 and became assistant professor of epidemiology there. He was best known for his work in developing a vaccine against poliomyelitis (polio). Polio was affecting the health of many Americans.

By cultivating three strains of the virus separately in monkey tissue, Salk was able to produce the **Salk vaccine**. The virus was separated from the tissue, stored for a week, and killed with formaldehyde; tests were then made to make certain that the virus was dead. A series of three or four injections with the killed virus vaccine was required to transmit immunity. An oral version of the vaccine is still given to children today.

In 1963, he was a founding director of the Salk Institute for Biological Studies at the University of California, San Diego; he retired in 1975.



Harry S. Truman (1884 – 1972)

Personal Data

- Thirty third president of the United States
- Born in Lamar, Missouri

Contributions

Harry Truman was educated in Independence, Missouri where he held various small business positions from 1900 until 1905. Soon after the United States entered World War I, he enlisted in the artillery in 1917, serving in France and achieving the rank of captain.

A supporter of Woodrow Wilson, Truman was a loyal Democrat from 1922 to 1934. He served as judge in several positions where he gave close attention to problems of local administration.

Truman, also a firm supporter of Franklin Roosevelt, was elected U.S. senator from Missouri in 1932. Reelected in 1940, he gained national attention as chairman of the Senate Committee to Investigate the National Defense Program, which

was established to oversee government operations and contracts.

In June 1944, Franklin Roosevelt was reelected to his fourth Presidential term and he selected Truman as his Vice President. Roosevelt died suddenly on April 12, 1945, after only 82 days of his fourth term in office. Truman assumed power at a very critical time for the U.S. Within a month after Roosevelt's death, Germany surrendered to the Allies, May 8, 1945. Truman was now faced with the problems of concluding World War II in the Pacific.

After the war in Europe ended, Truman joined other world leaders at the Potsdam Conference to discuss the postwar settlement of Europe and urgent international problems. It was his unfortunate choice to authorize the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki to end the conflict with Japan. Although the bombing brought an immediate end to the war with Japan, the morality of that decision continues to be controversial. After the war, he placed a plaque on his desk that illustrated his feelings of executive responsibility: "The Buck Stops Here!"

At home, Truman faced the challenges of returning to a peacetime economy. Inflation and **demobilization** were his chief worries. Truman took steps to demobilize the armed forces, terminate wartime agencies, and resume production of peacetime goods. Although Truman gradually began to eliminate Roosevelt's New Dealers, his national policies were basically a continuation of those of the New Deal. His program of reforms, labeled the **Fair Deal**, called for:

- Guaranteed full employment
- A permanent Fair Employment Practices Committee to end racial discrimination
- An increased minimum wage

- Extended social security benefits
- Price and rent controls
- Public housing projects
- Public health insurance

Congress, which was controlled by the Republicans, blocked most of these projects.

In foreign affairs, Truman saw the USSR as his chief adversary due to Russian aggressiveness in the international arena. Relations with that country deteriorated rapidly after the Potsdam Conference. The two powers were unable to work out plans to reunite Germany, produce general disarmament, or establish a United Nations armed force.

Truman considered Communist expansion to be one of the biggest threats in Southern and Western Europe. In 1947, he proposed giving economic and military aid to Greece and Turkey, whose bankruptcy and defeat by Communist elements seemed imminent

Truman declared his support for democracy abroad announcing the Truman Doctrine "to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures." The Truman Doctrine signaled the beginning of the U.S. policy of the "containment" of Communism.

The Truman Doctrine was implemented by the adoption of the Marshall Plan in 1947, which provided economic aid from richer Western nations to struggling countries in Europe and Asia. The democratic governments in Europe, South America, Africa, and elsewhere supported the plan. The Point Four program of 1949 provided technical aid to underdeveloped countries.

Truman supported the establishment of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (**NATO**)

by Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, and Portugal. Its major purpose at the time was for the collective defense against the threat of aggression by the Soviet Union.

Truman was elected to a second Presidential term. Congress, in response to the rising fear of Communist subversion across the country, passed the McCarran Internal Security Act in 1950. The Act provided for the registration of Communist and Communist-front organizations. Truman opposed the Act and vetoed it, however, the Congress overturned his veto.

Crisis overseas caused increased fear of Communism within the United States. On Sunday, June 25, 1950, the Korean War began when North Korean Communist forces invaded the Republic of South Korea. Truman reacted swiftly and sent U.S. troops to Korea with the support of the United Nations. In 1951, amid national frustration over the war, he dismissed Gen. Douglas MacArthur as head of the Far East Command of the U.S. Army for insubordination and challenging the administration's Far Eastern policies.

Truman declined the presidential nomination in 1952 for a third term. A new constitutional amendment limiting presidents to two terms did not apply to him.



Harriet Tubman (1820–1913)

Personal Data

- American abolitionist
- Born in Dorchester Co., Maryland

Contributions

Born into slavery, Harriet Tubman was a spy, nurse, feminist, and social reformer during a period of extreme turmoil in the United States.

One of the most famous opponents of slavery in the years before the U.S. Civil War, she escaped her own slavery in 1849 and became one of the most successful guides, called “conductors,” on the Underground Railroad. The Underground Railroad referred to the network of houses that allowed for the safe, however, illegal transportation of escaped slaves.

Tubman said, “I never run my train off the track [on my railroad], and I never lost a passenger.”

She led more than 300 slaves to freedom, and carried a loaded revolver that she used to encourage any slaves who had second thoughts about escaping to the north and to discourage any slave bounty hunters they happened to meet along the way.

Tubman personally knew such prominent abolitionists as New York Governor William H. Seward, suffragist Susan B. Anthony, writer Ralph Waldo Emerson, and the Louisa May Alcott family. She admired John Brown enormously and

became closely associated with him before his raid on the Federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry.

During the Civil War, Harriet Tubman went to Beaufort, South Carolina to nurse the sick and wounded Union soldiers after the fall of Port Royal. While there she taught self-sufficiency to recently freed slaves. She also served as a laundress and spy.

After the Civil War, she returned home and devoted herself to helping needy children and the elderly. She raised money to fund schools for former slaves, collected clothes for destitute children, found housing for the elderly, and assisted the poor and disabled.



Booker T. Washington (1856–1915)

Personal Data

- American educator
- African American leader
- Born in Franklin Co., Virginia

Contributions

After the Civil War, Booker T. Washington worked in salt furnaces and coalmines in Malden, West Virginia. He attended school part time until he was able to enter the Hampton Institute, in Virginia. A friend of the principal paid his tuition, and he worked as a janitor to earn his room and board.

After three years at Hampton, he taught school for African-American children in Malden, and then left to study at Wayland Seminary, Washington, D.C. There he became disillusioned with the traditional education given in African American schools and felt that manual training in rural skills and crafts was more practical for the advancement of his race.

Appointed an instructor at Hampton Institute (now Hampton University) in 1879, he was given responsibility for the training of 100 Native Americans who were admitted there experimentally. He proved to be a great success in his two years on the faculty, and he later developed the night school at the Institute.

In 1881, Washington was chosen to head a newly established college in Tuskegee, Alabama. The school would offer elementary education and trade skills for African Americans. Under his direction, Tuskegee Institute (now Tuskegee University) became one of the leading African American educational institutions in America. The programs at the Institute reflected Washington's philosophy that industrial training was the only way African Americans could learn self-respect and earn economic independence.



Orville Wright (1871–1948)

Personal Data

- American airplane inventor

- Born in Dayton, Ohio



Wilbur Wright (1867–1912)

Personal Data

- American airplane inventor
- Born in New Castle, Indiana

Contributions

Orville and Wilbur Wright were sons of a minister of the United Brethren Church. Though neither one of them graduated from high school, they both were bright and displayed mechanical genius from boyhood.

While reading about the glider experiments of a German engineer, in the 1890s the Wright brothers' interest in aviation was awakened. Both skilled mechanics, the Wrights opened a repair shop in Dayton, Ohio, and began a business making and selling their own bicycles. In their off hours, they used the shop for the construction of their early aircraft.

By experimenting with movable portions of wing assembly as a means of correcting the aircraft's position in flight, they made an important improvement in aircraft design. During this period, they built the first wind tunnel and compiled valuable tables of lift-pressures for various wing surfaces and wind speeds. Orville designed a powerful four-cylinder engine and an

efficient propeller, which they constructed and attached to their improved glider.

On Dec. 17, 1903, they traveled to Kitty Hawk, N.C., for their first controlled, sustained flights in a power-driven airplane. Of their four flights made on that day, Orville made the first, which lasted 12 seconds. The fourth made by Wilbur, covered 852 feet in 59 seconds.

The brothers continued their experiments at Dayton and built two sturdier, more reliable planes. In 1906, they received a U.S. patent for a powered aircraft. The Wright brothers gained international attention with their record-breaking flights in 1908 by Orville in the United States and by Wilbur in France. In 1909, the U.S. War Department contracted for a Wright flying machine for army use. The brothers established American Wright Company in 1909, and they proceeded to manufacture their improved planes and to train future pilots.

Conclusion

The people who were included in this lesson are just a small sampling of great Americans. You can probably think of many more. As you go through school and as you enter the workforce, you will come across the stories of other great Americans. Always try to learn what it was that made them stand out. Perhaps someday, your name will be on someone's list of people that contributed to America.❖

Preparing and Teaching a Lesson

PURPOSE

This lesson will help prepare you to teach, develop learning objectives, and use training aids. You will also study how to develop four-phase lesson plans. You will read about different teaching methods, such as demonstration and lecture, and when to use each method. You will also learn about five practical exercise formats, and the rehearsal process. Finally, you will learn about the actual delivery of the instruction.

Introduction

Being an instructor, or an assistant instructor, will be a challenging experience for you. It is for anyone -- even experienced teachers. Instructing can also be a little frightening.

During your life, both in school and out, you may be called upon to instruct others about something on which you are an expert. It is important to know how to plan and execute a lesson.

You may be required to present a portion of course content, or you may be asked to assist the teacher. When this occurs, you will need to know some of the finer points necessary to prepare for or to teach that instruction.

Preparing to Teach

There are five critical elements that you need to consider while preparing to teach. The five critical elements are listed below:

- Motivation
- Knowledge of your material
- Lesson objectives
- **Training aids**
- Lesson plan

Motivation

To properly teach a class, you must be motivated. Motivation is a drive that comes from within you. When you get excited about doing something, you will discover that you have the necessary motivation to do that task well. However, the opposite is also true. If you do not get excited about the task, you will lack the necessary motivation and drive to perform the task successfully.

In teaching, just doing an okay or a satisfactory job is not enough. The students in your class deserve the best instruction and instructors to guarantee a solid education. Therefore, when your instructors give you the opportunity to become a student instructor, consider it a challenging and exciting opportunity.

Knowledge of Your Material

It is essential to know your material well so that you can effectively teach it. To do that, you must research and rehearse your subject just as you would a speech. Knowing your material well will make you more confident and self-assured in front of your class.

To gain that necessary level of confidence in yourself, you must organize your thoughts, prepare and/or review your lesson plan, make any changes as required, and rehearse your material. When rehearsing, practice in front of a mirror,

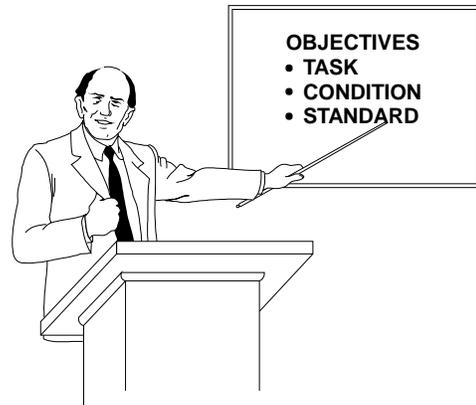
friends, parents, video camera, or with a tape recorder. Always rehearse the material in the manner you plan to present it to the class. Using one or a combination of these methods will enable you to **pace** your material to ensure that you have the right amount of information and that you sufficiently cover the areas that need special emphasis.

Classes have a set time length and your job is to effectively cover the instruction within that period. If you know and rehearse your material, you will be comfortable teaching it to others. Additionally, try to relax while teaching. That will put both you and your class at ease and make the class feel more comfortable with you.

Learning Objectives

As a student instructor, one of your primary responsibilities is to understand the importance of learning **objectives** as they relate to the material your instructor has assigned you to teach. Learning objectives indicate what skills, knowledge, or attitudes your students should have once you finish the instruction. That is, learning objectives tell the students in clear, performance terms what supporting skills, knowledge, and attitudes they will need to learn as they work toward achievement of the task.

By breaking major subjects into smaller pieces, learning objectives give students smaller goals that are less overwhelming. They provide **benchmarks** by which students and instructors can measure progress towards achieving the desired outcome. From an instructor standpoint, learning objectives lay the groundwork for the development and selection of the type of **evaluation criteria** the instructor should use to measure students' progress.



All learning objectives must be realistic, attainable, observable, and measurable. That is, at the end of each period of instruction, you should be able to administer a test based on the criteria of the objective and on the material you presented. Likewise, students should be able to pass a test, or at least demonstrate, to the best of their ability, that they have a basic understanding of the material you presented.

The process of developing learning objectives is more complex and detailed than presented here; however, this material should give you an appreciation for what learning objectives are as well as the basic procedures for writing them.

Task, Condition, and Standard

Learning objectives are clear, concise, simple, and straightforward statements that consist of three parts: task, **condition**, and **standard**. Do not include any extra or confusing information in a learning objective. By combining these parts, we have a properly written learning objective (as shown below):

Given a topographic map and a coordinate scale (condition), write a six-digit grid coordinate (task) to within 100 meters (standard).

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Task

Definition. The task states the action that a class, group of students, or an individual must perform.

Characteristics. Each task statement should:

- Begin with an action verb with which you can measure the intended outcome. The following chart contains examples of **measurable** action verbs.

SAMPLE ACTION VERBS LIST		
act	discuss	predict
answer	distinguish	prepare
apply	estimate	produce
arrange	explain	rate
build	give examples of	record
calculate	identify	report
change	illustrate	reply
choose	join	restate
classify	judge	revise
compare	justify	schedule
compete	list	select
compose	match	show
compute	measure	solve
contrast	modify	state
create	name	summarize
define	organize	use
demonstrate	outline	verify
describe	perform	write/rewrite

- Describe completely the performance students are to accomplish.
- Be clearly relevant to the job or requirement.
- Be accurate and precise.
- Avoid overlapping with other actions. A properly written task statement contains only one action that you want students to accomplish. More than one action may cause

confusion, lead to poor or incomplete performance, and be difficult to measure.

Condition

Definition. The condition (or set of conditions) describes clearly and completely the circumstances under which the task must be performed.

Characteristics. The condition statement should:

- Specify exactly what you will give students to assist them in accomplishing the task, such as guidance, supervision, or other forms of help.
- List any references or memory aids that students will need while performing the task.
- Specify any restrictions or limitations.
- Identify the tools, equipment, clothing, or other resources needed to accomplish the task.
- Describe the type of environment in which students must perform the task.
- Describe any special, physical, environmental, or safety conditions that students may encounter while performing the task.

Standard

Definition. The standard states how well the task must be performed.

Characteristics. The standard measures how well you expect students to perform the task by specifying the minimum acceptable level of achievement. Since instructors must be able to measure all tasks to some degree, we classify standards in two categories: **quantitative** and **qualitative**.

Quantitative standards use numbers to measure performance. By using quantitative

measurements, you can evaluate how well students performed the task. Indicated below are five aspects of performance for which we can use quantitative standards.

1. *Accuracy.* If an evaluator measures performance with a measuring tool, the standard must state how close to perfection a person must perform the task; for example, “*with 85% accuracy.*”
2. *Quantity.* If an evaluator measures performance in units of measure (such as the number of items, yards, pounds, dollars, miles, or rounds), the standard must indicate a quantity to the closest unit; for example, “*to within 100 meters.*”
3. *Time.* If time is an important factor in performing the task, the standard must state a specified time requirement; for example, “*within 9 seconds after hearing the alarm.*”
4. *Rate.* Rate is a quantity over a set period of time. For tasks where rates are important, the standard must specify the rate; for example, “*20 units per day.*”
5. *Completeness.* Under conditions or situations where the performance does not require a specific measurement, the standard must show a general degree of completeness. Examples of this standard include: “*...with all steps performed,*” “*All pieces must be assembled in the correct relationship,*” or “*All key personnel must be notified.*”

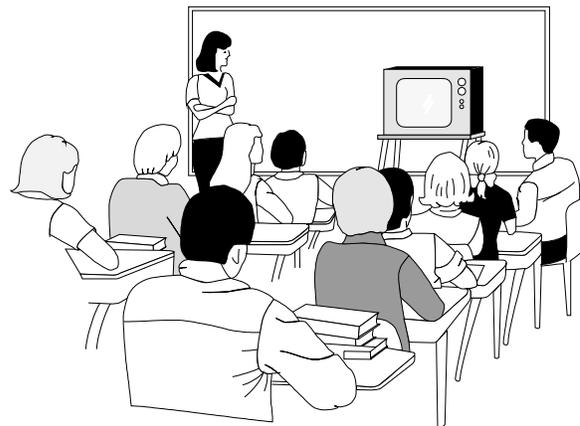
Qualitative standards do not use numbers to measure performance unless there is some type of rating system. Otherwise, they require the evaluator to make a judgment. An example of a qualitative standard is “*adjust the carburetor until the engine runs at its smoothest point.*” If you must use a qualitative standard, avoid vague words such as

“effective,” “acceptable,” “proper,” “correct,” and “average.”

Remember, standard statements should be realistic, attainable, observable, and measurable. Learning objectives guide the instructor and the class through each lesson. Properly written learning objectives emphasize what the instructor should teach and what the class members should learn.

Training Aids

Training aids are materials that help you teach. In fact, any item that enhances the quality of your instruction and helps you to display instructional material is a training aid. Types of training aids include computers, overhead projectors, television sets with videocassette recorders, chalkboards, handouts, bulletin boards, posters, etc.



In order to make a training aid effective, you must use it properly. That is, use it the way you would use a visual aid when giving a speech. A training aid may be a component of your lesson; however, your entire lesson cannot rely on the use of training aids.

When you find a training aid that you like, rehearse your lesson with it. The following pointers will enable you to use training aids more effectively.

- A training aid should adequately support the material in your lesson.
- Do not talk to your training aids. Keep eye contact with your class as much as possible.
- Make your training aids large enough for everyone to see.

Lesson Plans

Developing an effective **lesson plan** is an important part of teaching. Without a well-written lesson plan, it would be almost impossible for you to teach in an organized manner. If you are organized, it will be easier for you to teach the lesson objectives, especially for difficult tasks.



Eight Tips for Lesson Planning

When teaching a class, structure your presentation by following the eight tips outlined below. It is important that you have a logical and orderly method of teaching the lesson. These

eight tips will help you to capture the attention of your class, keep their attention throughout your presentation, build their respect in your ability as a teacher, and increase your self-confidence.

1. *Practice the material you plan to present to the class. Pay close attention to your pace.* Know how long each section of your lesson will take. Do not waste time. You may need that time to adequately cover the main points or for questions and answers.
2. *Use an opening that will grab the attention of the class.*
3. *Inform the students of the lesson learning objectives and of your expectations.* This tells them specifically what you will be teaching and how well you will expect them to know the material.
4. *Briefly review any material from previous lessons (prerequisites) that relates to the material you are teaching.*
5. *Inform or advise the students of any precautions, safety requirements, or special instructions regarding the lesson.*
6. *Present the material according to your lesson plan. Use your training aids effectively.* Describe any assignments or practical exercises and ensure the class knows how to accomplish them.
7. *Use demonstrations and/or other forms of practical exercises, when appropriate, to reinforce your instruction.* Give your class examples that will help them understand and complete their assignments or practical exercises.
8. *Repeat any material covered that your class did not fully understand, time permitting. Allow time for questions and answers.* Listening to responses is one measurement of how well the class understood the material you covered. You

may have to spend additional time with certain students before or after class to ensure they understand the lesson. You may wish to make a list of **supplemental** material students can review to help them better understand the lesson. Then, *conclude or review the main points of your material and the lesson learning objectives.*

Using and Developing Lesson Plans

Lesson plans are essential tools used for teaching. Teachers use a lesson plan as an outline to organize their thoughts and the information they plan to present to a class. This organization helps to create a degree of standardization in the presentation of learning objectives by multiple instructors. Consequently, a standardized lesson plan would show these teachers:

- What material they should teach
- To what extent they should teach the material
- In what sequence they should teach the material

As a result, different teachers using the same lesson plan will teach the same learning objectives and conduct the class in similar ways.

The Four-Phase Lesson Plan

Some lesson plans consist of four phases:

- Inquire
- Gather
- Process
- Apply

Inquire Phase

The purpose of the **Inquire** Phase is to determine the lesson's starting point. As a teacher, you need to determine what students already know or don't know about the lesson content. Knowing the answers to the following questions will help both you and your students understand their current level of knowledge.

- What do students know?
- What don't they know?
- What do students misunderstand?
- What are the students' past experiences?
- What do students want to know?
- What is the purpose of the lesson?
- How motivated are the students to learn the content?
- What are some practical reasons for students to participate in the lesson?

During this phase, you may wish to use an icebreaker or **energizer** in your lesson. These are physically active games or other activities that increase group interaction, promote a sense of team, generate laughter and a sense of fun, and introduce the concept or lesson objectives.

Gather Phase

Once you determine the lesson's starting point, you are ready to help your students gather information about the subject matter. You want to be able to provide the students with the important facts and concepts so they may have a better understanding and/or improve their skills.

The purpose of the **Gather** Phase is to research and collect information from a variety of sources, to **synthesize** information, to evaluate existing information, to collect data, to evaluate

ideas, or to observe new skills. Some important questions you can ask during this phase are:

- What new and essential information or new concepts did the students find?
- What are some new, critical skills?
- What connections or associations can be made?
- What can students do to make sense of the new information?
- What is the best way to gather the information?
- What new understandings can students construct?

Process Phase

The third phase is called the **Process** Phase. The purpose of this phase is to use the new information, practice new skills, and engage in different activities. The following questions can help you develop meaningful learning activities for your students.

- What can students do with the information?
- How can students demonstrate their understanding?
- How can students show relationships among the data or concepts?
- How can students practice and improve their skill(s)?
- What can students do to reinforce their understanding of the new concept?
- How can students ensure the new information is stored in long-term memory?

Apply Phase

The purpose of the **Apply** Phase is to help students make real-life applications of the new information or ideas. Students can also

consider ways to integrate the lesson concepts or skills with other curriculum areas. They may also plan ways to transfer their learning into personal use, outside the classroom. Questions that can help both the instructor and students during this phase are:

- What else can be done with the information?
- What else is needed to make the information usable?

The Three Components of Each Phase

Three components are common to each of the four phases in the lesson plan. They are: Direct Student **Focus**, Learning Activity, and Reflection.

Direct Student Focus

As a teacher, you have a responsibility to help your students focus on specific elements of the learning activity. You will guide their thought processes and help them focus on key concepts or content during the learning activity. You will eliminate or filter extraneous information so students can direct their attention to what is critical for their learning.

For example, if the students watch a video, you need to identify specific elements of the video on which the students should focus; if you have the students read a chapter in a book, you should list the details you expect them to extract from their reading; if the students do research on the Web, you can help clarify the research topics or the important information needed from the research; etc.

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Learning Activities for Each Phase

Learning activities may appear in many forms. As a teacher, you should plan activities that best present the information and allow students the opportunity to participate in the learning process.

If you are in the role of teacher, have students engage in active learning experiences that assess their current level of understanding of the lesson content, their level of interest in the lesson, and their goals for their own learning.

Appropriate Inquire Phase activities include:

- Agree/disagree worksheets
- K-W-L charts
- Analogies or metaphors
- Pre-quizzes or pre-tests
- “Group” graph or “4-corners”
- Panel discussions
- Debates
- Homework reviews
- Other

Appropriate Gather Phase activities include:

- Graphic organizers
- Computer searches
- Jigsaw
- Interviewing experts
- Demonstrations
- Generating examples
- Socratic questioning
- Constructivist questions
- Other

Information is transferred during the learning activity. The student obtains information from you and fellow classmates and interacts with the new material. Practicing new skills helps the student evaluate the importance and usefulness of the information and understand how it connects to other things they know. Students also have an opportunity to demonstrate their grasp of the lesson material.

Appropriate Process Phase activities include:

- Games
- Laboratory experiments
- Role plays
- Peer teaching
- Rehearsals
- Simulations
- Reciprocal teaching
- Graphic organizers
- Other

As the **facilitator**, you disseminate information, direct student activities, observe performance, and answer student questions.

Have students engage in active learning experiences that will help them transfer the new information or skills outside the classroom. Ask students to consider ways that the new information can be applied to their everyday lives and how it connects to what they are learning in other classrooms. They can research the effectiveness of the new information or skills and evaluate their usefulness.

Appropriate Apply Phase activities include:

- Action research
- Field trips
- Interviews

- Portfolios
- Student-designed homework activities
- Personal goals and objectives
- Creative connections
- Problem-based projects
- Other

Reflection

As the teacher, ask questions that help students think about, reflect on, or make sense of their learning experiences. Having students discuss or write down what they understand, helps them clarify their thinking and improve their understanding, as well as strengthen their memory connections. It is during this **reflection** process that students begin to understand the importance and purpose of the learning activity. Reflecting also helps the brain store the information into long-term memory.

Delivering Instruction

Once you have prepared your teaching, developed learning objectives, created learning activities and training aids, and practiced your presentation, you are ready to deliver the instruction.



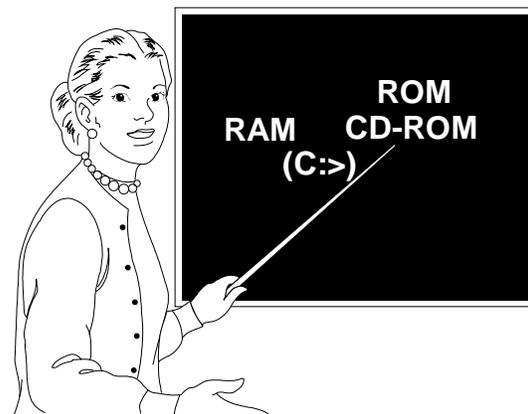
Types of Teaching Methods

The method of instruction is how you choose to conduct your class. Sometimes the subject you are teaching dictates which method to use. There are many different types of instruction from which to choose.

Lecture

The **lecture** is an informative talk given to a class. During a lecture, the teacher does most of the talking; questions and answers usually occur at the end of the lecture. Because the teacher limits the interaction during the presentation, this method provides the fastest dissemination of information.

Use lectures when the subject you are teaching is unfamiliar to your class and it is the best method for preparing students to practice the task. Generally, this method involves learning knowledge-based information. Knowledge-based information is that which you need to know or understand. Examples of MCJROTC subjects for which you might use a lecture are *History*, *Citizenship*, or *Technology Awareness*.



When preparing for a lecture, be sure to: research your topic, organize your thoughts using the outline of the lesson plan, and rehearse. Remember to use your training aids while practicing. Ensure that you are comfortable with your topic since you will be doing most of the talking.

The question and answer session at the end of the lecture gives your class the opportunity to ask for clarification or additional information, and it gives you the opportunity to reemphasize the lesson learning objectives.

Discussion/Conference

During a **conference**, the instructor involves the entire class in a **discussion** of the subject being taught by asking leading questions to get the class to think about and discuss the main points.

This method of instruction is more interesting than a lecture and is ideal for subjects such as current events, topics that require practical exercises (such as *First Aid* and *Map Reading*), and topics where a majority of the class is having difficulty learning.

Experienced teachers recommend using a conference when conducting reviews because it enables them to ensure that the class is comfortable with the text material.

Demonstration

Demonstration is a method of instruction that requires class participation. You will use this method to show the class how to do a task and to have them practice performing the task. This method holds the students' interest because they are actively involved in the learning process.



Advance planning and preparation are especially important for demonstrations to ensure that everything goes smoothly, and to avoid interruptions or problems that would make the demonstration less realistic.

Practical Exercises

The **practical exercise** is a type of instruction where a learner performs, under controlled conditions, the operation, skill, or procedure being taught. In a practical exercise, class members learn by doing. It is one of the most effective methods for teaching skills. Practical exercises are often used in conjunction with other methods, such as after a lecture or demonstration.

In the best practical exercises, the tasks that learners perform should be as close as possible to those they will be expected to perform on their assessment or evaluation. The most common types of practical exercises include:

- **Group Performance/Controlled Exercises:**

In **group performance/controlled** exercises, learners work together at a fixed rate. Everyone does the same thing at the same time. One caution with this practical exercise type is that learners may imitate the

performance without actually understanding it.

- Independent Exercises:

Learners work alone at their own pace in **independent exercises**. As the instructor, you will circulate around the classroom and supervise, providing assistance and feedback as necessary.

- Role Playing:

In **role-playing** exercises, learners are given different roles to play in a situation, and they apply the concepts being taught while acting out realistic behavior. This type of exercise is especially useful for training interpersonal skills, such as leadership or counseling, or interactive skills in a realistic, but controlled situation. Role-playing can also be classified as a method of instruction

- Coach-Pupil Exercises:

In **coach-pupil exercises**, learners work in pairs or small groups, alternately performing as instructor and student. Coach-pupil exercises are extremely useful when time is short or when there are too few instructors.

- Team Practical Exercises:

In **team practical exercises**, learners work together as a team to perform the desired tasks. This method integrates basic skills into team skills.

Demonstrations and practical exercises lend themselves to classes like *First Aid* and *Map Reading*.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a problem-solving technique where instructors give participants a problem and have them bring into the discussion any ideas that come to mind. All ideas are

gathered and recorded, without evaluation, before any are discussed. Preferably, the ideas are recorded someplace where all the participants can see them (for example, on a flipchart, whiteboard, or chalkboard).

In some situations, you may limit idea gathering to 5-15 minutes. After gathering the ideas, have the participants discuss them and decide on the best solution or course of action. It is your job, as the instructor, to **facilitate** this process.

In order to conduct a successful brainstorming session, you should:

- State the objectives and ground rules up front, so that the group members know what is expected of them.
- Encourage input from all group members.
- Recognize nonverbal cues that indicate group members wish to have input, and respond accordingly.
- Keep the session moving and on track.
- Avoid judging any ideas offered by the group during the idea-gathering phase.
- Facilitate the group's constructive evaluation of the various ideas, and help them reach consensus on a solution, idea, or course of action.



Case Study

A **case study** is an oral or written account of a real or realistic situation, with sufficient detail to make it possible for the learners to analyze the problems involved and determine possible solutions. There may be many right answers.

Many case study exercises involve group discussions. In this case, you should follow the same rules as described for the discussion/conference. Be prepared to provide relevant and constructive feedback.

Gaming

Gaming consists of activities where participants compete to try to achieve or exceed a certain standard in performing a skill relevant to the learning objectives of the lesson.

Cooperative Learning Strategy

A **cooperative learning** strategy is one in which a team of students work with and depend upon each other toward a common goal. Each team member is responsible for:

- A portion of the work, achieving an individual goal
- Instructing the other team members
- Receiving information from the other members
- Helping their teammates achieve their individual goals
- Reaching the group goal

The team members work both independently and as a group to gather, disseminate, discuss, and incorporate information into a single cohesive element.

A cooperative learning **strategy** is best used when the learning goals are important, both mastery and **retention** are important, and the task is complex or conceptual.

As you progress through this lesson, you will learn some strategies that can help build good teamwork, strategies that can help students respond to and discuss questions raised in the lesson, strategies that can help students learn the material quickly, and some benefits of cooperative learning.

Team Building Strategies

Teams are comprised of a group of individuals associated together in work or activity. Since you are going to form teams when using a cooperative learning strategy, it only makes sense to try and have the best teams possible. Following is a list of **team-building exercises** that you may employ to help you foster good team spirit.

Team Cheer

The team creates a cheer to be used when the group has accomplished a task and is celebrating.

Team Color

The team chooses a color that represents the personality of the group members.

Team Excellence Symbol

The team decides on a physical symbol formed by the group that indicates they have finished an assigned task and that they fulfilled the requirements of the task.

Team Food

The team selects a food (candy, fruit, gum, etc.) that the whole group enjoys and will be used as part of their celebrations.

Team Logo

The team designs a logo that visually represents the team.

Team Name

The group decides on an appropriate name for the team.

Team Song

The team creates a song or selects a song that reflects the team's personality.



Question Strategies

In a standard classroom, the teacher asks questions from time-to-time and calls on one or more students to answer the question. When a student wants to ask a question, he or she will

raise a hand and wait for teacher recognition before speaking.

Group dynamics make the standard question and answer format difficult to use. The following are strategies that you may employ in a cooperative learning situation to facilitate question response and discussion in a group setting.

Heads Together

Pairs of students get together to answer a question, solve a problem, review an assignment, react to a video, or generate a discussion.



Numbered Heads Together

The team members count off (e.g. one, two, three, four), and divide by number, discuss a problem together, reach some conclusion, then randomly team members answer a question when the teacher calls their number.

Partner Interviews (PI)

Partners take turns interviewing each other to determine their level of understanding of a concept.

Round-Robin

Each team member takes a turn adding information or sharing an idea; each class member shares an insight or new learning; each team

member contributes to the creation of a writing project; etc.

Round-Robin Brainstorm

Team members take turns adding to a group brainstorm.

Squared-Shared-Partner-Interviews

Pairs join with another pair to form a square and share what they gathered from their previous interviews.

Think-Pair-Share (TPS)

Individually, students think about a question, pair with another student to discuss their thoughts, then shares their thoughts with a larger group or with the class.

Team Brainstorm

Team members randomly and rapidly contribute many ideas.

Gather, Share, and Learn Strategies

Despite the good intention of teachers, events can occur that prohibit them from adhering to their lesson plan (special school assemblies, sickness, inclement weather, etc.). The following are several strategies that will enable groups to gather, share, and learn their lesson material in a relatively short period of time.



Carousel

Teams work together to respond to different problems by moving from station to station or send their problem around the groups so other groups can contribute to the solution by responding on the chart or paper they receive.

Conversation Circles

Two circles are formed with one circle inside the other. One student from each circle faces another student. In these pairs, students discuss questions posed by the teacher. Circles rotate two to four times in opposite directions so students discuss questions with new partners.

Jigsaw

Material, like a chapter in a book, different web sites, several articles, etc., is segmented and each team member is assigned a segment to study and/or review. Team members return to share their segment with the rest of the group.

Jigsaw and Expert Groups

Each team member is assigned a segment of information. Each member studies the assigned section independently. Members then find others from different groups who studied the same material. Together they review what they learned, clarify any misunderstandings, and fill in gaps. They become experts. They return to their original group and share their expertise.

Team Graphic Organizer

Together, a team prepares a single graphic organizer of information.

Team Product or Project

Teams produce a product or engage in a project as a culminating activity.

Team Performance

Teams prepare a performance or presentation based on a synthesis of what they learned.

Benefits of Cooperative Learning

There are real benefits for using a cooperative learning strategy in the classroom. One of the most important goals in education is to promote constructive relationships and positive attitudes amongst the student body.



The group dynamics of cooperative learning requires a large amount of social interaction. Students share ideas and feelings. Team members get to know one another and develop a better understanding of other individuals. The students learn to trust, depend upon, and respect one another as they strive to achieve a common goal. Teammates are appreciated for what they can do and are not simply rejected for what they cannot do.

Cooperative learning groups tend to be more creative than individual students or non-cooperative learning groups because the group dynamics encourage and require all team members to actively participate. Therefore, more ideas are generated, the quality of ideas is increased, and

there is more originality in creative problem solving activities.

Cooperative learning promotes a more exciting and far-reaching way of thinking about inclusion of differently enabled students. Cooperation amongst all students is based on the belief that all people are good at something, have the ability to help others, and can benefit from the help of others.

By creating a classroom that is cooperative and inclusive, the student's acceptance and success in the general education environment will be greatly enhanced. All students and all teachers have much to gain by structuring the classroom and school environment so that it provides generous support for learning, connecting, and caring.

Reviews and Rehearsals

As part of your preparation for delivering instruction, you should rehearse before attempting to deliver the instruction. Even if you have delivered the instruction many times, rehearsing will help you get into the proper mindset and iron out any problems that you may have had in the past.



Reviews

If you have revised or adapted your materials, review them one last time to ensure you are comfortable with the content, format, and flow. It is also a good idea to look over your references and training aids again.

Rehearse

To help you rehearse, enlist family or friends to serve as an audience and to play the role of students. If possible, practice with all the equipment and training aids you will use in the classroom.

At the conclusion of your instruction, ask your audience to help you evaluate your performance to make sure that you iron out all trouble spots and are conducting the instruction at the proper pace.

Conclusion

As with any other task you will be assigned, conducting a class or assisting someone else to teach, proper preparation is essential to doing your best.

Learn the content, create observable and measurable objectives, identify the training aids you will use, develop a lesson plan, rehearse, and get motivated.

For teachers, lesson plans are the building blocks used to help organize thoughts and information. The Four-Phase Lesson Plan was devised to facilitate the planning process. As you develop your lesson plan, keep each component (Direct Student Focus, Learning Activity, and Reflection) in mind within each lesson plan phase.

Teaching is more than just getting up in front of an audience and talking. If you use this well-organized approach, your audience will come

away knowing a lot more than they did at the start.



Writing a Research Paper

PURPOSE

This lesson will explain how to write a research paper. You will learn about selecting and limiting a topic according to specified requirements. You will learn how to write a thesis statement and develop an outline. You will see how to write endnotes and bibliographic entries. You will also learn how to take research notes and complete the paper.

Introduction

A research paper, often known as a term paper, is like other forms of writing in that it is characterized by a coherent **exposition** of an idea or argument. Additionally, a research paper includes the use of library sources. Library sources, or references, are facts, quotations, opinions, or ideas of others that can be used to support your own ideas or arguments. Any such reference must be credited by **footnotes** or **endnotes**. Research into a topic often yields new information and helps you to more fully understand all aspects of the subject of your paper.

Selecting a Topic

The first step in writing a research paper is the selection of a topic. When choosing a topic for a research paper, select a topic that interests you and one where you may be able to support your own ideas or conclusions with reference

material. Some topics are not suitable for a paper of this type, due to the fact that there are no reference materials available. For example, a paper on your summer vacation cannot be researched for it is a personal matter. The source can only be your personal experience.

You must also select a topic that is consistent with the instructor's assignment. If your instructor sets standards of topic area or paper length, be sure to choose a topic that lends itself to the instructions. For instance, if your instructor told you to write a short research paper on a current event, you would not choose World War II as your topic, because this topic does not follow the assignment and can not be thoroughly covered in a short paper.

Limiting the Topic

A problem with many cadets' research papers is the fact that the cadets try to cover too broad a topic. How you limit your topic depends on the assigned length of the paper and the availability of source material.

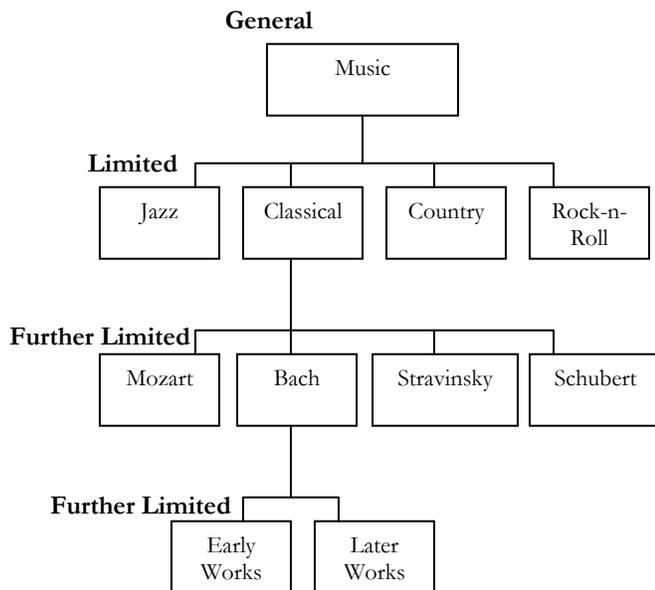
To limit your topic, begin with a generalized idea and break it into smaller and smaller divisions. Examine how the topic is limited in the following example:

General topic – Music

Limited Topic – Classical Music

Further Limited Topic – Johann Sebastian Bach

If you wanted to further limit this subject, you could write about a particular work of Bach or the development of his style. If your topic is too general, you cannot write a successful paper, because it will be vague and often will not fall into the limitation set by the instructor.



Just as it is a mistake to write on a topic that is too general, it is also a mistake to write on a topic that is too limited. If you limit your topic too much, you may find it difficult to locate sources or sufficient material to write about; therefore, take time and thought when selecting a topic.

Devising a Thesis

After you select a topic, you must determine exactly what it is that you want to say about that topic. For example, are you “pro” or “con” concerning it? How strongly do you feel about your topic? What do you want your

audience to understand from reading your paper? The sentence that presents the writer’s subject, the writer’s attitude toward the subject, and the overall pattern of organization for the subject, is known as the “**thesis statement.**” The thesis statement is defined as the statement of the proposition or concept to be discussed and/or argued in a research paper. It is usually one or two declarative sentences that appear at the end of the introductory paragraph(s).

The thesis statement is like a map, because it plots the course of the entire paper. An effective thesis statement offers guidelines to the paper’s content, organization, and the scope of the topic. An effective thesis statement does not state the obvious, nor is it abstract, vague, or obscure, but presents an interesting idea or argument in a concrete and concise manner. Observe the following examples:

Paper Topic: Gun Control

Ineffective Thesis Statements:

Too Obvious: Guns can be dangerous.

Abstract/Vague: Anything that could be detrimental to society should be eliminated.

Too General: All guns should be outlawed.

Correct Thesis Statement:

Any device with the potential for being misused, where misuse may lead to serious injury or death, should be restricted and licensed, in particular handguns.

Developing an Outline

After you have selected a topic and formed a thesis statement, you should form a “working” outline, which may change slightly

during the course of your research, before you form your final outline. An outline is a brief sketch of the material to be covered in the paper and the manner in which the material is to be organized. Drafting an outline will help you organize your thoughts and will enable you to disregard sources which are not relevant, thus setting the pattern for your research.

Your outline should contain several parts: the title, the thesis, the ideas about the introduction, the body, and the ideas about the conclusion. The following is an example of a standard outline form:

Title: _____
Introduction: _____
Thesis: _____
I. Major Idea
A. Supporting Idea
1. Example or illustration of supporting idea
2. Example or illustration of supporting idea

The ideas about the introduction and conclusion will be used to write the actual introduction and conclusion within the paper itself, and should be removed from the final outline.

The body of the outline is the portion that includes the major ideas, supporting ideas, and the examples. Major ideas are numbered

consecutively with Roman numerals. These are reinforced by at least two supporting ideas. Supporting ideas are lettered consecutively by capital letters. These are reinforced by at least two examples or illustrations, which are numbered consecutively by Arabic numerals.

When outlining your main points and supporting ideas, make sure that all of them support the goal and purpose of the paper.

There are several ways to organize the information. Before you start, think about the various alternatives available to you.

- Topical organization is when you have several ideas to present and one idea seems to naturally belong before another idea. This is one of the most common ways to organize ideas.
- Chronological organization uses time sequence for the framework. Chronological organization is important for papers that require background information.
- Spatial organization orders material according to physical space. You may use spatial order in papers involving geographical locations.
- Classification puts things into categories. This pattern fits many papers.
- Problem/Solution puts the problem in the first part of the outline, and the solution into the second part.
- Cause/Effect organization describes the cause of a problem in the first part of the outline, and the effect is described in the second part.

Writing an Introduction

Once you have an outline of the information that is the body of your paper, you need to think about how you will introduce the information. The introduction accomplishes several things, it:

- Gets the reader's attention;
- Introduces the topic;
- Shows the topic's importance;
- Presents the thesis of the topic; and
- Forecasts the major ideas, thesis statement.

Within the introduction, you will give a “preview” of your paper. The preview is usually only a sentence or two long. Be brief and be clear. After the introduction, the reader should know exactly what you are writing about and, in some cases, why.

Conducting Library Research

After creating a working outline, you can begin to do library research. The first stage in your research is to discover where to find necessary information to support your thesis. This involves compiling a working bibliography or a list of sources that could possibly be used. (A working bibliography is much like a working outline, in that it is likely change during the course of research.) Your working bibliography should include the source name (title), the author, the publisher, the publication date, the page number, and any other information critical to locating the source.

There are many types of material that can be used as references, both written and spoken, such as books, pamphlets, newspapers, journals, lectures, and interviews. One important consideration to examine when selecting a source is the reliability of that source. Is the author

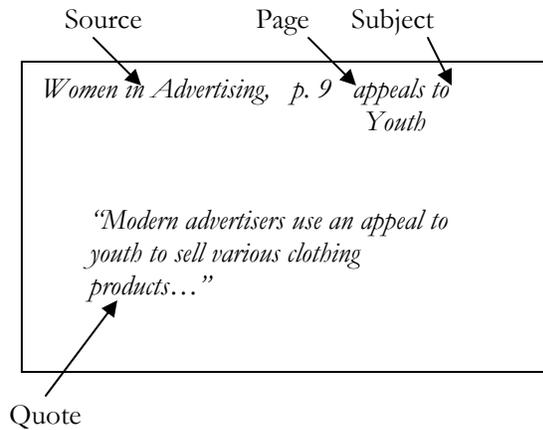
respected in the field? Is the work recent enough to give current information on the topic? Is the author biased in any way? You would not use a tabloid-type newspaper as a reference for a research paper, because the information is often an exaggerated version of the truth. Likewise, you would not use a book that was twenty years old to write a paper on the current advances in cancer research, because it is outdated. You also may not want to use an author who is biased on the subject matter and cannot give an objective account of the material.

Taking Notes

Taking accurate notes is essential to a research paper. This is most efficiently done on index cards, due to the fact that they can be arranged and rearranged in accordance with the organization of the paper. Each note card should contain the following information:

1. Subject – Identify the information the card contains in a few words at the top of the card.
2. Source – List the author’s name or the title.
3. Page Number – Be sure to list the page from which you drew the information.

The notes can be a quotation, a paraphrase, or a precise summary. Proper note taking can save you time and effort, while helping you develop the ability to better organize your paper.



Writing a Rough Draft

After you have made your outline as complete as possible, have gathered, and organized your note cards, you are ready to begin writing. This original draft is known as the rough draft. As you begin writing, you will realize that some ideas will need to be expanded and some ideas shortened or cut entirely. You also will need to devise **transitional** sentences or paragraphs so that your thoughts flow from one idea to the next in a smooth logical pattern within the paper. You will also write a conclusion, to tie up your ideas, and restate your thesis.

Use your source material in such a manner that it supports your thesis and the major ideas; yet be sure not to flood your paper with quotes and references, for this often overshadows your own ideas. If you eliminate all quoted and paraphrased passages, your paper should still make sense. Here are a few guidelines that will help you achieve this goal:

1. Avoid long paragraphs of quotations.
2. Introduce source material so that your reader will know the source you are quoting: Lincoln once said that, "A house divided against itself cannot stand."
3. Include direct quotations only to emphasize major points.

You must also realize that it may be necessary to revise your paper several times to make it both grammatically and topically correct.

Documenting Sources

Documentation is the citation of sources used within a research paper. These take the form of footnotes or endnotes. Footnotes appear at the bottom of each page and endnotes appear on a

Using Source Materials

You can use the information gathered during the course of your research in several different manners. **Direct quotation, paraphrase, and précis** (summary) are the three manners of using source material. Direct quotation is the word-for-word statement of information found in a reference and should be enclosed in quotation marks or set as a single-spaced indented passage. Paraphrase is the restatement of the source in approximately the same number of words and in much the same manner, while a précis is a short concise summary of the source. In all three cases, you are responsible for documenting the source.

At this point, we must discuss one of the major pitfalls of a research paper: **plagiarism**. Plagiarism is defined as the failure to cite a source and repeating an author's specific sentences, or ideas, in such a manner that they appear to be your own. Not only is plagiarism of copyrighted material unethical, it is illegal and may lead to litigation. To avoid plagiarism, be sure to cite the source when quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing.

separate sheet of paper at the end. Endnotes are the simpler form and are more widely accepted than footnotes, although either citation is completely acceptable.

Documentation has two important functions. The first being to give credit to the author(s) whose material you have consulted; and second, to enable your readers to look up the original material. You must document all material that is directly quoted, paraphrased, summarized, and facts and data, which are not common knowledge.

Endnotes

Since endnotes are simpler and more widely used, we are going to limit our attention to the use of endnotes. First, number all the notes consecutively throughout the entire paper, placing the note numbers at the end of the quoted, summarized, or paraphrased material. Use Arabic numerals, slightly raised, and placed them after the punctuation.

Examples:

Incorrect: "Terrorism could be eliminated if strict punishments were enforced I."

Correct: "Terrorism could be eliminated if strict punishments were enforced."¹

The second step is to place all endnotes in numerical order on a separate page, titled "Endnotes." The first line of each entry should begin at the margin and subsequent lines should be indented five spaces. The first line begins with the note number slightly raised. Leave one space between the number and the beginning of the note, double-spacing both the lines of the note and the lines in-between the notes.

The third step is the order in which the information for each note is listed. Cite the author's name in normal order (first name, middle initial, and last name) and then the title. The titles of books, plays, long poems, pamphlets, periodicals including magazines and newspapers, films, radio and television programs, ballets, operas, classical literature, and names of ships and aircraft are all underlined or italicized. The titles of articles, essays, short stories, songs, chapters of books, unpublished works, lectures, speeches, courses, and individual episodes of a radio or television program appear in quotation marks. If the author or the editor is not named, list the title first.

Next, cite the publisher's city, the publisher's name, and the most recent copyright date, enclosing the information in parenthesis. Finally, state the exact page or pages on which the information appears. Note: In cases where it is unclear, after the city, name the state.

Commas should separate the information in each note, except in the case of the publisher's city, state, and the publisher's name. (Example: "New York: Blairedom Books") A colon should appear between these two pieces of information and the entire note should be ended with a period.

In some cases, further information must be included to better specify the source. For books that have more than one edition or volume, cite the edition used (9th edition) or the volume number (Volume I). If there is not an author, instead cite the editor's name, placing the abbreviation "ed." after it. If there is no author or editor, cite the title of the work.

When making references to a source that has already been noted, simply state the note number, the author's last name and the page number. (Avoid using the abbreviation, Ibid.) The following are examples of endnoting:

U.S. MARINE CORPS. JROTC
Category 3—Personal Growth and Responsibility
Skill 4—Written and Oral Communication

First Full Reference:

¹ John Schmidt, Images of Light (New York: Hall Press, 1986), p. 6.

Later Reference to the Same Book:

⁶ Schmidt, p. 23.

Note: If two or more works of a certain author are being cited, also include the title when making the later references.

Two or Three Authors:

⁴ Marvin Pile, James Borlin, and Ramond Yard, Energy of the Future (Pittsburgh: Applebomb, 1984), p. 12.

More than Three Authors:

⁸ Joan P. Cooley et al., The Railroad Today (Dallas: Williamson Publishing Co., 1985), p. 10.

Edited Books:

¹ Donald Ford, ed., The Works of Dryden (Oxford: Tailore, 1983), p. 242.

Translated Books:

⁷ Voltaire, Candid, trans. Edward Tilly (Baltimore: Cane and Serth, 1983), p. 67.

Chapter or Part of a Book:

⁴ Rachel Ward, "Oriental Cooking," in Worldwide Cooking, (New York: Gross & Sones, 1979), p. 22.

Article in a Journal:

⁷ Howard Nelson, "The Romantic Revolt," Romanticism, Vol. 7 (1980), p. 218.

Magazine:

³ Jane Rather, "Southern Hospitality," Southern Life, July, 1982, p. 23-27.

Newspaper:

⁵ "Star Wars," Sentinel Daily, 24 July 1976, Sec. A, col. 4, p. 3.

Pamphlet:

⁸ U.S. Service Commission, Jobs Within the U.S. Government (Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1983), p. 97.

Interview:

¹¹ Personal Interview with Dr. Clara Barnes, Dr. of Physics, Univ. of California, 18 May 1984.

Remember, these endnotes should be double-spaced on the Endnote page.

Creating a Bibliography

A **bibliography** is an alphabetical list of all sources cited in a paper. Although the bibliography and endnotes are both located at the end of the research paper, they are different in form. Like the endnotes, a bibliography comprises three units: the name of the author, the title of the work, and the publication date. Periods rather than commas divide each section.

First, the author's name should be listed last name first. In cases where there is more than one author, only the first author's name is listed in reversed order. If no author or editor is listed, alphabetize according to the title. If you cite more than one work by the same author, use twelve dashes in place of the author's name instead of repeating the name.

Second, state the title of the work in the same manner that the title is noted in the endnotes. The title should be either underlined or in quotation marks according to the type of work it is. Third, list all publication data that was included in the endnote, deleting the parenthesis. Although your endnotes must include the specific page cited, the bibliography includes all page

references within the work. In cases when the whole work was used, no pagination is required.

The bibliography should be listed on a separate page after the endnote page(s). The first line of each entry should begin at the margin and subsequent lines should be indented five spaces, with the bibliography being double spaced in the same manner as the endnotes and captioned with the title, Bibliography. Below are a few examples of bibliographical entries:

Ebert, Howard. Fundamentals of Management.
New York: Jaffy Press, 1982, pp. 20-47, 120-130.

----- . Career Planning. New York: Pelican,
1985.

Hall, Gail, ed. Jobs Today. Cleveland: University
of Ohio Press, 1983, pp. 34-180.

Mallon, Richard, and Paul Young. "Careers in
Computers." Business, May, 1981, pp. 34-38.

If you have further questions concerning documentation, consult your school's English department.

Writing a Final Draft

You are now prepared for the final drafting of your research paper. Your final draft will contain at least five parts: the title page, the outline, the text, the endnotes, and the bibliography. The entire paper should be typed and double-spaced, leaving one-inch margins at the top, bottom, and sides of the paper, while pages within the text should be consecutively numbered beginning with the second page. Note that the title page, the outline, the first page of the text, the endnotes and the bibliography are not numbered.

The title page is the first page of the research paper. It should include the title of the paper, your name, the class for which it was written, the instructor of the class, and the date.

Research Paper Title
By Your Name
Class Instructor Date

The next part of the paper is the outline and it should be captioned Outline. The thesis statement should be at the top of the outline and should be followed by the body of the outline.

Outline
Thesis: _____ _____
I. A. B.
II. A. B.
III. A. B.
IV.

The paper's text comes after the outline. You will write some introductory text that will lead up to your thesis statement. The first page of the text is not numbered and the title is use as a heading. The title should be one inch from the top of the page with quadruple spacing between the title and the first line of text. Although the first page is not numbered, all subsequent pages should be numbered in the upper right-hand corner, one inch from the top and the side. Thus, the first numbered page will be page two. Quadruple space from the page number to the top of the text and be sure to include all note numbers within the text.

The endnote page follows the body of the text with the title Notes centered two inches from the top with quadruple spacing before the first note. The first page of endnotes should not be numbered, but all subsequent pages should be numbered in accordance with the rest of the text. For example, if the last page of the text is page 15, the first endnote page would not be numbered and the second would be numbered 17.

The bibliography follows the endnote page and is titled Bibliography, typed two inched from the top of the page. You should quadruple space between the title and the first source. Leave the first page of the bibliography unnumbered and number all subsequent bibliographic pages in accordance with the directions given for numbering endnotes.

Conclusion

An effective research paper is based on your ideas and supported by references, or source material. You must choose an appropriate topic and limit it in such a manner that it can be treated within the assigned number of pages. The development of a strong thesis statement and

outline will give you the ability to effectively develop your rough draft after taking accurate notes. Finally, endnotes and the bibliography will give credit to those authors whose materials you used to support your paper, thus eliminating the possibility of plagiarism. All the parts of a formal research paper, when put together, will ensure a well-organized, well-received project. ❖

Resume

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces you to the basic steps in writing a resume. As you start to pursue your career goals, whether in the Marine Corps, college, or the job market, you will need to know how to write a clear and concise resume.

Introduction

What is a resume? A resume is a brief summary of your abilities, education, experience, and skills. A resume acts as a door opener and allows an employer to assess your qualifications in the prescreening process. A resume has one purpose: to get you a job interview. How you present yourself in your resume will greatly influence your chances of getting a job interview.

Employers or personnel officers may look through hundreds of resumes and may spend only a few seconds reviewing each one. To have your resume noticed, you must quickly convey that you are capable and competent enough to be worth interviewing. This can be accomplished by using key words and phrases in your resume that will help those reviewing it form a mental picture of you and your activities. Employers need to assess your skills based on your past accomplishments. The more thoroughly you prepare your resume now, the more likely someone is to read it later.

What Is In a Resume?

Resume writing is critical in controlling the image you present to employers. The following is a basic outline of sections that should be included in all resumes.



Identification Section

This section includes your name, address, area code, and telephone number as well as an e-mail address, if available. Your name should appear in slightly larger print. Use formal names and never abbreviate on a resume. Consider presenting your permanent address in addition to your local address only when it is to your advantage. If you include the **URL** for your Web pages, make sure the pages are in professional, business-like condition. No other personal information is required.

Job Objective

The first step to writing a good resume is to define your objective. State your goal or objective in terms of what you can do for an employer, not what you want an employer to do

for you. Avoid expressions such as "...where I can use my knowledge and skills to expand my expertise in...." A good objective will tell an employer what the rest of your resume is going to say. Some sample objectives follow:

- A summer internship in sales or assistant department management.
- A position in marketing or business development in a growth company specializing in high technology.

You will notice that the objectives presented above do not include **superfluous** phrases like "a challenging position" or words like "exciting" or "dynamic." No one seeks a position that is not challenging or exciting. Stay away from **trite, banal**, or over-used words such as "people-oriented," "stimulating" environment, or "dynamic" company. All companies feel that they are dynamic, people-oriented, and offer challenging positions in a stimulating environment.

Education

The education section often comes first in student resumes, especially if it is a strong asset. Education usually means post-secondary school and can include special seminars, summer school, or night school as well as college and university. If you are just starting college, you can include high school as well. List the following items:

- Degrees and month/year obtained or expected
- Names and locations of schools
- Major and minor, if any
- Grade point average.
- A brief summary of important courses you have taken might also be helpful.



Experience

Experience includes full-time paid jobs, academic research projects, internships or co-op positions, part-time jobs, or volunteer work. List the month/years you worked, position, name and location of employer or place, and responsibilities you had. As you describe your experiences, ask yourself questions like these:

- Have I discovered, coordinated, organized, or directed anything professionally or for my community?
- Do I meet deadlines consistently?
- Am I a good communicator?
- Do I enjoy teamwork?

Skills

List all computer languages and software, research, laboratory, teaching or tutoring, communication, leadership, or athletic, experiences that show your skills to others. Draw upon your work experience, volunteer and/or extracurricular activities in terms of duration, scope, accomplishments, etc. If you lack relevant experience, emphasize those skills you have developed as a MCJROTC cadet in terms of **interpersonal**, organizational, and supervisory.

Activities/Services

List academic, professional, or community organizations in which you hold office or are currently a member; list professional and community activities, including volunteer work. Listing extra-curricular activities or hobbies is optional. Generally, list hobbies, travel, or languages only if they relate to your job interests. In some cases, you may wish to emphasize your willingness to travel or relocate.

Note:

A potential employer has **no legal right** to request information about age, sex, race, religion, marital status, health, physical appearance, or personal habits. Do not include such information on your resume.

Additional Tips

- Omit personal information such as age, or marital status. If you are applying to a job overseas where age, marital status, and nationality are required information, then add those details to the bottom of your resume.
- Do not include the word, “Resume,” at the top of page one or the date you prepared the document.
- Ensure that your name is at the top of all pages.
- Include the page number at the top of all pages other than page one.
- Use a dictionary and thesaurus to understand and express accurately your skills/abilities for the job, and the contributions you can make to the organization.

- Check your first draft for accuracy and completeness of information. Check your final copy for errors before printing.
- The more in-depth the material and your preparation, the more informative your resume will be to the prospective employer, and the easier it will be for you to answer subsequent interview questions.
- Keep all your notes from which you prepared your resume on file and periodically (yearly/twice yearly) add to them your recent activities, job, etc.. This will ensure that you will always have up-to-date data to generate future resumes.

Conclusion

This lesson was a basic introduction in writing a resume. As you grow in your career and pursue other jobs, your skills for writing a resume will grow. If you have kept your career development portfolio up to date as part of your MCJROTC training, much of the information needed for your resume will be in your portfolio. Throughout your career, you should continue to use the skills and techniques in portfolio management that you learned as an MCJROTC cadet.❖

Selective Service System

PURPOSE

The purpose of this lesson is to make you aware of the importance of registering with the Selective Service System when you turn 18 years of age. As a MCJROTC cadet, you should be able to know how, when, and where to register.

Introduction

For more than 50 years, Selective Service and the registration requirement for America's young men have served as a backup system to provide manpower to the U.S. Armed Forces.

President Franklin Roosevelt signed the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940, which created the country's first peacetime draft and formally established the Selective Service System as an independent Federal agency.



From 1948 until 1973, during both peacetime and periods of conflict, men were drafted to fill vacancies in the armed forces that could not be filled through voluntary means.

In 1973, the draft ended and the U.S. converted to an all volunteer military. The registration requirement was suspended in April 1975. President Carter resumed it again in 1980 in response to the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. Registration continues today as a hedge against underestimating the number of servicemen needed in a future crisis.



It is the legal obligation of young men to register with Selective Service when they turn 18 years of age. Failure to register can result in jail time, a fine, and other serious consequences. Not knowing about Selective Service registration is not a justifiable excuse under the law.

Who Must Register

The Military Selective Service Act states that male U.S. citizens, and male **aliens** residing in the U.S., who are between the ages of 18 and 26, must register in a manner prescribed by proclamation of the President. The proclamation under which registration is presently required was signed on July 2, 1980. It provides that young men must register with Selective Service within 30 days of their 18th birthday.

A man is exempt from registering while he is on full-time active duty in the U.S. Armed Forces. Cadets and **midshipmen** at service academies are included in the **exemption**. Members of the National Guard and Reserves not on full-time active duty must register unless they have reached age 26 or are already registered.

Lawfully admitted non-immigrant aliens (for example, those on visitor or student visas and members of diplomatic or trade missions and their families) are not required to register. Parolees and refugees who are aliens residing in this country must register.



Millionth Man To Register Gets Congressional Welcome

Washington, July 11, 2001—Almost exactly one month from the minute David Edmond Lucitt of Haymarket, Va., used his home computer to register on-line with the Selective Service System (SSS), he was standing in front of the U.S. Capitol being honored by members of the Congress. On June 11, 2001, the 18-year-old home-schooled Eagle Scout candidate became the millionth man to register with SSS via the Internet. The Agency had inaugurated the on-line registration program in December 1998, and the number of men choosing to register by computer has grown steadily since, with more than 52,000 men registering by that method in June. Lucitt seemed nearly overwhelmed by the attention he was receiving, simply for doing what every man has to do when he reaches age 18.

Those who are unable to register on schedule due to circumstances beyond their control – for example, those that are hospitalized, **institutionalized**, or **incarcerated** – do not have to register until they are released. After release, they have 30 days in which to register. Handicapped men who live at home must register if they are reasonably able to leave the house and go into a public place. A friend or relative may help a handicapped man to fill out the form if he is unable to do so by himself.

The fact that a man is required to register does not mean that he is certain to be drafted. If Congress should authorize a draft, a registrant within the group subject to induction would have his eligibility for service determined based on his individual situation at that time.

Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs) about Selective Service Registration

Q. What is Selective Service?

A. The Selective Service System is a government agency. Its job is to provide men for service in the Armed Forces if there is a national emergency.

Q. What is Selective Service registration?

A. When you register, you add your name to a list of all men in the nation, ages 18 to 25. The Selective Service would use this list to identify men for possible military service in a national emergency.

Q. Do females have to register?

A. No, by law they do not.



Q. What happens if there is a draft?

A. There has not been a draft since 1973, but if there was an emergency, and Congress ordered another draft, Selective Service would conduct a birth date lottery to decide the order in which to

call men. The Selective Service would first call men who turn 20 in the calendar year in a sequence determined by the lottery. If the military needed more, the Selective Service might then call those men who are 21 to 25, youngest first.

Q. Do I have to register?

A. Yes, it is the law. If you do not register and the government prosecutes you, it could send you to jail for up to five years and/or fine you up to \$250,000. Not registering hurts you in other ways, too. You would not qualify for federal student grants or loans, job training benefits, or most federal employment.

Q. Is registration hard?

A. No, it is simple. Just go to any post office and ask for a Selective Service registration card. Fill in your name, address, telephone number, date of birth, and Social Security number. Then, give the card to the postal clerk. The clerk will ask to see some identification so bring your driver's license or some other piece of identification. It takes only about five minutes.

Q. Do I have to register at a post office?

A. Maybe not. You may receive a registration card in the mail, or you can obtain a card from your local recreation or social service center. If so, just fill it out and mail it to Selective Service. Check with your JROTC instructors; they may be able to register you over the Internet. Finally, check with your school's guidance office; you may be able to register there.

Q. When should I register?

A. Register within 30 days of your eighteenth birthday. If you are applying for federal student aid or job training, you can register up to 120 days before you turn 18 to avoid delays. If you cannot register on time because you are in a hospital or prison, you do not have to register until you are released. Then, you have 30 days in which to register.

Q. What if it's more than 30 days after I've turned 18 and I haven't registered?

A. Register at a post office immediately. Selective Service will accept a late registration, but the longer you wait, the longer you are breaking the law.

Q. Do all men have to register?

A. To make the system fair, the law requires all 18-year-old men to register. The only young men exempt from registration are foreigners who are in the U.S. temporarily as tourists, diplomats, or students; personnel on active duty in the Armed Forces; and students at U.S. service academies. Immigrant non-citizen males, 18 to 25 must register.

Q. How do I prove I registered?

A. After you register, Selective Service will mail you a card. Keep it as proof that you have registered. You may need it if you apply for federal employment, federal student aid, or job training. If you do not get your card within 90 days of registering, write to: Registration Information Office, P.O. Box 94638, and Palatine, IL 60094-4638. Or, call 1-847-688-6888.

Q. What if I change my address?

A. Notify Selective Service of your new address on a Change of Information form. You can get one at any post office. Alternatively, you can use the Change of Address form that comes with your acknowledgment card. ❖



ASVAB Test

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces you to the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) and explains the importance of taking the test. As a MCJROTC cadet, you will be given the ASVAB, which consists of 10 short tests.

Introduction

Your decision to enter college, technical or vocational school, Marine Corps or the civilian world-of-work is an important one. To help you make this decision, you should take an aptitude test. The most popular test and one used by the Armed Services, is the **Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB)**. The **ASVAB** helps you identify your different abilities so you can make good decisions on your career goals.



What is Aptitude?

Aptitude can be defined as capabilities you have developed that indicate your readiness to become **proficient** in a certain type of activity (given the opportunity.) This may refer to your capacity to learn a particular type of work, or to your potential for general training. The ASVAB measures aptitudes that are related to success in different jobs.

What is the ASVAB?

The ASVAB is actually a multi-aptitude test battery known as the Career Exploration Program. About 900,000 students use it each year in more than 14,000 schools nationwide. It is maintained by the Department of Defense. The ASVAB consists of 10 short tests consisting of 334 questions and 144 minutes to answer them. The 10 test areas are:

- *Word Knowledge:* A 35-item test measuring ability to select the correct meaning of words presented in context and to identify the best **synonym** for a given word.
- *Paragraph Comprehension:* A 15-item test measuring ability to obtain information from written passages.
- *Arithmetic Reasoning:* A 30-item test measuring ability to solve arithmetic “word” problems.
- *Mathematics Knowledge:* A 25-item test measuring knowledge of algebra and *geometry*.
- *General Science:* A 25-item test measuring knowledge of the physical and biological sciences.

- *Auto and Shop Information:* A 25-item test measuring knowledge of automobiles, *terminology* tools, and shop practices.
- *Mechanical Comprehension:* A 25-item test measuring knowledge of mechanical and physical principles and ability to visualize how illustrated objects work.
- *Electronics Information:* A 20-item *test* measuring knowledge of electricity, radio principles, and electronics.
- *Numerical Operations:* A 50-item test measuring ability to perform simple *mathematical* computations quickly.
- *Coding Speed:* An 84-item test measuring ability to quickly and accurately use a key in assigning code numbers to words.

Not only do you receive scores on each of these individual tests, you also receive **composite** scores. Composite scores combine individual tests to yield Verbal, Math, and Academic Ability scores. Each ASVAB test area is timed, and the whole test takes about three hours.

NUMBER OF ITEMS AND TESTING TIME FOR THE ASVAB		
Subtest	Number of Questions	Time (min.)
General Science	25	11
Arithmetic Reasoning	11	36
Word Knowledge	35	11
Paragraph Comprehension	15	13
Numerical Operations	50	3
Coding Speed	84	7
Auto and Shop Information	25	11
Mathematics Knowledge	25	24
Mechanical Comprehension	25	19
Electronics Information	20	9
Total	334 Items	144 Minutes

Purpose of the ASVAB

- As a military recruiting tool that the U.S. Department of Defense uses to test, potential recruits to determine their developed abilities (that is, to gauge what they already know about certain subjects); to measure their general learning ability and vocational aptitude; and to predict performance in certain academic areas.
- As a guide for high school and post-secondary school students, to help them decide on the career paths for which they might best be suited, whether in the military or in some other field.

Preparing for the ASVAB

Special preparation is not required to take the ASVAB. Getting a good night's rest and arriving on time to take the test are the two most important steps you can take to prepare.

Taking the ASVAB

- Read the question carefully
- Recall the correct answer
- Read every option -- Remember you are usually looking for the BEST answer.
- Compare each option to what you know is the right answer
- Do not change answers unless they are obviously wrong

Your ASVAB Score

No one "passes" or "fails" the ASVAB. It is an aptitude test and measures a person's potential in a given field based on what the person already knows. To be considered for enlistment, you do need to score at least a 31. However, the score is only used to determine career path and enlistment incentives. The ASVAB allows you to compare your scores to other students at your grade level. Your scores will not affect your school grades.

Who Will See your ASVAB Results?

Beside yourself, your counselor receives a copy of your results. Your counselor can explain your test results if you need help. Before you take the ASVAB, you will be asked to sign a statement authorizing the Department of Defense to score your test and return your results to your school. Each school determines if it will release your scores to the military services. If you are a junior, a senior or a postsecondary school student, a recruiter might contact you. This can occur whether or not you take the ASVAB.

DID YOU KNOW

The ASVAB does not obligate you to the military in any way and there is no relationship between taking it and Selective Service registration.

Conclusion

The ASVAB is a tool you can use to gauge your capacity to learn a particular type of work, or gauge your potential in general. The ten short tests cover many vocations and will help you identify your different abilities so you can make good decisions for your career. No matter if you are continuing your education at college, in joining the Marine Corps, or entering the workforce, you can use your ASVAB results, along with other personal information, to identify areas for career exploration. It is important to remember that your interests, achievement scores, grades, values, and levels of motivation all play a large role in your career exploration and planning effort. Ideally, that exploration and planning will help you to make decisions that will get you ready for your first career. ❖

Personnel Inspections

PURPOSE

This lesson provides the procedures to accomplish personnel inspections. As senior cadets, you will play a vital role in maintaining the appearance and efficiency of your unit.



Introduction

As a senior cadet, one of your primary duties is to instruct junior cadets in drill procedures and ceremonies. Now, you will learn about another duty related to drill -- personnel inspections. Having your uniform and equipment inspected by your superiors is certainly a familiar experience to you by now. However, as you learned with drill, it is time to switch roles. While you will still be inspected as before, you will now have the responsibility of inspecting other cadets.

The first several sections of this lesson outline the procedure for conducting inspections.

Remember that the goal of inspections is to maintain high standards of neatness, cleanliness, and proper wearing of the uniform, for both yourself and your fellow cadets. The overall appearance, morale, and efficiency of your unit will depend on whether or not you require your subordinates to follow regulations and hold them to the standards.

In order to conduct personnel inspections, you must also be able to identify standard uniform items and the regulations and procedures governing these items. Therefore, this lesson also provides information on standard uniform items, wear, and care.

Inspections

According to Webster's dictionary, **inspections** are "the checking or testing of individuals against established standards." Inspections play a vital role in maintaining the appearance and efficiency of all MCJROTC units. Along with preparing for inspections, senior cadets must know how to conduct them. Inspections are excellent occasions to discover discrepancies. Through inspections, you can correct small problems before they become major problems and ensure your cadets are always prepared. Attention to detail in this area will keep you and your unit at its peak.

Characteristics of Inspections

There are four characteristics of an inspection:

1. *The inspection is efficient with respect to time.* Allot an amount of time to inspect each cadet or item of equipment. Example: There are 39

cadets in the platoon (3 squads, 13 cadets each) and you have one hour to conduct the inspection. In order to inspect efficiently, you spend no more than 1 minute 32 seconds per cadet, which includes movement time. You are not going to use a stopwatch in your inspections, but you spend about the same amount of time inspecting each cadet.

2. *The inspection is in detail.* A quick inspection may encourage poor preparation leading to unsatisfactory results or performance. Therefore, you must completely inspect in detail.
 3. *There is no wasted motion.* No time can be lost in the inspection of cadets. You should check each cadet carefully during inspection. Systematic movements ensure that there is no wasted motion.
 4. *The routine of the inspection is consistent.* Adopt a system for inspecting a cadet, weapon, or item of equipment, and stick to it. Develop a detailed checklist to ensure that your inspection is consistent. This will help you to inspect in a manner which is easy for you to remember and will help ensure a rapid, detailed inspection.
2. *Clothing.* Direct that laundry, dry cleaning, and shoe repair be completed before the inspection.
 3. *Bulky Gear.* Ensure that the unit falls out with all pockets free of bulky gear.
 4. *Use your cadet chain of command.* The effectiveness of your unit depends the leadership at every level and with each individual cadet.
 - a. Fire team leaders supervise the preparation of their fire team. The squad leader should be able to tell you if there are any deficiencies within the squad. If neither the squad leader nor the fire team leader can do this, then they are not doing their jobs.
 - b. Every cadet must be informed of the time, place, type of inspection, uniform, and equipment required with enough time to permit complete preparation.
 - c. By close supervision of these preparations, leaders should ensure successful inspection results.
 5. *Preliminary Inspection.* If an individual outside your unit is conducting the inspection, you should conduct a preliminary inspection. Hold this inspection far enough in advance of the scheduled inspection so that you have time to correct any last-minute discrepancies. The proper supervision of preparations will minimize the amount of discrepancies in your preliminary inspections. On the day of the scheduled inspection, make sure you are prepared. Your appearance should be the most outstanding at the inspection. Anticipate questions that the inspector might ask. Have a pencil and paper available to take notes.

Preparation for Inspections

Preparation before an inspection is as important, if not more important, than the inspection itself. The following are factors to consider while planning and preparing for an inspection.

1. *Haircuts.* Make sure your cadets receive a haircut either one or two days before the inspection.

Guidance for Inspections

Inspecting Your Unit

Wear the same uniform as the cadets you are inspecting. Conduct yourself in a professional manner and ensure that your appearance exceeds the requirements you have placed on your cadets. Remember, as you inspect each cadet, each cadet is inspecting you.

You must know the time, place, type of inspection, uniform, and the equipment requirements.

When you hold your cadet leaders responsible to you for the appearance of their cadets, allow sufficient time before your inspection for the cadet leaders to conduct their own inspection and to correct any discrepancies.

You should be firm, fair, and consistent during your inspection. First, commend the effort your cadets put forth to meet the desired results, and then call attention to any discrepancies. The inspection that your unit receives from you should be the most detailed that the unit receives. Demand perfection from all cadets in your unit. The higher your standards are, the more the cadets will produce. Do not punish them because perfection was not met, but let each cadet know that you are aware of these deficiencies. However, watch for cadets repeating the same discrepancies.

When you make comments, look the individual in the eye, and keep your remarks impersonal and pertinent. Never ridicule or unnecessarily embarrass an individual.

Question your cadets on general MCJROTC knowledge, while inspecting them, to accustom them to answering questions while in ranks. It will also give you an indication of the effectiveness of the training program and the basic MCJROTC knowledge of your cadets.

1. Pay close attention to detail while inspecting, but do not become lost in detail. Be aware of uniformity.
2. There may be occasions when you will not have adequate time to inspect in detail. Plan your time so that each squad receives the same amount of attention. Ensure that every person is inspected as thoroughly as possible. When time is limited, check to see if discrepancies found in previous inspections were corrected.
3. Have your squad leaders precede you through the inspection so that they can see the discrepancies as they are noted.

Being Inspected

Everything should be ready 10 minutes before the inspecting officer arrives. You should make one final check to ensure that discrepancies noted in the preliminary inspection have been corrected.

When the inspecting party arrives, salute, if covered, and report your unit for inspection. Lead the inspecting officer through the inspection. Answer questions calmly, directly, and without any excuses. Do not reprimand your cadets during the inspection for discrepancies that the inspecting officer points out. From his point of view, they are your discrepancies.

Be alert for the inspecting officer's comments and take notes as he makes comments.

After the Inspection

After the inspection, hold a critique with your unit as soon as possible. Point out good and bad points. If the inspecting officer was pleased, be sure to pass the praise on to your cadets.

For the inspection to serve its purpose, you must follow up on the discrepancies that were

found. Take good notes during the inspection to help you in taking corrective action. Schedule a reinspection for those cadets who did not meet the inspection requirements. Make sure all cadets correct every discrepancy.

After-inspection reports should include the following:

- Inspection discrepancies, possibly by name.
- Corrective action taken.
- Reinspection schedule.

Inspection of Personnel Techniques

When inspecting your cadets, inspect every aspect of their uniforms and personal appearance with one movement; e.g., start at the head and work down to the feet, or vice versa. You should not have to return to a specific area of the body or uniform to inspect an item that you previously missed. Some of the things you should look for are as follows:

- Check to see if the uniform is neat, clean, pressed, and worn correctly according to uniform regulations.
- Check to see if clothing items are in good repair: no frayed edges, holes, and tears. Check the soles and heels of boots or shoes for serviceability.
- Check to see if all brass and leather items are properly shined. Pockets of the uniform should not be bulging with bulky items.
- Check to see if the necktie is tied properly, covering the top button of the shirt, and fills the space between the collars. The tie clasp should be placed midway between the third and fourth buttons of the shirt.

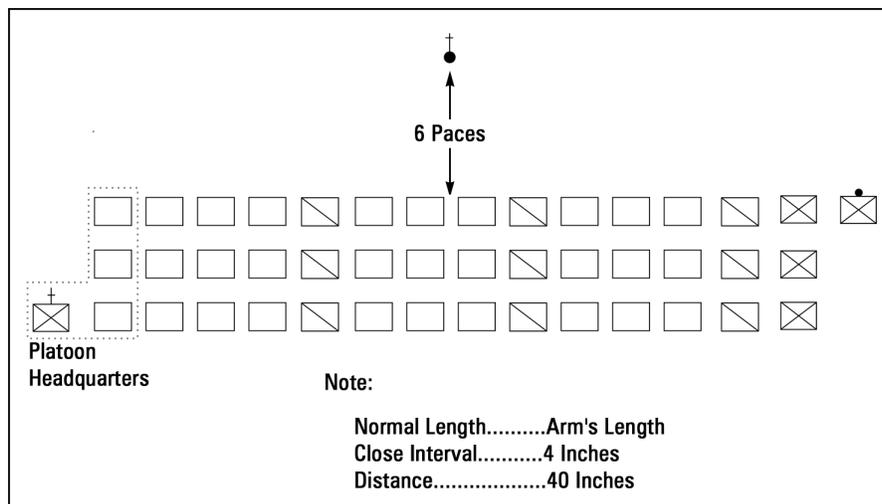
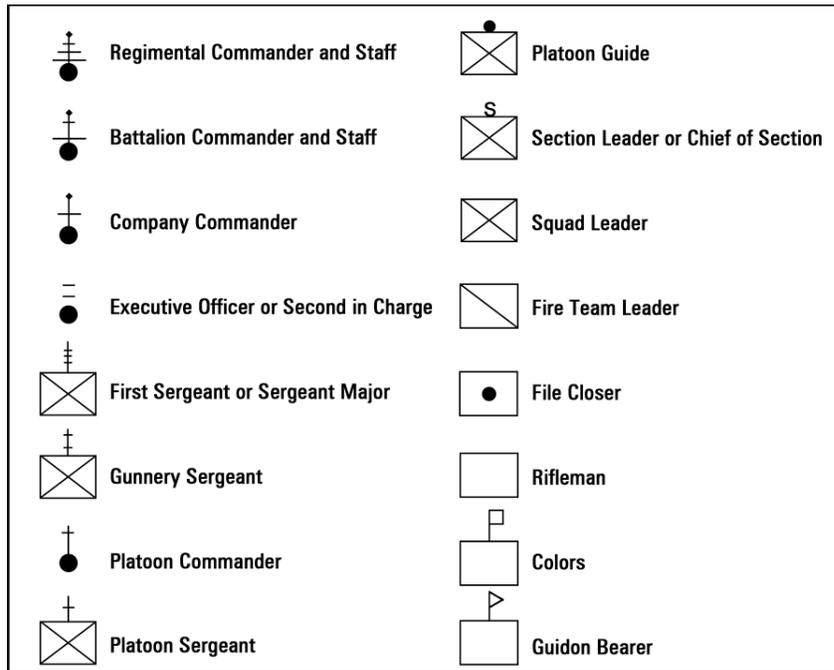
- Check to see if rank and branch of service insignias are worn properly. The cadet should be wearing authorized badges and ribbons in the proper sequence, without frays, and with devices properly attached. Cloth insignia should be sewn on the uniform correctly. Metal and plastic ornaments and buttons should be the correct color. Ensure that the collar emblems and the cover emblem are pointing in the correct direction. The eagles on the buttons of the service blouse should be parallel to the deck.
- Check the cadet's personal hygiene; e.g., start at the head and check for a proper haircut, and work you way down to his/her fingernails to see if they are clean. If necessary, have the cadet remove his cover so you can check the haircut.

Every cadet should be able to answer basic questions about MCJROTC. Cadets who are being inspected should have an impeccable appearance and display pride in themselves and their uniform.

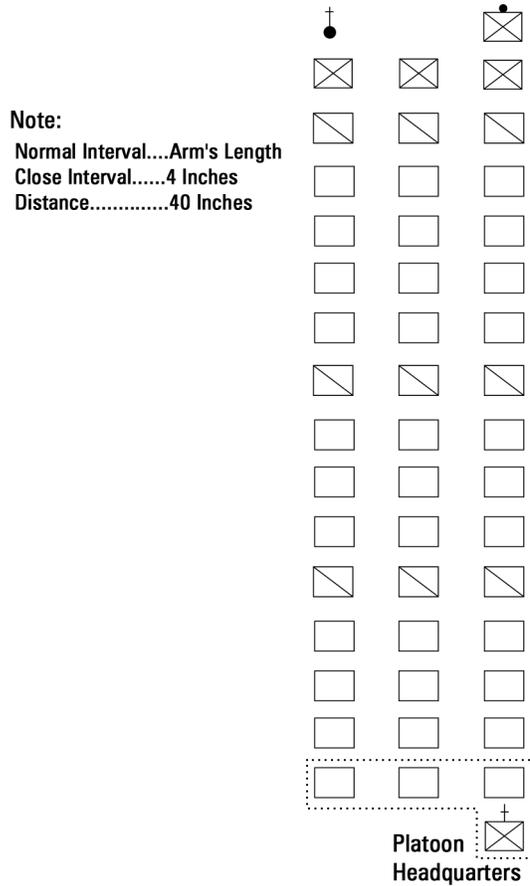
Inspection Procedures in Ranks

The procedure for conducting inspections in formation is fairly structured and defined. The basic unit for inspections is the company. Battalion, regimental, and higher commanders, or inspecting officers, may inspect each company in its own area, or have it march to a specified area for inspection. Under special circumstances, an entire battalion or regiment may be inspected in one large formation. An inspection may also be conducted in connection with a review. In this lesson, procedures for preparing the unit for inspection, as well as carrying out inspections, are presented.

U.S. MARINE CORPS. MCJROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 3 – Uniforms, Clothing, and Equipment



Platoon in Line at Normal Interval



Platoon in Column at Normal Interval

Forming the Platoon

The first step in preparing the company for inspection is to form the platoons of the company. Either the platoon commander or the platoon sergeant may do this. In general, the platoon forms in line at normal interval and distance between files and ranks on the command, *FALL IN*. To form at close interval, the command is, *At Close Interval, FALL IN*. In this case, the platoon forms with normal distance between ranks, but with close interval (4 inches) between files.

Forming the Platoon by the Platoon Sergeant

The platoon sergeant takes post three paces in front of the point where the center of the platoon will be, faces that point, draws sword (if so armed), and commands, *FALL IN (At Close Interval, FALL IN)*. At this command:

1. The guide takes the post so that the first rank, when aligned on the guide will be centered on and three paces from the platoon sergeant.
2. The squad leader of the first squad falls in at normal (close) interval to the left of the guide.

3. Other squad leaders fall in directly behind the squad leader of the first squad with 40 inches distance between them.
4. The members of the squads fall in on their squad leaders at normal (close) interval as prescribed in squad drill, except that exact interval is taken only by the first squad (front rank).
5. Cadets in the rear squads (rear ranks) take approximate interval only to cover the corresponding member of the front rank.
6. All cadets fall in at attention and, if armed with the rifle, at the position of order arms.

When a report is appropriate, after all cadets are formed, the platoon sergeant commands, *REPORT*. Remaining in position (at order arms, if armed with the rifle), the squad leaders, in succession from front to rear, salute and report, “*All present,*” or “*Cadet _____ absent.*” The platoon sergeant then commands, *Inspection, ARMS; Port, ARMS; Order, ARMS*, if cadets are armed with the rifle.

If the platoon commander does not receive the platoon, the platoon sergeant takes three paces forward and assumes the post and duties of the platoon commander.

When the platoon commander is present, the platoon sergeant faces the front after receiving the reports of the squad leaders and/or causing the platoon to execute inspection arms.

When the platoon commander has taken post six paces front and center of the platoon (remaining with sword in scabbard, if so armed):

1. The platoon sergeant salutes and reports, “*Sir, all present and accounted for,*” or “*Sir, _____ cadets absent.*”
2. The platoon commander returns the salute and may discuss absentees and issue necessary instructions to the platoon sergeant. Next, the

platoon commander directs the platoon sergeant to *TAKE YOUR POST*, at which the platoon sergeant marches by the most direct route to the post on the left of the rear rank.

3. The platoon commander then draws sword, if so armed.

Forming the Platoon by the Platoon Commander

When appropriate, the platoon may be formed by the platoon commander rather than the platoon sergeant. The procedures are the same except:

1. The platoon commander takes post six paces in front of the point where the center of the platoon will be, faces that point, draws sword and commands, *FALL IN (At Close Interval, FALL IN)*.
2. The platoon then forms on the platoon commander, the platoon sergeant falling in on the left of the rear rank with sword drawn, if so armed.
3. The platoon commander then receives the report of the squad leaders and causes the platoon to execute inspection arms, if cadets are armed with the rifle.

Aligning the Platoon

In line, the platoon is aligned in the same manner as a squad. The guide raises the left arm to obtain proper interval and looks to the front (to the left) and the squad leader of the first squad turns the head to the right (left) during alignment. Other squad leaders cover the first squad leader and look to the front during the alignment.

The platoon commander, on the command of execution, *DRESS*, faces half left, as in marching, and proceeds in the most direct route

until positioned on line with the front rank and one pace from the extreme right flank cadet.

When in position:

1. The commander executes a halt, facing to the rear, and then executes a right face facing down the line.
2. The platoon commander aligns the front rank by commanding those cadets in advance or rear of the line to move forward or backward until in line. These cadets are designated by name or number.
3. Those commanded to move will move the designated number of steps or will continue to move until receiving the command, *STEADY*. The platoon commander executes a series of short side steps to the right or left to identify a cadet. The commander must be in line with the rank when commanding a cadet to move.

When platoon commanders have verified the alignment of the first ranks of cadets:

1. They face to the left (right) in marching, and march straight to the front. They halt on line with each succeeding rank, execute right (left) face, and align on line with each succeeding rank, execute right (left) face, and align each squad.
2. When the guide is in ranks for right dress, the platoon commander will be two paces from the squad leaders of succeeding ranks.
3. After verifying the alignment of the rear rank, the platoon commander faces to the right (left) in marching, marches straight to a point three paces beyond the front rank, halts, faces to the left (right), and commands, *Ready, FRONT, COVER*.
4. Immediately after commanding *COVER*, the platoon commander marches by the most

direct route and takes post six paces front and center of the platoon.

When aligning a platoon of well-drilled cadets, or when there is insufficient time to verify alignment, the platoon commander may command, *Ready, FRONT; COVER* from the normal post without verifying alignment.

When marching in column, the platoon is aligned by the command, *COVER*. At that command:

1. The base squad leader obtains 40-inch distance from the guide.
2. Other squad leaders obtain proper interval from the base squad leader and align on that cadet.
3. Other cadets in the base squad execute the movement as in squad drill. At the same time, the remaining cadets of the platoon align on the base squad and cover their squad leaders.

Rules for the Guide

As the platoon forms and changes formation, the position and actions of the platoon guide are very important. Because of the guide's unique role, additional rules are necessary to define and describe the guide's relation to the platoon.

Unless otherwise announced, guide is right, and the guide takes post on the right. In line, the guide is posted to the right of the squad leader of the first squad. In column, the guide is posted in front of the squad leader of the third squad.

In column, when it is desired to guide left, the command *GUIDE LEFT* is given. At this command:

1. The guide and the platoon commander exchange positions.

2. The guide crosses between the platoon commander and the platoon.
3. To return the guide to normal position, *GUIDE RIGHT* is commanded.
4. The guide and platoon commander return to their normal positions with the guide again passing between the platoon commander and the platoon. This movement may be made at a halt or in march. The base squad or base file is the one behind the guide. The guide does not change position at the command, *Dress (Right), DRESS*.

When a platoon in line is given the command, *Right, FACE*:

1. The platoon guide executes right face with the platoon.
2. The guide immediately faces to the right in marching and marches to a position in front of the right squad leader, halts, and executes left face.
3. If a platoon is given *Left, FACE*, the guide executes left face with the platoon, but does not change position within the platoon.

When a platoon in column is given the command, *Column of Files from the Left, MARCH*, the guide, on the preparatory command, takes position in front of the left squad leader to be at the head of the column.

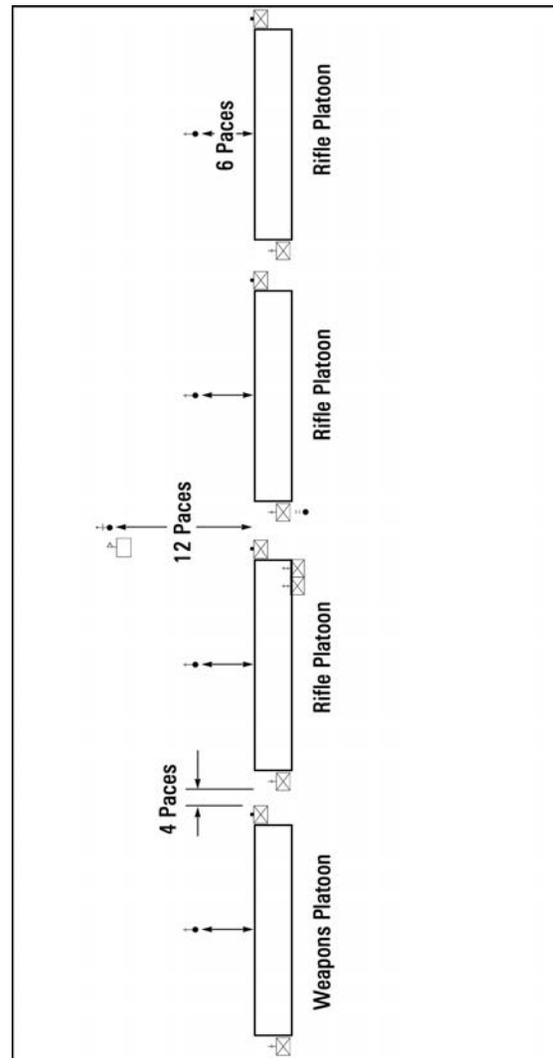
When a platoon in column is given the command, *Column Of Twos From The Left, MARCH*, the guide, on the preparatory command, takes position in front of the second file from the left so as to be at the head of the right file of the column. The guide does this by facing to the left as in marching and marches to a position in front of designated right squad leader, halts, and executes right face.

When reforming in a column of threes or fours from a file or column of twos, the guide

takes post in the normal position when the movement is completed.

The guide sets the direction and cadence of the march. The leading cadet in each file is responsible for interval.

When a platoon is marching in column and the command to march by a flank or to the rear (*By The Right (Left) Flank, MARCH* or *To The Rear, MARCH*) is given, the guide executes the movement with the platoon, but does not change position with the platoon. The guide does not count off.



Forming the Company

As noted earlier, the company is the basic unit for inspections. Forming the company requires that each of its component platoons be proficient in the procedures listed above for forming up. At the command, *FALL IN*, the company forms in line formation at normal interval and distance. If it is desired to form the company at close interval between files, the command, *At Close Interval, FALL IN* is given. In this case, the platoons are at close interval (four inches). Close interval is only used for roll calls or when space is limited. The company may be formed by its noncommissioned officers under charge of the first sergeant, or by its officers under command of the company commander.

Forming the Company by Noncommissioned Officers

The first sergeant takes post nine paces in front of the point where the center of the company is to be, faces that point, draws sword (if so armed), and commands, *FALL IN (At Close Interval, FALL IN)*. At this command:

The guidon bearer takes post facing the front one pace to the front and one pace to the right of the first sergeant (the first sergeant facing the company). The company forms in line with platoons in line at normal (close) interval and four paces between platoons. Each platoon sergeant takes post three paces in front of and facing the point where the center of the platoon is to be, faces that point, and draws sword, if so armed. Each platoon then forms as prescribed above, under the supervision of the platoon sergeant.

Platoon sergeants then command, *REPORT*. Remaining in position (at order arms, if armed with the rifle), the squad leaders, in succession from front to rear in each platoon, salute and report, "*All present,*" or "*Cadet absent.*"

Platoon sergeants then command, *Inspection, ARMS; Port, ARMS; Order, ARMS*, if cadets are armed with rifles, then face about to the front. If cadets are not armed with rifles, the platoon sergeant immediately faces the front after receiving the reports of the squad leaders. (Note: If platoons cannot be formed in regularly organized squads prior to forming the company, the platoon sergeants command, *Inspection, ARMS; Port, ARMS; Right Shoulder, ARMS*, and call the roll. The cadets answer, "*Here,*" and come to order arms as their names are called. The platoon sergeant then organizes the platoon into squads and faces the front. The manual of arms is omitted for personnel not armed with rifles.)

After all platoon sergeants have completed receiving the reports of their squad leaders and are facing the front, the first sergeant commands, *REPORT*, at which time the platoon sergeants, beginning with the right platoon, successively salute and report, "*All present,*" or "*cadets absent.*" The first sergeant returns each salute individually. What occurs next depends upon whether the company commander and platoon commanders receive the company or not.

If company officers do not receive the formation, after receiving the reports of all the platoon sergeants, the first sergeant commands *POST*. On this command, the platoon sergeants and guidon bearer step forward three steps; simultaneously, the first sergeant faces about and steps forward three steps. The company is now formed with the first sergeant and platoon sergeants occupying the posts prescribed for the company commander and platoon commanders.

If company officers receive the formation, the company commander and platoon commanders normally observe the initial procedures from a location to the rear of where the company is forming (officers remain with swords in their scabbards, if so armed). In this

case, after receiving the reports of the platoon sergeants, the first sergeant faces the front and awaits the arrival of the company commander.

When the company commander has taken post 12 paces front and center of the company:

1. The first sergeant salutes and reports, “*Sir, all present and accounted for,*” or “*Sir, _____cadets absent.*”
2. The company commander returns the salute, and may discuss absentees and issue necessary instructions to the first sergeant.
3. Next, the company commander directs the first sergeant to *TAKE YOUR POST*, at which the guidon bearer marches forward three paces; and, the first sergeant and platoon sergeants march by the most direct routes to their posts, the former in rear of the company, the latter on the left of the rear rank of their platoons. Simultaneously, the company executive officer takes post to the rear of the company and the platoon commanders take their posts six paces front and center of their platoons.
4. After all officers are in position, if armed with the sword, the company commander draws sword; the company executive officer and platoon commanders draw sword with the company commander.

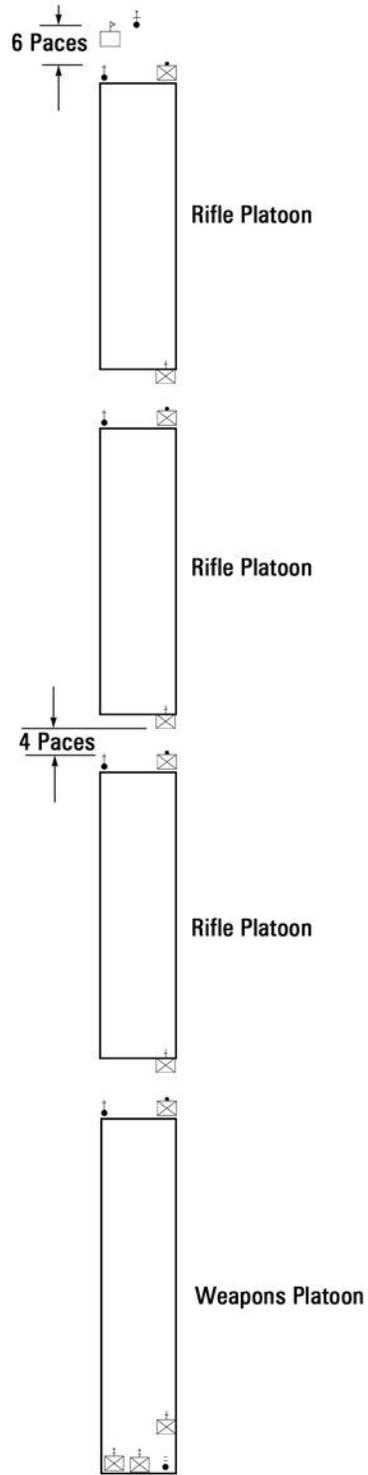
Forming the Company by Officers

Normally, the company is initially formed by the noncommissioned officers, and then received by the officers. This permits detailed musters to be taken by the noncommissioned officers. During the course of training, if the company has been dismissed for a short period, it may be initially reformed by the company commander to save time.

When the company is initially formed by the company commander, the procedures are the same as forming with the noncommissioned officers, except that the company commander takes post 12 paces front and center and facing the point where the center of the company is to be, draws sword (if so armed), and commands, *FALL IN*. At this command:

1. Platoon commanders take posts six paces front and center
2. Facing the point where the center of their platoons will be, they draw sword (if so armed), form their platoons and receive the reports of their squad leaders, then face the front.
3. After all platoon commanders have formed their platoons and are facing the front, the company commander commands, *REPORT*. Each platoon commander, in succession from right to left, salutes and reports, “*Sir, all present and accounted for,*” or “*Sir, _____cadets absent.*”

U.S. MARINE CORPS. MCJROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 3 – Uniforms, Clothing, and Equipment



Changing from Line to Column in Formation

Sometimes it is necessary or desirable for the company to change from a line to column formation. Being at a halt and at the order in line, to form column, the company commander orders, *Right, FACE*. After facing to the right, all officers, key noncommissioned officers, and the guidon bearer march by the most direct routes to their posts in column. The company commander may then cause the column to march (Note: As platoons and squads become inverted if the company is faced to the left, this should be done only for short movements.)

Being at a halt and at the order in column, to form line, the company commander commands, *Left, FACE*. After facing to the left, all officers, key noncommissioned officers, and the guidon bearer march by the most direct routes to their posts in line. (Note: When in column, if the company is faced to the right, platoons and squads become inverted. Therefore, to form line facing the right flank of a column, the company should first be marched by executing necessary changes in direction so that, after halting and facing to the left, line will be formed facing the desired direction.)

Aligning the Company

Just as platoons are aligned after they are formed up, the company is likewise aligned. In fact, aligning the company involves the successive alignment of its component platoons.

To align the company when in line at a halt, the company commander commands, *DRESS RIGHT (CENTER, LEFT)*. At the command, *DRESS RIGHT*:

1. The platoon commander of the base platoon aligns the platoon immediately by the

commands; *Dress Right, DRESS; Ready FRONT; COVER*.

2. After the platoon commander of the base platoon gives the command to align the platoon, the remaining platoon commanders will align their platoons in successive order.

When *Dress Center* is given:

1. The commander of the center platoon, which is the base platoon for this movement, aligns the platoon to the center of the company. The base platoon for this movement is the second platoon in both three and four platoon companies.
2. After the base platoon commander has aligned the platoon, the remaining platoon commanders will align their respective platoons on the base platoon by executing *Dress Right (Left), Ready FRONT, and COVER*.

To align the company when in mass formation at a halt, the company commander commands, *At Close Interval, Dress Right (Left), DRESS; Ready, FRONT; COVER*. At the command, *DRESS*, the alignment of each rank is verified promptly by the platoon commander of the base platoon. When the platoon commander resumes the post, the company commander commands, *Ready, FRONT; COVER*.

To align the company when in column, the command is *COVER*. At that command, the second and following platoons obtain the proper four-pace distances between platoons and cover on the files of the leading platoon. Each platoon aligns internally as described above.

To align the company when in column of platoons in line at halt, the company commander commands, *DRESS RIGHT*. At this command:

1. The leading platoon, which is the base platoon, is immediately aligned by its commander who commands, *Dress Right,*

DRESS; Ready, FRONT; COVER. After the platoon commander of the base platoon has given the command to align the platoon, the remaining platoon commanders in succession from front to rear give the command to align their platoons.

2. Platoon commanders follow the procedures prescribed for aligning platoons, and ensure that the guides are covered on the guide of the leading platoon.

Inspection Procedures

General Procedures

Once the company is formed in either line or column and aligned, an inspection can be conducted. When ready to inspect, the company commander commands, *PREPARE FOR INSPECTION.* At this command:

1. The platoon commanders open ranks by platoons.
2. The right platoon executes the initial movement.
3. The second platoon opens ranks when the front rank of the first platoon has been aligned.
4. The third and subsequent platoons do not begin to open ranks until the front squad of the platoon to their right has been aligned.
5. All platoon commanders align their squads on the corresponding squad of the platoon to their right.
6. When the formation is a column of platoons in line, platoon commanders open ranks successively from front to rear without awaiting the alignment of the platoon to their front. They cause their units to cover the corresponding files to their front.

7. In opening ranks and aligning their platoons, platoon commanders comply with the procedures prescribed for platoon drill.

After verifying the alignment of the rear rank, each platoon commander faces to the right in marching, moves three paces beyond the front rank, faces the left, and commands, *Ready, FRONT; COVER.* After giving the command, *COVER,* each platoon commander takes one step forward and faces to the front, thereby being in a position three paces in front of the right file of the front rank of their respective platoon. It is at this post that the platoon commander receives the inspecting officer.

When all ranks have been opened, the company commander commands, *AT EASE.* The commander then inspects the company. During the inspection, officers, noncommissioned officers, and guidon bearers not in ranks come to attention at order arms as the company commander approaches. After being inspected, they resume at ease. The company commander may direct the first sergeant to take notes. The inspection begins at the head of the column or the right of the line. The company commander inspects the arms, equipment, dress, and appearance of the cadets. As they approach each platoon, the platoon commander brings the unit to attention and salutes. After being personally inspected, the platoon commander returns sword (if so armed) and takes position on the right of the company commander. They precede the company commander during the entire inspection, down the front and rear of each squad. The company commander may direct that squads having been, or not yet, inspected be given at ease while the others are inspected. In this case, the platoon commander complies and brings them to attention for inspection at the proper time.

The inspection is conducted from right to left in the front, and from left to right in the rear

of each rank. After inspecting the platoon commander, the company commander moves around the platoon commander's left to a position in front of the right flank cadet in the first rank. The company commander moves from cadet to cadet by stepping off to the right in marching, halting, and executing a left face. The platoon commander must move in the same manner so as not to be in the company commander's way.

Each cadet executes the movements to inspection arms for the weapons immediately after the company commander has completed the left face movement and is facing them.

The company commander takes all individual weapons from the individual being inspected. They take the rifle by grasping the handguard with the right hand. The cadet whose rifle is being inspected immediately drops both hands to the sides. After inspecting the weapon, the company commander hands it back with the right hand in the same position. The cadet smartly takes the weapon by grasping the center of the handguard just forward of the sling with the left hand, closes the bolt, pulls the trigger, and returns the weapon to order arms. The company commander takes and returns other weapons in the most convenient manner. A detailed inspection will include bayonets and other equipment carried.

Bayonets will be inspected when the company commander is in the rear of the rank. The company commander will take and replace them without assistance from the cadet being inspected. The cadet will merely raise the left arm when the company commander takes and replaces the bayonet.

Upon completion of the inspection of the platoon, the platoon commander, having led the company commander down the rear of the last squad, executes column left and halts when three paces beyond the right flank cadet of the first

rank. The platoon commander faces left, calls the entire platoon to attention, and then resumes the normal post. The company commander passes to the right, faces to the left in marching, halts, and executes a left face. They then give the platoon commander any instructions necessary. The platoon and company commanders exchange salutes and the latter proceeds to the next platoon.

Upon completion of the inspection of each platoon, its commander faces left and orders, *Close Ranks, MARCH*. At the command *MARCH*, the platoon commander moves by the most direct route and takes post six paces in front of the center of the platoon.

The company commander may direct the platoon commanders to make the detailed inspection by the following order, Platoon Commanders, *INSPECT YOUR PLATOONS*. In this case, each platoon commander complies. Platoon sergeants may accompany the company commander for taking notes. The company commander will normally spot check individuals while platoon commanders are inspecting their platoons. In this case, cadets at ease will automatically come to attention upon their approach, and to inspection arms if the commander stops in front of them, regardless of whether they have been previously inspected.

Inspecting Officer Other Than Company Commander

Should the inspecting officer be other than the company commander, the latter will face the original front of the company after commanding, *AT EASE*. Upon the approach of the inspecting officer, the inspection proceeds as previously explained. The company commander follows the inspecting officer.

Dismissals

Dismissing the Company

Following inspection, the company may be dismissed. The commands are *First Sergeant, DISMISS THE COMPANY*. The company being in line at a halt, at the command, *First Sergeant*:

1. The first sergeant moves by the most direct route to a point three paces from the company commander (nine paces in front of the center of the company), halts, and salutes.
2. The company commander returns the salute and commands, *DISMISS THE COMPANY*.
3. The first sergeant salutes; the company commander returns the salute, returns sword (if so armed), and falls out at the same time. The platoon sergeants take their posts three paces in front of the centers of their platoons.
4. The first sergeant, when the company commander returns the salute, executes about face.
5. When the platoon sergeants have taken their positions, the first sergeant commands, *Inspection, ARMS; Port, ARMS; DISMISSED*.

For the company being in line at a halt, dismissal may also be ordered by the command, *DISMISS YOUR PLATOONS*. At this command:

1. The platoon commanders salute; the company commander returns the salute and falls out.
2. The platoon commanders execute about face and command, Platoon Sergeant, *DISMISS THE PLATOON*.
3. The platoon sergeant takes post three paces in front of the center of the platoon and executes the commands as prescribed for the first sergeant when dismissing the company.

The first sergeant may cause platoons to be dismissed by the platoon sergeants by commanding, *DISMISS YOUR PLATOONS*. At this command:

1. The platoon sergeants salute; the first sergeant returns the salute and falls out.
2. The platoon sergeants then execute about face and dismiss their platoons as prescribed below.

Dismissing the Platoon

The platoon is dismissed only from a line with cadets at attention. Armed troops are dismissed with the commands, *Inspection, ARMS; Port, ARMS; DISMISSED*. Unarmed troops are dismissed with the command *DISMISSED*. The platoon sergeant usually dismisses the platoon.

Standard Uniforms Items

The current edition of MCO P1020.34F, Marine Corps Uniform Regulation, will regulate the manner in which uniform clothing and accessories will be worn by cadets. Standard uniform items include:

- Dress uniforms and accessories
- Service uniforms and accessories
- Utility uniforms and accessories
- Physical training uniforms

The uniform charts below list uniforms and appropriate accessories.

U.S. MARINE CORPS. MCJROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 3 – Uniforms, Clothing, and Equipment

TABLE 1 – TYPES AND COMBINATIONS OF UNIFORMS FOR MALE PERSONNEL

FIG. NO.	DESIGNATION	CAP	JACKET/ COAT	BELT (COAT)	SHIRT	TROUSERS	SHOES AND SOCKS	GLOVES	RAINCOAT OVERCOAT	INSIGNIA BOFS	BADGES	RIBBONS	SWORD
7	Blue Dress "B"	Dress	Blue	Blue White		Blue	Black	White (B)	Raincoat Overcoat (C) or (D)	Dress		Yes	(C)
8	Blue Dress "C"	Dress			Khaki (E)	Blue (A)	Black	(B)	Raincoat Overcoat (C) or (D)		Optional (C)	Optional (C)	(C)
11	Service "A"	Garrison (F)	Green	Green	Khaki (E)	Green (A)	Black	(B)	Raincoat Overcoat (C) or (D)	Service	Optional (C)	Yes	(C)
12	Service "B"	Garrison (F)			Khaki (E)	Green (A)	Black	(B)	Raincoat Overcoat (C) or (D)		Optional (C)	Optional (C)	(C)
13	Service "C"	Garrison (F)			Khaki w/ Otr Length Sleeve	Green (A)	Black	(B)	Raincoat Overcoat (C) or (D)		Optional (C)	Optional (C)	(C)

- (A) With web trouser belt and brass buckle.
 (B) Black leather gloves shall always be worn or carried with outer coat in winter months.
 (C) May be prescribed.

- (D) Dependent upon the condition of the weather.
 (E) With service necktie and necktie clasp.
 (F) Frame cap optional.

TABLE 2 – TYPES AND COMBINATIONS OF UNIFORMS AUTHORIZED FOR FEMALE PERSONNEL

FIG. NO.	DESIGNATION	CAP	COAT/ JACKET	SKIRT	SHIRT	NECKTAB	GLOVES	HANDBAG	SHOES	OUTERCOAT	BADGES	RIBBONS
9	Blue Dress "B"	White	Blue	Blue (A)	White	Black	White (B)	Black	Black Pumps (C) (D)	Overcoat Raincoat (E) (F)		Yes
10	Blue Dress "C"	White		Blue (A)	Khaki	Black	(B)	Black	Black Pumps (C) (D)	Overcoat Raincoat (E) (F)	Optional (F)	Optional (F)
14	Service "A"	Green Service/ Garrison	Green	Green (A)	Khaki	Green	(B)	Black	Black Pumps (C) (D)	Overcoat Raincoat (E) (F)	Optional	Yes
15	Service "B"	Green Service/ Garrison		Green (A)	Khaki	Green	(B)	Black	Black Pumps (C) (D)	Overcoat Raincoat (E) (F)	Optional (F)	Optional (F)
16	Service "C"	Green Service/ Garrison		Green (A)	Khaki		(B)	Black	Black Pumps (C) (D)	Overcoat Raincoat (E) (F)	Optional (F)	Optional (F)

- (A) Slacks may be authorized by commanders.
 (B) Black gloves always worn or carried with outercoat during winter months.
 (C) Oxfords may be worn. Oxfords always worn with slacks.

- (D) Proper hose should be worn.
 (E) Depending on weather conditions.
 (F) May be prescribed.

Placement of MCJROTC Uniform Insignia

The paragraphs below explain the exceptions in the regulations.

Patches and Stripes.

School patches and the MCJROTC distinctive mark are the only distinguishing devices to be worn on the MCJROTC uniform. One school patch may be worn on the right sleeve of all outer clothing, except the raincoat, centered on

the outer half of the sleeve, one-half of an inch below the shoulder seam. Sample patches will be submitted to the Commandant of the Marine Corps for approval. Patches will be three inches in length or diameter. Normally, only Marine Corps or school colors will be approved for use in the fabrication of school patches.

A distinctive MCJROTC round patch will be worn on the left sleeve of all outer clothing, centered on the outer half of the sleeve, one-fourth of an inch below the shoulder seam.

The patch will be three inches in diameter and contain a gold Marine Corps emblem centered on a scarlet field. The scarlet field is surrounded with a blue border containing the words “US Marine Corps Junior ROTC” in white lettering. Surrounding the blue field will be a gold border. Paragraph 1209 of MCO P1020.34F, Marine Corps Uniform Regulations, applies. Distinctive MCJROTC patches, including the cost of sewing on and removal of the patches from uniform clothing, will be furnished at Marine Corps expense. Except for the raincoat, sweaters, and field jackets, the MCJROTC distinctive patch shall be worn on the left sleeve on all uniform clothing, at the point of the shoulder one-half inch below the seam.

Fourrageres, aiguilletes, service stripes, scarlet stripes on dress blue trousers, and ribbon devices worn by members of the Armed Forces (e.g., Palms, clusters, stars, V’s) shall not be worn on the MCJROTC uniform.

Officers Rank Insignia

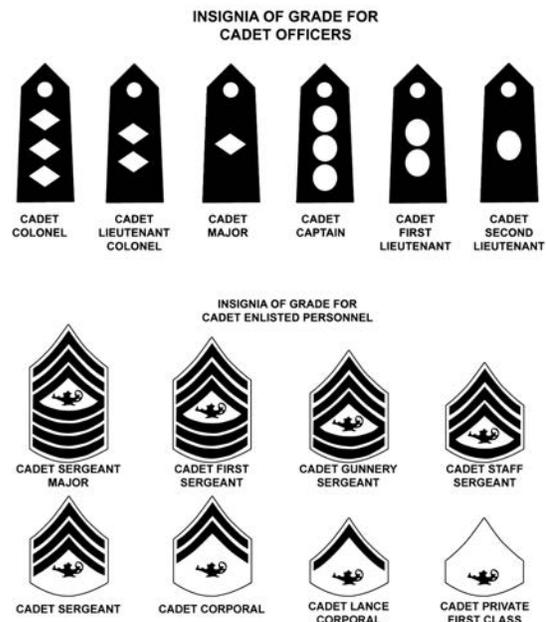
Only the Rank insignia shown is authorized for MCJROTC cadet officers and will be furnished at government expense. The description for cadet field grade and company grade officers is set forth below:

1. Field grade officer insignia consists of flat lozenges, 3/4 of an inch wide by 1-1/4 inches long (large size) and 1/2 of an inch wide by 3/4 of an inch long (small size).
2. Company grade officer insignia consists of flat disk, 3/4 of an inch in diameter (large size) and 1/2 of an inch wide in diameter (small size).
3. All cadet officer insignia will be of silver metal.
4. Officer insignia will be limited to that specified below:

- Cadet Colonel - Three lozenges
- Cadet Lieutenant Colonel - Two lozenges
- Cadet Major - One lozenge
- Cadet Captain - Three disks
- Cadet First Lieutenant Two disks
- Cadet Second Lieutenant One disk

Placement of MCJROTC officer disks and lozenges on the uniform will be in the manner prescribed for Marine Corps general officer insignia. The lozenge will be worn as follows:

1. Coat - the long axis will point fore and aft.
2. Shirt (including shirt with quarter-length sleeves) - one long axis point of each lozenge will point toward the top edge of the collar.



Enlisted Rank Insignia

The enlisted Rank insignia identified in this text are authorized for MCJROTC enlisted personnel and will be furnished at government expense:

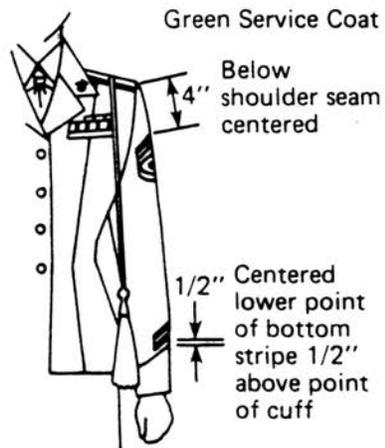
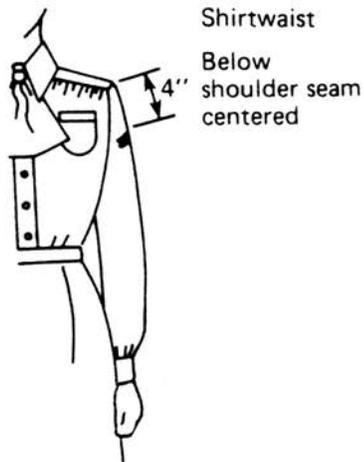
- Sergeant Major
- First Sergeant
- Gunnery Sergeant
- Staff Sergeant
- Sergeant
- Corporal
- Lance Corporal
- Private First Class

MCJROTC gold on scarlet insignia will be sewn on the dress blue uniform and the plastic rank insignia will be worn on the collar of the utility shirt and khaki shirt as prescribed by Marine Corps uniform regulations. No other style of enlisted rank insignia will be authorized for wear on the MCJROTC uniform.

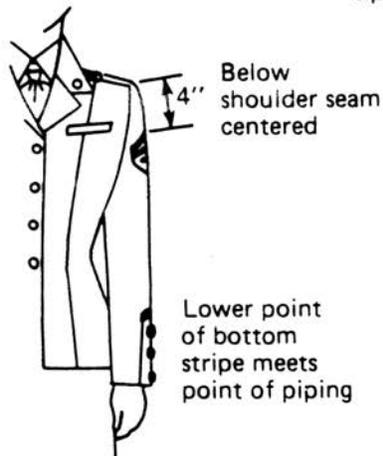
MCJROTC enlisted rank insignia will be worn in accordance with instructions contained in MCO P1020.34F. Additionally, all enlisted rank insignia will be placed four inches below the shoulder seam and centered. The MCJROTC rank insignia contains a lamp of learning device in lieu of crossed rifles used in the Marine Corps.

The lamp of learning signifies intensive study, a source of intellect, and moral and spiritual illumination. The lamp of learning is the heraldic device associated with Junior ROTC. Rank insignia placement is shown below:





Branch of service insignia worn on the coat collar are worn with eagles facing inboard and the wing tips should be parallel to the bottom of the coat.



Awards

Only those awards, decorations, and badges prescribed in Marine Corps orders or otherwise approved by the Commandant of the Marine Corps will be worn by cadets on the MCJROTC uniform. Ribbons and badges will be worn in accordance with the instructions pertaining to corresponding Marine Corps uniform items in the current edition of MCO P1020.34F, Marine Corps Uniform Regulations. Except at the presentation ceremony, ribbon bars made from the suspension ribbon of authorized medals will be worn in lieu of medals on the MCJROTC uniform.

MCJROTC Ribbon Awards

The Commandant of the Marine Corps sponsors 14 ribbon awards to recognize superior performance by individual cadets.

Additionally, six ribbon awards have been designated to recognize participation in MCJROTC activities and certain extracurricular school activities, which require special dedication, and effort beyond the normal MCJROTC. Criteria for the MCJROTC ribbon awards are included in MCO P1533.6D, MCJROTC SOP.

Certain MCJROTC ribbon awards are to be presented to only one cadet in a unit during on academic year. The SMI is responsible for developing a selection process that ensures the most deserving cadets receive these awards. The SMI will ensure that all ribbon awards are presented in a manner that provides for the appropriate recognition of the recipients.

Awards sponsored by other organizations. Various military and civic organizations sponsor awards that have been approved by the Commandant of the Marine Corps and are included in the MCJROTC awards program.

Approved Belts and Footwear

Belts

The 1-1/4 inch wide khaki web belt and buckle will be worn by officers and enlisted personnel. It is authorized for use in ceremonies, formations, and inspections. The tip end of the belt will pass through the buckle to the wearer's left. It will extend not less than two inches or more than four inches beyond the buckle. The tip end of the belt and the buckle will be maintained in a highly polished condition. The buckle will be worn locked with the buckle tongue depressed against the buckle proper.

Footwear

Male Personnel

Footwear shall be standard as issued or sold through Marine Corps Supply System or as approved for sale through the Marine Corps exchange. All cadets may purchase and wear approved commercial black leather and synthetic leather shoes in the semi-gloss and high gloss (patent) finishes, without ornamental stitching on an optional basis; however, chukka boots are authorized for wear by officers and staff noncommissioned officers only. Cadets who exercise this option may use these shoes to satisfy minimum requirements. These items are

authorized for wear with the service and dress uniforms on all occasions, including ceremonies, formations and inspections. All black leather shoes worn by cadets shall be shined with black polish. Sole edges and heels of leather or synthetic leather shoes shall be maintained with black polish or a black sole dressing. Double or platform soles or heels, leather heels, or metal heel and toe plates are prohibited. Black dress shoes with storm welts as approved for sale through the Marine Corps exchange, are authorized for wear.

Combat boots shall be shined with black polish. Black dye may be used. Saddle soap will be used for cleaning and preservation. Plain black zipper-closure overshoes or plain black rubbers may be worn with the uniform during inclement weather.

Officers' dress black shoes shall be either oxford or chukka boot in style.



Female Personnel

Black oxfords shall be the standard as issued or sold through the Marine Corps Supply System. High gloss oxfords as sold through the Marine Corps exchanges and approved commercial sources are authorized for optional purchase and wear and may be used to satisfy minimum requirements.

Black pumps shall be the standard as sold through the Marine Corps exchange. Black pumps will be made of smooth leather or approved synthetic leather (including the shining finish), and shall be of conservative cut with closed toes and heels and without ornamental stitching or seams. Any elastic binding around the throat of the pump shall match the color of the shoes. Heels shall measure not less than one inch or more than 2 1/2 inches in height. The base of the heel shall measure not less than 3/8 by 3/8 of an inch or more than 1-1/2 by 1-7/8 inches.

Black pumps shall be worn with the blue dress and service uniforms when the skirts are worn. Oxfords are not authorized for wear with the service uniform (with skirt) except when deemed appropriate by the commander. Examples of when the wearing of oxfords is considered appropriate are as follows: when a duty involves prolonged walking or standing; when the wearing of pumps is considered unsafe; and, when oxfords are prescribed for wear for medical reasons. Oxfords may be prescribed for wear with the blue dress uniform when terrain conditions and precision in movement would make pumps impractical.

When the slacks are worn, oxfords will always be worn. Either dark hose or black socks may be worn at the option of the individual. Military pumps of any height are not authorized for wear with slacks. All black leather shoes, pumps, or oxfords worn by women personnel shall be shined with black polish. Sole edges may be dressed with black sole dressing. Double or platform soles or heels, or metal heel and toe plates are prohibited. Saddle soap may be used for cleaning and preservation.



Responsibilities of Cadet

MCJROTC cadet are issued uniforms and accessories required to meet regulation standards. The uniform is a distinguishing factor that shows you are an active member of your unit. It should be worn with pride. Even though a uniform may show an impressive design, cut, and color, these can be diminished if it is not kept neat. The uniform must be cared for properly. All it takes is a little attention such as using a clothes hanger and, occasionally, a hot iron. A minimum of polish and a little hard work will bring an inspection luster to your shoes. The use of shoe trees can also prolong the life of your footwear. These suggestions and others, plus your own physical neatness, will greatly add to the pride you feel in yourself and your unit.

Even though the uniform is issued to you, it remains government property. If a time comes when you should leave the MCJROTC program, all uniform clothing will be returned. Items that are an exception to this rule are the frame cap, worn footwear (boots and shoes), and those articles purchased for personal use in excess of the authorized issue allowance. Women's caps will be returned, dry cleaned, and reissued.

If you are registered for the following year's MCJROTC program, the Senior Marine Instructor may allow you to retain your uniform during the summer months.

The MCJROTC unit will replace uniform clothing items lost, destroyed, damaged or worn out through normal service if no fault or negligence is evident. Replacement for items lost and/or destroyed requires the written authorization of the Senior Marine Instructor. You will be required to reimburse the government for missing articles for which there is no acceptable explanation or if the articles are unfit

for reissue due to wear beyond what would be considered normal.

Care of Uniforms and Accessories

The uniform cannot simply be worn, put away and forgotten until the next time it is needed. Like any other item of clothing you want to preserve, the uniform requires special care in wearing, storing, and cleaning. The following procedures are outlined to help you maintain your cadet uniform in the proper way. Following these guidelines will ensure that your uniform will always look clean and neat. It will also prolong its life.

General Guidelines for Uniform Wear

No matter how well fitting a uniform is when new, it will not continue to look its best unless well-cared for both during wear and when not in use. A uniform should be carefully put on and kept buttoned. When not in use, uniforms should be carefully placed on hangers. They should be kept in a well-ventilated storage space. Well-constructed wooden hangers shaped to fit the shoulder contour, with locking trouser bars are recommended. When uniforms are folded in duffel bags or other containers for storage or shipment, they should be carefully folded. This will preserve their original shape.

Heat, friction, and pressure have a deteriorating effect on materials. As all these factors are present and necessary for properly pressed uniforms, service uniforms generally show more wear at creased areas. Periodically pressing out old creases and reforming them slightly to either side of the previous crease will prolong the condition of these areas. Sleeve cuffs and trouser hems should be periodically examined and turned if material permits. Dry cleaning preserves the original appearance and finish of wool and wool-polyester garments. Dry cleaning is recommended over hand laundering.

When dry cleaning facilities are not available, and only as a last resort, wool and wool-polyester uniforms may be hand laundered. Hand launder with a neutral soap and fresh lukewarm water 70 to 80 degrees. If hard water is used, a little amount of water softener should be added to the water. In laundering, thick suds is necessary for best results.

Proper cleaning agents should be used to care for your uniform. The soap should be thoroughly dissolved in hot water and added to the cool water to reach a temperature of approximately 70 to 80 degrees. In order to preserve the finish, rubbing should be held to a minimum. Thorough rinsing is necessary to remove all traces of the soap. Use plenty of clear water in the rinse.

After washing the garments, squeeze gently to remove surplus water, shape garment by hand, and dry in open air. Colored garments should not be hung in the sun to dry. If this is unavoidable, garments should be turned inside out to dry. In laundering, avoid high temperature, friction and pressure as much as possible. Never run through a wringer or never twist to remove the excess water before drying. Never use chlorine bleaches on wool and wool-polyester materials. In addition, uniform items manufactured of polyester-cotton should not be bleached or starched.

Prevention of Moth Damage

Frequent brushing and exposure to sunshine and fresh air will effectively prevent moths. If uniforms are to be put away for a long time and left undisturbed, they should be thoroughly cleaned and packed in an airtight plastic bag. They can also be protected from moth damage with camphor balls, naphthalene, cedar wood, or **paradichlorobenzene**.

Care of Buttons and Insignia

- Gold buttons are gold-plated to prevent tarnishing. They should not be polished with abrasives or polishing cloths containing chemicals. Gold buttons should be cleaned with a weak solution of household ammonia and water.

Gold-plated buttons that have had the plating removed are likely to turn green due to exposure to moist air. This is due to copper salt forming on the copper base of the buttons. It can be removed by rubbing gently with acetic acid, such as vinegar, followed by a thorough washing in fresh water and drying.

The gold-filled parts and the sterling silver **rhodium** finished parts of metal insignia are cleaned by washing with soap and water. Avoid using silver polish or abrasive.

- Service insignia will not be polished. Should continued use cause loss of the desired finish, insignia should be replaced. It could also be refinished with USMC approved liquid, black protective coating as sold through the Marine Corps exchange. The use of paints or other coloring agents not so authorized is prohibited.

Care of Footwear

Continual maintenance of leather footwear is necessary to ensure optimum wear. It is also needed to adequately protect the healthy, sanitary condition of the feet. When not in use, the shape of the shoes should be maintained by the use of shoe trees. Foot powder should be liberally sprinkled inside the shoe to absorb moisture and excessive perspiration. Constant inspection of footwear is necessary to ensure prompt repair in order to avoid breakdown of the upper leather.

Shoes should be kept scrupulously clean of sand, dirt, and grit. Such dirt has an excessively deteriorating action on shoe threads and shoe

leather. Leather uppers should be periodically cleaned with saddle soap that is a well-recognized leather preservative. Dubbing should never be used on footwear as such compounds seal the pores of the leather and cause excessive perspiration.

- Cordovan leather shoes do not normally attain the high luster obtainable on calfskin shoes due to high oil content. This may be gradually overcome by regular applications of saddle soap to remove excess oils. Leading manufacturers of cordovan shoes often furnish detailed polishing instructions at time of purchase.
- For normal care, synthetic shoes may be cleaned by wiping with a damp cloth or sponge. Regular shoe polish may be used to heighten shine. Occasional polishing with paste wax or cream polishes may be required; however, excess dust and dirt should be removed before polishing. Liquid polish may be used but care should be taken to avoid streaking. Apply polish with a good polish brush in moderate amounts. To cover abrasion or scuff marks, apply a paste wax shoe polish and then paste wax.

All stains should be wiped off as quickly as possible, and the shoes then cleaned. For stubborn stains, try lighter fluid. A mild abrasive cleaner may be used if rubbed gently. Do not use chlorinated cleaners, bleaches, or harsh abrasives. The dyeing of synthetic shoes is not recommended. For cleaning, never use acetone, nail polish remover, chlorinated dry cleaning solvents, or alcohol. When in doubt about a cleaner or polish, try a little on the instep close to the sole as a test area.



Care of Sword and Scabbard

The sword blade is manufactured from chrome-plated steel or from stainless steel. The sword blade has been plated to prevent rust; however, rust is likely to set in should the plating be removed by use of abrasives or because of scratches or misuse. When not in use, the blade should be kept in a dry place and should be coated with a film of light oil.

The scabbard of the sword is covered with leather and should be cleaned with saddle soap. The blade of the sword and the gold-plated brass mountings should be protected as indicated above.

The grip should be cleaned by wiping with a damp cloth and drying thoroughly. The mountings on the sword and scabbard, including the hilt, are made of solid brass, highly polished or gold-plated. These mountings should not be cleaned with abrasives or polishing cloths containing chemicals. For best results, clean all mountings with a cloth that has been moistened with soapsuds to which a few drops of household ammonia have been added. Then, wipe with a cloth that has been moistened with clear water and dry thoroughly.

Removing Stains

To keep the uniform looking sharp and within regulations it is vital that stains be removed from uniform articles. It is possible to spot clean clothing that is soiled or spotted by small stains. Remove the stains as soon as possible, because the longer they remain, the harder they will be to remove. When removing stains, start at the center of the stain, and brush out towards the edges, decreasing the pressure. A chart is provided.

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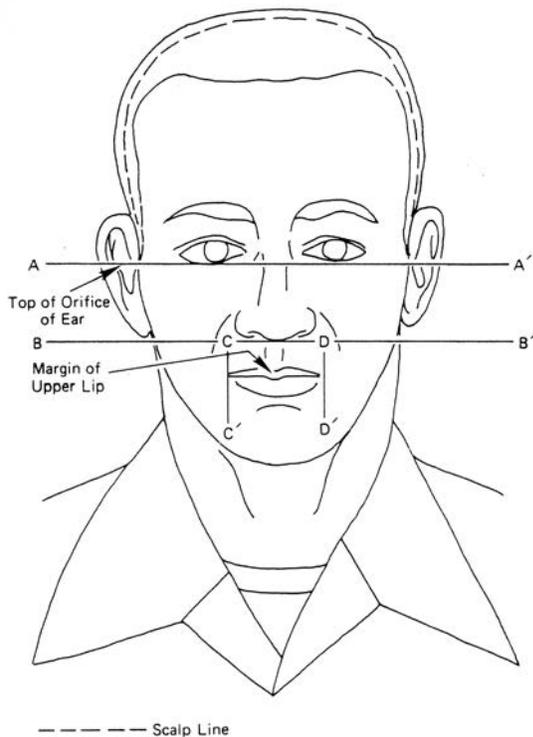
<i>Type of Stain</i>	<i>Procedure for Cotton Fabric</i>	<i>Procedure for Wool Fabric</i>	<i>Procedure for Synthetic Fabric</i>
GRAVY	Rub stain with cold water; then place a pad or cloth underneath fabric to absorb stain, and rub stain with cleaning fluid. If any stain remains, dry the fabric and rub with a soap or detergent solution. Do not rub excessively, as this may damage the finish of the garment	Same as procedure for cotton fabric.	Sponge with cold or lukewarm water. If grease spot remains, launder washable materials in a soap or detergent solution, using warm water. Do not rub material
FOOD	Dampen stained area with water. Apply soap or detergent solution O (with ammonia, if available), tamp with brush, and flush with water.	Same as procedure for cotton fabric.	Same as procedure for gravy.
MILK	Same as procedure for food stain.	Same as procedure for cotton fabric.	Same as procedure for gravy.
FRUIT OR FRUIT JUICE	Use hot water and wash stain while still moist.	Flush stained area with lukewarm water. Apply soap or detergent solution, tamp with brush, and flush out with water. (if available, apply lemon juice or vinegar, and flush thoroughly with water.)	Same as procedure for gravy.
GREASE OR OIL	Scrape off top of stain. Launder washable materials in a soap or detergent solution, using warm water. Do not rub material.	Same as procedure for cotton fabric.	Scrape off top of stain. Launder washable materials in a soap or detergent solution, using warm water. Do not rub material.
BLOOD	Flush and rub stained area with cold water; then wash stain with soap or detergent solution.	Dampen stained area with water. Apply soap or synthetic detergent solution (with ammonia if available) tamp with brush, and flush with water.	Flush stained area with lukewarm or cold water, then using warm water, wash stain with a soap or detergent solution. If stain remains, sponge with hydrogen peroxide.
BLOOD (DRIED)	Scrape off top of stain. Dampen stained area with cold water, apply soap or detergent solution (with ammonia if available), tamp with brush, and flush with water.	Same as procedure for cotton fabric.	Scrape off top of stain. Flush stained area with lukewarm or cold water, then using warm water, wash stain with a soap or detergent solution. If stain remains, sponge with hydrogen peroxide. (Do not use hydrogen peroxide or bleach on colored material.)

Stain Chart

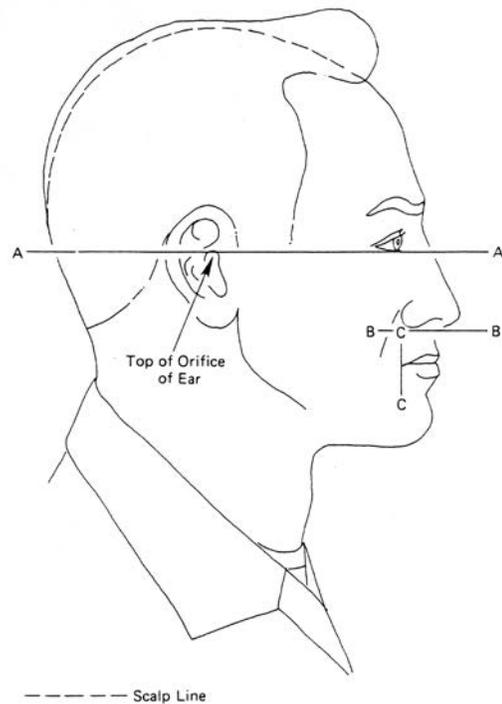
Personal Appearance and Grooming

Male Personnel

First, hair shall be worn neatly and closely trimmed. The hair may be clipped at the edges of the side and back. It will not be over three inches in length fully extended on the upper portion of the head and will be evenly graduated from zero length at the hairline in the lower portion of the head to the upper portion of the head. The back and sides of the head, below the hairline, may be shaved to remove body hair. Sideburns will not extend below the top of the **orifice** of the ear as indicated by line A-A shown below. Sideburns will not be styled to taper or flare. The length of an individual hair of the sideburn will not exceed one-eighth of an inch when fully extended.



Second, the face will be clean-shaven, except that a mustache may be worn. When worn, a mustache will be neatly and closely trimmed and must be contained within the lines of B-B, C-C, D-D, and the margin area of the upper lip. The individual length of a mustache hair fully extended must not exceed one-half of an inch.



Third, no eccentricities in the manner of wearing the head hair or mustache will be permitted. Head hair will be styled in such a manner so as not to interfere with the proper wearing of uniform headgear. Hair which protrudes in an unsightly manner from beneath properly worn uniform headgear is considered excessive, regardless of length. Except for a mustache, hair may be grown on the face only when a medical officer has determined that shaving is temporarily detrimental to the health of the individual.

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Fourth, male personnel are prohibited from utilizing umbrellas when in uniform.

Female Personnel

Female personnel shall be well groomed at all times and shall meet the following minimum standards.

First, the hair shall be neatly shaped and arranged in an attractive feminine style. Eccentric hairstyles are prohibited. Hair will be styled in such a manner so as not to interfere with the proper wear of the uniform headgear. All headgear shall fit snugly and comfortably around the largest part of the head. Hairstyles which do not allow headgear to be worn in this manner are considered elaborate and are prohibited. Appropriateness of a hairstyle should be judged on basis of its appearance when headgear is being worn. Hair may touch the collar but may not fall below the collar's lower edge. Conspicuous pins shall not be worn in the hair when the uniform is worn. Hairnets shall not be worn unless authorized for a specific type of duty. If dyes, tints, or bleaches are used on the hair, the artificial color must harmonize with the person's complexion tone and eye color. Conspicuous color changes are prohibited. Wigs, if worn in uniform, must look natural and conform to all of the above listed regulations.

Second, cosmetics shall be applied conservatively. Exaggerated or faddish cosmetic styles are inappropriate with the uniform and shall not be worn. The aim is to achieve a natural, yet finished look through the proper application of cosmetics. Lipstick will be worn with all service and dress uniforms and the maternity uniform and shall harmonize with the scarlet shade used in various service and dress uniform items (i.e., scarlet cord on green service cap, scarlet trim on blue dress uniform, and scarlet background on enlisted insignia of Rank.) When the utility

uniform is worn, red or pink shades of lipstick shall be worn. Extreme shades such as lavender, purple, white, or flesh color shall not be worn. Nail polish, if worn with the utility uniform, shall be colorless.

Third, adequate undergarments to include support garments (i.e., slips, bras, and girdles) shall be worn to ensure the proper fit, appearance, and opaqueness of the uniform. The conservative appearance of the uniform shall be maintained and undergarments shall not be conspicuously visible.

Fourth, women cadets may carry an all black, standard or collapsible umbrella, during inclement weather. The umbrella will be carried in the left hand so that the hand salute can be properly rendered. The utilizing of umbrellas in formations is prohibited.

Fifth, the wearing of earrings in uniform is authorized in accordance with the following regulations.

Small white pearl or pearl-like earrings (post or screw-on type), not to exceed six millimeters (approximately one-fourth of an inch) in diameter, are authorized for optional wear with all dress uniforms on social occasions.

When worn, earrings will fit tight against the ear and will not extend below the earlobe. Only one earring may be worn on or in each earlobe.

Earrings are not authorized for wear with the service or utility uniforms, nor will they be worn with the blue dress uniforms when it is worn as a duty uniform.

All Personnel

All personnel are prohibited from the following unless otherwise authorized by the Commandant of the Marine Corps or higher authority. There should be no articles, such as

pencils, pens, watch chains, **fobs**, pins, jewelry (except as authorized herein), handkerchiefs, combs, cigarettes, pipes, barrettes, hair ribbons/ornaments, flowers (corsages/boutonnieres, etc.), and other similar items worn or carried exposed upon the person when in uniform. Male personnel may wear tie clasps, cuff links, and shirt studs in accordance with regulation.

Inconspicuous wristwatches, watchbands, and rings are permitted while in uniform. Sunglasses may be worn, but not in formation with cadets, unless the necessity to wear sunglasses has been certified by medical authorities. When authorized for wear in formation, sunglass lenses will be of a standard green/dark green shade or may be the type commonly referred to as “photo-sensitive.” Eyeglasses/sunglasses, when worn, shall be conservative in appearance. Eccentric or conspicuous eyepieces are prohibited. Chains or ribbons will not be attached to eyeglasses.

Conclusion

Inspections enable commanders to determine the state of readiness of their commands. Inspections allow the commanders to observe their subordinates’ appearance and the condition of their clothing, equipment, and weapons. There are standards and regulations that must be met if each cadet and the unit as a whole are to be at peak effectiveness. Inspections insure that these standards are met. Knowing that an inspection is possible at any time provides an incentive for cadets to maintain their clothing and equipment in excellent condition. Passing inspections increases confidence and improves self-esteem. ❖

Marine Corps Birthday Celebration

PURPOSE

The purpose of this lesson is to provide guidance on how to plan and conduct a Marine Corps Birthday ceremony. As a senior cadet within the Marine Corps JROTC, you may be responsible for all or some aspects of planning and conducting a Marine Corps Birthday ceremony.

Introduction

The Marine Corps was founded on November 10, 1775. From that day to today, November 10 has been the climax of the Marine Corps year, the top social occasion of the Corps. All Marines throughout the world celebrate the birthday of the Marine Corps officially and socially. Not only do Marine units carry out the prescribed ceremony, but also wherever one or more Marines are stationed—on board ship, at posts of other services, even in the field—November 10 is celebrated.

Historical Background

Formal commemoration of the birthday of the Marine Corps began on November 10, 1921. The date was chosen because on November 10, 1775, the Continental Congress, meeting in Philadelphia, at Tun Tavern, authorized the raising and enlistment of two battalions of Continental Marines. The Marines were formed to serve with the newly formed naval forces of the colonies. Tun Tavern became known as the birthplace of the Corps. However,

this has not always been the case. In fact, Marines have not always celebrated their founding on November 10.



Until 1921, the birthday of the Corps had been celebrated on another date. An unidentified newspaper clipping from 1918 refers to the celebration of the 120th birthday of the Marine Corps on July 11 “as usual with no fuss.” It is doubtful that there was any real celebration at all. Further inspection of documents and publications prior to 1921 shows no evidence of ceremonies, pageants, or parties. The July date was commemorated between 1798 and 1921 as the birthday of the Corps. During the Revolution, Marines had fought on land and sea, but at the close of the Revolution the Marine Corps and the Navy were all but disbanded. On July 11, 1798, President John Adams approved a bill that recreated the Corps, thereby providing the rationale for this day being commemorated as the birthday of the U.S. Marine Corps.

On October 21, 1921 Major Edwin McClellan, officer-in-charge, Historical Section,

Headquarters Marine Corps, sent a memorandum to Major General Commandant John A. Lejeune suggesting that the original birthday on November 10, 1775, be declared a Marine Corps holiday. McClellan further suggested that a dinner be held in Washington to commemorate the event. Guests would include prominent men from the Marine Corps, the Army, and the Navy, and descendants of the Revolution.

Accordingly, on November 1, 1921, Lejeune issued Marine Corps Order No. 47, Series, 1921. The order summarized the history, mission, and tradition of the Corps and directed that it be read to every command on 10 November each subsequent year in honor of the birthday of the Marine Corps. This order has been duly carried out.

The first so-called “Birthday Ball” was probably held in 1925 in Philadelphia. There is no record of one before 1925. It is not possible to determine precisely when the first cake ceremony was held, but the first on record was held at Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C. In 1937, Major General Commandant Thomas Holcomb presided at an open house for Marine Corps officers. Ceremonies included the cutting of a huge cake designed after the famous Tun Tavern in Philadelphia. The oldest and youngest Marines present received the first and second pieces of the cake.

Marine Corps Birthday Customs

On their special day, Marines may watch or attend activities such as troop formations and parades. They listen to the reading of **General Lejeune’s** birthday message and the Commandant’s message.

The Marine Corps birthday consists of a cake-cutting ceremony. The first piece of cake honors the oldest Marine present at the cake-cutting ceremony. The second piece of cake is given to the youngest Marine by the oldest Marine. This symbolic passing of the cake represents the passing of knowledge from the elder experienced Marine to the less experienced young Marine.



How to Observe the Marine Corps Birthday

For a Marine command, the birthday includes prescribed or customary features, which are observed as circumstances permit. For Marines with other services, many of these items cannot be fulfilled exactly, but this list may serve as a guide.

- A troop formation (preferably a parade) for publication of the article from the Marine Corps Manual. The uniform should be Dress Blue A (which includes medals). If blues cannot be worn, medals should be prescribed on the service uniform for this occasion. On shipboard, hold a special formation of the Marine detachment and get permission from the captain to pipe the birthday article over the public address system. If you are with

some other service and only a few Marines are present, you may defer publishing the article until the evening social function.

- Holiday **rations** for the troops.
- Maximum **liberty** and minimum work consistent with the missions of the command.
- A birthday ball for officers and one for enlisted Marines. At each, a cake cutting ceremony takes place.
- At any schools or instruction scheduled for November 10, you should emphasize the traditions and history of the Corps.

The Birthday Ball

It is up to you to celebrate the annual birthday ball with pride, forethought, and loving care. Every Marine command must have one. If on detached service away from the Corps, the senior Marine Officer present must arrange a suitable birthday ball, and it is up to every Marine to chip in to support it.

The birthday ball is formal, which means evening dress for officers possessing that uniform, or dress blue (with large medals) as a substitute. If you are not required to possess either evening dress or blues, wear a service uniform.

The birthday ball is a command performance. Unless duty prevents, you attend. If resources permit, distinguished civilian guests and officers from other services should be invited, but not too many. Be sure that retired Marine officers and any Marine officers present from other countries are included.

The procedure for a birthday ball ceremony will be described. This procedure, of course, is a guide, and details may vary according to facilities, numbers of personnel and guests, and

local traditions. There is only one ironclad rule for the birthday ball: *Make it a good one.*



Conduct of the Birthday Ball Ceremony

The following is an outline for conducting the Marine Corps birthday ball ceremony in a medium-sized command with drum and bugle corps (or at least a field music) and an orchestra available. Bear in mind that this is a guide and may be modified according to local resources and traditions.

- At **H–15** minutes, drum and bugle corps sounds Officers' Call.
- Adjutant (who acts as announcer) requests that officers and guests clear the floor for the ceremony. Floor Committee places line and **stanchions** (if used) to define ceremonial aisle and area.
- At H–5, the drum and bugle unit (D&B), color guard, and honor guard form at exit, prepared to march on. For an officer's birthday ball, honor guard consists of two officers of each grade; at small posts, where the ball is an all-hands party for the whole command, honor guard consists of two lieutenants, two staff NCOs, two sergeants, and two corporals. All honor guard members are covered and wear Mameluke or NCO Sword as appropriate.

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- At H-1, adjutant takes post on floor, adjacent to exit, and, at H—hour, when all hands are posted, commands, “Sound Adjutant’s Call.”
- D&B sounds Adjutant’s Call, then marches up the aisle to designated post, playing “Foreign Legion March,” or “Sea Soldiers.”
- (When D&B halts, historical pageant, if any, commences. At conclusion of pageant—or next event, if no pageant—orchestra plays “Semper Fidelis.”
- On first note of “Semper Fidelis,” honor guard steps off.
- Honor Guard, junior rank in lead, proceeds up the aisle two abreast, each pair at six-pace intervals. At six paces inside hall, senior person in leading pair commands, 1. Officers 2. HALT. Without further command, pair faces outboard, takes three paces, halts, and faces about. Six paces farther, the next junior pair repeats this evolution, etc. In each case, the only spoken command is 1. Officers 2. HALT, the remaining movements being executed simultaneously in cadence without command. When the honor guard is posted, the orchestra stops playing.
- D&B sounds Attention.
- Senior Marine commander and honored guests (the official party) enter and march up aisle, face about, take post at head of aisle abreast of senior pair of honor guards, and receive honors (if a flag or general officer is present from D&B.
- Orchestra commences “Stars and Stripes Forever.” Color guard enters from exit and marches up aisle, halting abreast of next senior pair of honor guards. Music ceases when color guard halts.



- Adjutant, from original post at rear proclaims, “Long live the United States, and success to the Marines!”
- D&B plays “To the Color.” All covered officers come to hand salute. Colors then take designated post.
- Fanfare by D&B.
- Orchestra commences “The Marines’ Hymn.” Birthday cake is wheeled in from exit by four-person cake escort, followed by the adjutant. Cake is posted abreast of second senior pair of honor guards. Cake escort takes post in rear of cake.
- Adjutant steps front and center between cake and official party.
- Senior Marine commands, “Publish the Article.”
- The adjutant then publishes Article 38, Marine Corps Manual 1921, and resumes post.
- Senior Marine steps forward to make remarks, followed by remarks, if any, by honored guest.
- At conclusion of remarks, adjutant steps forward and hand senior Marine an unsheathed Mameluke Sword (previously paced on cake table), with which senior

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Marine cuts cake while orchestra plays “Auld Lang Syne.”

- Senior Marine then introduces and presents cake slice to youngest and oldest Marines present. When senior to the senior Marine (for example, and ambassador, secretary of the Navy, etc.) the honored guest is asked to cut the cake by the senior Marine, who then introduces youngest and oldest Marines, who in turn receive slices from the honored guest.
- Cake escort then retires cake to a flank where waiters receive it.
- D&B commences “Semper Fidelis.” Senior Marine and official party retire from post and proceed to head table or box.
- Color guard marches off followed by the honor guard in reverse sequence (senior pair leading). As the rear rank of honor guard comes abreast of next pair, the senior of that

pair commands 1. Forward. 2. MARCH, and the pair marches three paces inboard face right and left respectively, and step off without further command. The D&B marches off at six paces behind final pair of honor guards. On passing through exit, each D&B player mutes instrument so the music will seem to fade away in the distance.

- Floor Committee removes line and stanchions. D&B ceases playing, and ceremony end.

Conclusion

Remember, these are guidelines for conduct of your Marine Corps Birthday celebration. Do not forget the ironclad rule for the birthday ball: Make it a good one! ❖

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MARINE CORPS ORDERS
No. 47 (Series 1921)

HEADQUARTERS U.S. MARINE CORPS
Washington, November 1, 1921

759. The following will be read to the command on the 10th of November, 1921, and hereafter on the 10th of November of every year. Should the order not be received by the 10th of November, 1921, it will be read upon receipt.

- (1) On November 10, 1775, a Corps of Marines was created by a resolution of Continental Congress. Since that date many thousand men have borne the name "Marine". In memory of them it is fitting that we who are Marines should commemorate the birthday of our corps by calling to mind the glories of its long and illustrious history.
- (2) The record of our corps is one which will bear comparison with that of the most famous military organizations in the world's history. During 90 of the 146 years of its existence the Marine Corps has been in action against the Nation's foes. From the Battle of Trenton to the Argonne, Marines have won foremost honors in war, and in the long eras of tranquillity at home, generation after generation of Marines have grown gray in war in both hemispheres and in every corner of the seven seas, that our country and its citizens might enjoy peace and security.
- (3) In every battle and skirmish since the birth of our corps, Marines have acquitted themselves with the greatest distinction, winning new honors on each occasion until the term "Marine" has come to signify all that is highest in military efficiency and soldierly virtue.
- (4) This high name of distinction and soldierly repute we who are Marines today have received from those who preceded us in the corps. With it we have also received from them the eternal spirit which has animated our corps from generation to generation and has been the distinguishing mark of the Marines in every age. So long as that spirit continues to flourish Marines will be found equal to every emergency in the future as they have been in the past, and the men of our Nation will regard us as worthy successors to the long line of illustrious men who have served as "Soldiers of the Sea" since the founding of the Corps.

JOHN A. LEJEUNE,
Major General Commandant

75705--21

Mess Night

PURPOSE

The purpose of this lesson is to provide information on Mess Night. Upon completion of this lesson, cadets will be able to plan and explain the purpose of a Mess Night.

Introduction

Mess as defined by Webster’s dictionary and used in this lesson is “a group of persons who regularly take their meals together” or “a place where meals are regularly served to a group.” A **mess night** (sometimes called a “guest night” or a “dining-in night”) is a formal dinner in mess by all members or by the officers of a particular post or unit. Mess nights may be held on special anniversaries (such as that of a battle in which the unit has participated), the Marine Corps Birthday, the Regimental Anniversary, to “dine-out” or farewell a unit member, in honor of a distinguished guest, or the remembrance of fallen comrades.

Gallantry and **comradery** in arms have enabled the Marine Corps to build a name for itself that is known throughout the world, feared by our enemies, and respected by every military service in existence. This name was not easily won and must be maintained. Therefore, Marines must conduct themselves at all times in a manner benefiting one who is part of such a tradition.

The maintenance of traditional discipline, gallantry, and love of the Corps is the duty of every Marine. The same high standard of respect and prestige must not only be maintained, but also

strengthened. It must be passed on to future Marines who will take their place among the ranks of the Corps and look back with pride on what has been accomplished. Mess night is an element in fostering such standards.



History

The custom of Marine officers formally dining in mess together is not a new custom. It is a custom as old as the Corps itself.

The New Art of War, published in 1740 under the heading, “The Duty of an Ensign and How He Ought to Behave Himself,” stated:

Officers’ mess serves three basic functions: (1) it is the home for all bachelor officers, (2) a club for the married officers, and (3) the center of social life of a post or station. The

formality of a mess dinner reflects the same spirit of dignity of the home, and each officer should conduct himself with that thought in mind.

Since the beginning of organized society, there has been a military establishment. It may be assumed that ever since, regardless of how simple or unorganized, there have been occasions when the leaders of that military organization have set themselves down to dinner elaborate in service and formal in style. It is a well-known fact that the Roman Legion held great banquets to celebrate their most recent enterprise. It may be presumed that their enemies did likewise.

Down through the ages, officers have enjoyed each other's company at dinner and, on special occasions, have gone to great pains to make these dinners elaborate and formal. It is from this custom of celebrating special events in the organization's history that the formal Mess Night exists in its present form.

In the U.S. Armed Forces, mess nights date back to the army's regimental messes of the pre-World War I days and to the days of the wine mess in the wardroom afloat, which ended abruptly in 1914 when Secretary Josephus Daniels imposed prohibition on the Navy. In this early era of a small Marine Corps with only a couple of hundred officers, the only permanent Marine officers' mess was that at Eighth and Eye in Washington, D.C.

Contrary to the popular belief of a great many officers, formal dinners are not held to ensure that all have the required dress uniform currently in vogue. Such affairs are conducted in this manner to lend a special air of dignity to the occasion, whether it is to celebrate the birthday of the Corps, to commemorate the loss of our fallen comrades, to say farewell to a member of our ranks, or to pay honor to a distinguished visitor.



Organization

For a successful mess night, there are lots of behind-the-scenes activities that must take place to include: research, planning, and many hours of preparation and cooperation. In addition, each affair will vary based on many factors to include location, resources and reason for the occasion. Unlike many such affairs as this, there is never any rehearsal of the participants from one dinner to the next.

Officers of the Mess

There are two officers of the mess, the president and the vice-president. The president is normally the commanding officer although he may delegate another to assume the function. The vice president is appointed by the president and is either the adjutant or the junior lieutenant in the command. The duty may also be rotated so that all company officers may gain experience. In any case, the function of the vice president, at least beforehand, is to undertake all preliminary arrangements—guest lists (to be approved by the mess president), seating diagram (also to be approved), menu and catering, music, decorations, and so forth. A checklist will be provided later.

The success of the evening depends on the vice president.

Mess President

The President of the Mess has the following duties and responsibilities.

1. Coordinate the activities of all representatives, ensuring that all deadlines are set and met.
2. At least two weeks before the Mess Night ensure that invitations to guests are prepared and delivered.
3. Designate escorts for honored guest and all other guests. (Each guest will be assigned an escort.)
4. Select and send an invitation to the honored guest three to four weeks in advance of Mess Night.
5. Prepare a script for the introduction of the Guest of Honor.
6. Select an appropriate gift for the Guest of Honor. This gift should have no real value other than as a memento, appropriately engraved and signifying the occasion. The gift should never be a personal item, but rather one that can become a treasure only to the Guest of Honor.
7. Check the seating diagram.
8. Ensure that letters of appreciation are sent to support agencies as appropriate after the Mess Night.
9. Invitations are sent to official guests who normally have their expenses shared by the members of the Mess while individual members will absorb the expense of the personal guests.
10. Brief the field music on when to sound the music.



Mess Vice-President

The Vice President has the following duties and responsibilities:

1. The Mess Vice-President is responsible for the planning, coordinating, and the execution of the entire Mess Night. He is advised and assisted by the Mess President and makes progress reports to the same.
2. The Vice President is responsible for collecting funds from the Mess Night members and conducting all financial transactions.
3. He will prepare a letter of invitation for the honored guest and obtain a biographical sketch.
4. He provides the mess with an exact number of participants and guests.
5. He coordinates with the treasurer of the Mess Night (unless he is treasurer) and treasurer of the banquet facility to complete all financial transactions.
6. He ensures that all monies collected are recorded and a copy of all receipts is kept for audit.

Checklist of Responsibilities

The following is a checklist of responsibilities regarding Mess Night.

1. Select the Guest of Honor. Send initial correspondence to office of the Guest of Honor to ensure that the date of the Mess Night fits into his/her schedule.
2. Prepare a letter of invitation for honored guest. Obtain a biographical sketch.
3. Send a letter to support agencies to reserve a banquet room, to arrange for field music, and any other support as required (e.g., a bus for transport after Mess Night).
4. Ensure that invitations to guests are prepared and delivered.
5. Prepare a script for the introduction of the Guest of Honor; prepare a seating diagram and a decoration plan.
6. Approve the seating diagram, and the decorations plan.
7. Verify all support requests. Make any last minute coordination with all involved agencies.
8. Brief the Mess Night representative committee and escorts on their responsibilities and on the sequence of events.
9. Provide the Mess with an exact number of participants and guests.
10. Conduct a meeting with the Operations Chief, Mess Vice President, and Mess Night representative committee to ensure final coordination of incidental details including a final rehearsal.
11. Brief field music to sound “First Call” and “Attention” followed by the “Roast Beef of Old England.” The band will continue to play

until all persons at the head table take their places.

12. Ensure that a letter of appreciation is sent to honored guest.
13. Coordinate with the treasurer of the banquet facility to complete all financial transactions.

Other preparations and responsibilities include the following:

- After approval of the guest list, invitations should be prepared and mailed or delivered at least two weeks in advance of the mess night. Each guest, regardless of organization or sponsoring officer in the host unit, is a guest of the mess and should be so treated.
- The table is set with complete dinner service—wine glasses, candles, and flowers. Unit or post silver and trophies should be used.
- Unless the commanding officer, a field officer is detailed as president of the mess for the occasion; a company officer acts as vice president.
- Uniform is evening dress or mess dress, or dress blues or whites.
- The National Colors and the Marine Corps Colors are placed behind the president’s chair; guidons and drums may also be used as decorations.
- The mess president sits as the head of the table, the vice president at the foot. Other guests and members take seat by rank except that guests of honor are on the right and left of the president. A seating diagram should be posted in advance, and place cards and menu cards prepared. The vice president supervises all preliminary arrangements.

- If available, a three- or four-piece military string orchestra should be detailed to provide dinner music. The orchestra should know the national anthems and regimental marches of guest officers. If suitable and “live music” is not available, a good-quality sound system with taped or recorded selections will serve as a substitute. The musical program should be checked and timed by the vice president and should always include “Semper Fidelis” and the regimental march of each guest.

Procedure

Officers assemble in an anteroom 30 minutes before dinner for cocktails and to greet guests. This should be the occasion for all officers to speak to guests and make them feel welcome. It is also the opportunity for each officer to pay respects informally to the senior officers present, Commanding Officers especially. Dinner is announced in accordance with local custom. In some messes, “Semper Fidelis” is played; elsewhere, Officers’ Call is sounded followed by a march (when drum and bugle corps is available, “Sea Soldiers” is a suitable march); still another variation is to play “The Roast Beef of Old England” (known and used in the “Old Navy” as “Officers’ Mess Gear”) on fife and drum. Whatever the signal, officers and guests proceed to their places. A member of the mess should escort each guest. A brief grace is said by the chaplain, if present, otherwise by the president. Officers then take seats. The ranking guest, seated at the mess president’s right, is served first, then the president and so on counterclockwise without further regard to seniority. Appropriate wines are served with each course. No officer may leave the table until after the toasts, except by permission from the president. (If for any reason, official or otherwise, you arrive late, you should express your

regrets to the mess president before taking your seat.)

After dessert, there is a short concluding grace, the table is cleared, and port decanters and glasses are placed on the table. The port passes clockwise until all glasses are charged. When the decanter (or both decanters, if two are used) has completed the circuit, the president raps for silence. If a foreign officer is present, the president rises, lifts a glass, and says, “Mr. Vice, His Majesty, King _____ of _____.” The vice president then rises, glass in hand, waits until all have risen, and gives the toast. “Gentlemen, His Majesty, King _____ of _____.” The orchestra plays the foreign national anthem, following which all say, “King _____ of _____” drink, and resume seats.

After about a minute, the president again raps for silence, the senior foreign officer rises, and says “Gentlemen, the President of the United States,” and the orchestra plays the National Anthem. If no foreign guests are present, the first toast is to the President of the United States, and-in any case-the concluding toast is to the Marine Corps, during which, if music is available, “The Marines’ Hymn” is played. The wording of this toast should be, “Mr. Vice, Corps and Country,” and the custom has, grown up (proposed long years ago by Colonel A. M. Fraser) that the vice president reply in words taken from a Revolutionary War recruiting poster of the Continental Marines--“Long live the United States, and success to the Marines!” If the guest of honor is a Marine general officer, he or she may take this occasion to proceed to a few remarks. If the guest of honor is from another service, a toast to that service is in order. He or she may respond and speak. Toasts are not “bottoms up.”

Toasts may be divided into four classes and that they are given in the following order.

- *Toasts of Protocol:* Toasts to foreign governments or chiefs of state; toast to the President of the United States.
- *Official Toasts:* Toasts to other services, military organizations, government departments, agencies, or institutions.
- *Traditional Toast:* “Corps and Country.”
- *Personal Toasts:* Toasts to individuals (distinguished guests, officer being dined out, and so on).

The traditional toast ends the formal part of the evening. Personal toasts and speeches may follow at a suitable interval afterward, as described below.

At this point, if speeches are planned (other than remarks associated with toasts), they are made now. In “dining out” an officer, the commanding officer makes brief, usually humorous remarks whereupon the officer being honored replies in the same vein. In some messes, the orchestra remains and plays the regimental march of each guest during which the individual stands. All Marines should remain until the ranking guest and the commanding officer leave.

Circumstances frequently do not permit a mess night with all formalities as to uniform, catering, and table service that are outlined herein, or not all of them might be desired. This should not deter an organization from making the effort. The idea is to do the best you can with what you have and let the spirit of the occasion take care of the rest. Do not be overcome by the apparent formality of mess nights; the object is the pleasure and comradeship of all hands.

As to timing, it is better not to schedule mess nights regularly. It is much preferable that

officers begin asking when the next one will take place. Thus, a mess night will be looked forward to with anticipation and never become a burden.

Conclusion

Mess Night is a fitting occasion to mark special events such as the Marine Corps Birthday, the Regimental Anniversary, the farewell of a unit member, the honoring of a distinguished guest, or the remembrance of fallen comrades. It is an extremely formal and highly-enjoyable social occasion. Lack of facilities should pose no restraints. With imagination and creativity, you should be able to successfully plan and organize a mess night that will be enjoyable and memorable.❖

The Marine Air-Ground Task Force

PURPOSE

This lesson provides cadets with the organization of the Marine Air-Ground Task Force (MAGTF). Upon completion of this lesson, cadets will be able to describe a MAGTF, the different types, and their organizational structure.

Introduction

Marine Corps doctrine normally dictates the employment of Marine forces as integrated **Marine Air-Ground Task Forces** (MAGTFs). This doctrine emphasizes the employment of all elements of the force under a single commander, thereby obtaining unity of effort. The MAGTF is unique to the Corps. It is trained and equipped not only for amphibious warfare but also for a variety of combat situations. Its structure and its emphasis on strategic mobility make the MAGTF exceptionally useful in a wide array of crises. Its organization by task enables the commander to tailor the force to a specific contingency. The MAGTF can fight well and harmoniously within a joint or combined task force in a land campaign or provide a one-service force of combined arms for a variety of situations.

When employed in other than amphibious operations, MAGTFs are capable of functioning as self-sustaining forces under the operational command of the unified, subunified, or joint task force commander. Their organization and training for amphibious warfare, which the Marine Corps pioneered and continues to perfect,

enhance their capability to deploy rapidly by any means.

Marine Air-Ground Task Forces

The MAGTF is not a permanent organization; it is task-organized for a specific mission and, after completion of that mission, is dissolved in accordance with prearranged plans. A MAGTF headquarters is structured to control whatever forces are assigned; thus, the Marine Corps can rapidly converge forces from any or all of its base locations to form a composite MAGTF without regard for parent administrative organization. To shorten the response time and reduce strategic lift requirements, the Marine Corps has prepositioned equipment and supplies in or near potential crisis areas. The prepositioning of material for use by Marine forces has led to a renewed emphasis on airlifting Marine combat forces to marry-up with that equipment. The Marine Corps endorses airlift as an alternative for rapid deployment of its forces in situations permitting nonhostile entry.

The current and planned uses of Marine forces reflect an understanding by the National Command Authority of the unique role amphibious operations would play in a limited or worldwide war. Marine Expeditionary Units are continuously deployed on amphibious ships in the Mediterranean Sea and Pacific Ocean and visit the Caribbean Sea and Indian Ocean, thus providing a peacetime presence and rapid response capability that contribute to deterrence and forward defense strategy.

Deployed MAGTFs provide the means to rapidly project U.S. power in support of vital U.S.

interests anywhere in the world. Able to move on and be supported from the sea, MAGTFs, with associated amphibious shipping and carrier battle groups, are free from dependence on basing or overflight rights and provide an effective force presence without political commitment. During peacetime, they provide assurance to our allies and demonstrate commitment to our adversaries.

Marine Air-Ground Task Force Elements

The composition of a MAGTF may vary considerably but a MAGTF organizational structure, by definition, will always include the following four elements:

1. Command Element (CE)
2. Ground Combat Element (GCE)
3. Aviation Combat Element (ACE)
4. Combat Service Support Element (CSSE)

MAGTFs are readily available, self-sustaining, combined arms warfighting organizations composed of Marine forces from a division; aircraft wing; service support group; and the surveillance, reconnaissance, and intelligence group (SRIGs) under a single commander.

Command Element (CE)

The command element is the MAGTF headquarters. It is composed of the commander and a separate Air-Ground headquarters with a staff and communication and service support facilities. The establishment of a single headquarters over the aviation, ground, and combat service support elements provides the command, control, and coordination capability essential for effective planning and execution of operations. In amphibious operations, when Marines constitute the preponderant force, the MAGTF command

element serves also as the landing force headquarters.

Ground Combat Element (GCE)

The ground combat element is a task organization tailored for the conduct of ground maneuver. It is constructed around a ground combat infantry unit and varies in size from a battalion landing team to a reinforced Marine division or divisions. The ground combat element also includes appropriate combat support and combat service support units. Normally, there is only one ground combat element in a MAGTF.

Aviation Combat Element (ACE)

The aviation combat element of a MAGTF is task organized to fulfill the six functions of Marine aviation. These functions—air reconnaissance, anti-air warfare, assault support, offensive air support, electronic warfare, and control of aircraft and missiles—are provided in varying degrees based on the tactical situation and on the size of the MAGTF. Usually, there is only one aviation combat element in a MAGTF. It includes those aviation command (including air control agencies), combat, combat support, and combat service support units required by the situation.

Combat Service Support Element (CSSE)

The combat service support element provides the primary combat support to all elements of the MAGTF. Depending on the mission, it is task organized to meet any or all of the following functions: supply maintenance, engineer, medical/dental, automated data processing, material handling equipment, personal services, food services, transportation, military police, disbursing, and financial management. It is capable of providing smaller task organizations for support of MAGTF operations as required.

Types of Marine Air-Ground Task Forces

Although a MAGTF is a task organization tailored to accomplish a specific mission, there are three basic types of MAGTFs:

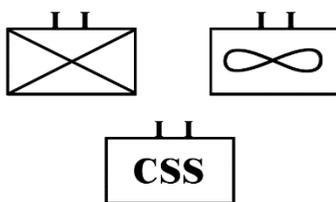
1. **Marine Expeditionary Unit (MEU)**
2. **Marine Expeditionary Brigade (MEB)**
3. **Marine Expeditionary Force (MEF)**

There is also the designation of Special Purpose MAGTF (SPMAGTF) for any unit smaller than the MEU.

Marine Expeditionary Unit (MEU)

The Marine Expeditionary Unit is a MAGTF normally built around a reinforced infantry battalion, a composite helicopter squadron, and a MEU Service Support Group (MSSG). The composite squadron normally includes several types of helicopters, although it may include fixed-wing aircraft. The MEU is commanded a colonel. The MEU is usually considered to be the forward element of a larger MAGTF.

Marine Expeditionary Unit (MEU)



Command Element
Battalion Landing Team (BLT)
Composite Squadron
MEU Service Support Group

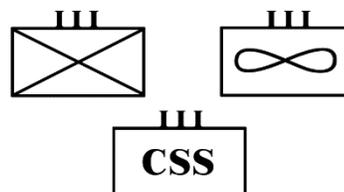
Commander: Colonel

Mission of limited scope and duration

Marine Expeditionary Brigade (MEB)

The Marine Expeditionary Brigade is built around a reinforced regiment, a Marine Aircraft Group (MAG), and a Brigade Service Support Group (BSSG). The Marine Aircraft Group will contain all types of aircraft required by the mission. A brigadier general commands the MEB.

Marine Expeditionary Brigade (MEB)



Command Element
Regimental Landing Team (RLT)
Marine Aircraft Group
Brigade Service Support Group

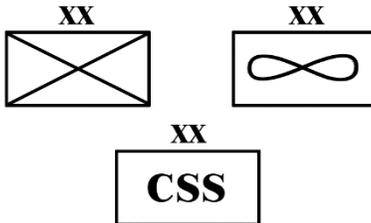
Commander: Brigadier General

Mission Capability
Sustained air-ground operations
to accomplish limited mission

Marine Expeditionary Force (MEF)

The Marine Expeditionary Force is a MAGTF normally built around a Marine Division, a Force Service Support Group (FSSG) and a Marine Aircraft Wing that will contain all types of aircraft. A lieutenant general commands the MEF.

**Marine Expeditionary Force
(MEF)
XXX**



Command Element
Marine Division
Marine Aircraft Wing
Force Service Support Group

Commander: Major General

Sustained air-ground combat

Special Purpose Marine Air-Ground Task Force (SPMAGTF)

The **Special Purpose Marine Air-Ground Task Force** is the fourth type of MAGTF organization. It is normally used for a special purpose or unique instances where employment of one of the three basic MAGTFs would be inappropriate. Special purposes can include disaster relief, humanitarian assistance, noncombatant evacuation, operations, or security operations. A unique instance would include the Exxon *Valdez* oil spill containment.

It will be composed of the four elements. Its command element is structured to conduct command and control of operational functions and is tailored to the mission and task organization of the SPMAGTF. The ground combat element is at least a platoon-sized element. The aircraft combat element is a task-organized detachment of the aircraft. The combat service support element is task-organized to meet the

specific service support requirements of the SPMAGTF and is centered on the unit designated to provide most of the service support.

Conclusion

The MAGTF can be seen as the culmination of 90 years of the U.S. Marine Corps evolution from a ships' police force to a standing ready force. Its genesis lays in the Huntington Battalion of 1898 (Guantanamo), modified by the development of the air weapon, the Pacific War of 1941-45, and joint forces and combined arms experience since the Korean War. ❖

The Korean War

PURPOSE

In the entire history of the United States, the Congress exercised its Constitutional authority to declare war only five times. War was declared on Britain in 1812, on Mexico in 1848, on Spain in 1898, on Germany and its allies in 1917, and on Japan and Germany in 1941. It has been 60 years since the U.S. officially declared war on another country, but U.S. troops have engaged in military activities large and small many times since World War II.

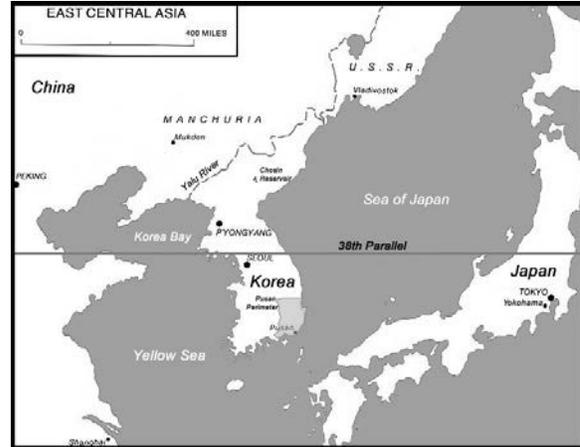
*Since then, U.S. involvement has often involved action **sanctioned** by the United Nations as in the case of the Korean War. This lesson will explore the reasons for U.S. actions in Korea, highlight some of the best-known engagements, and discuss the outcome of the war.*

Introduction

Shortly after the United States dropped the second atomic bomb on Nagasaki at the end of World War II, the Soviet Union declared war on Japan. Within a few short weeks, communist armies moved into China and the northern part of Korea. President Truman was especially concerned about communists controlling the strategically located Korean peninsula. He proposed that the Soviets control the area in Korea north of the **38th parallel** and the U.S. control the area south of the 38th parallel. It was the intent of both sides to hold general elections

that would eventually unite the country and allow each side to withdraw its forces. However, neither side trusted the other to provide fair elections, and neither side wanted to let the other get control. For several years, an uneasy truce divided the Republic of Korea (ROK) in the south and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) in the north.

After the war, it became clear that the United States and the Soviet Union were involved in a struggle for whose ideas should control the political destinies of nations around the world. By instituting communist governments in them the Soviet Union controlled a number of countries in Eastern Europe. These countries were often called **satellites** because they were dominated politically and economically by the Soviet Union. It was said that an "Iron Curtain" had dropped over Europe, separating the communist countries from the western democracies. The **Truman Doctrine** held that the United States would not tolerate further expansion of Soviet influence and would provide military and economic aid to any country threatened by Communism or any **totalitarian** ideology. The Marshall Plan, designed to provide economic support for European countries devastated by the war, was an example of such action.



United Nations

The United States, the Soviet Union, France, the United Kingdom, and the Republic of China formally approved the charter of the United Nations in 1945. The charter of this organization indicates that it is dedicated to maintaining international peace and security. The primary responsibility for this task falls to the **Security Council** of the United Nations. Originally, the Security Council had 11 members (today it has 15), of which five were permanent members. These five permanent members in 1945 were the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, France, and the Republic of China.

When a complaint was brought before the Security Council, a number of actions could be taken including investigation, negotiation, issuance of cease-fire directives, suspension or expulsion from the UN, and military action. Before an action could be taken in 1945, seven of the eleven Security Council members had to approve it, including all five of the permanent members.

South across the 38th Parallel

Kim Il-sung was the leader of North Korea from 1945 until his death in 1994. **Syngman Rhee** was elected President of South Korea in 1948 and continued in that role until 1960. Both men wished to reunite Korea under their own rule. Rhee made it clear that he wanted to take North Korea by force. President Truman thought Rhee was too extreme and refused to provide South Korea with tanks, fighter planes, or heavy weapons. It was Kim who made the first move. Kim sought support from both the Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China for an invasion of the south. Kim had 150,000 to 200,000 troops armed primarily with Soviet made weapons. In the early morning hours of June 25, 1950, he sent those troops across the 38th parallel. The Soviet-built tanks of the North Korean People's Army (NKPA) could not be stopped. Within three days, Seoul, the South Korean capital was taken. The smaller, ill-trained army of the Republic of Korea in the south could do nothing to stop the advance.

The United Nations Security Council met on June 27 and condemned the invasion as an act of aggression, demanded the withdrawal of North

Korean troops from the South. It called upon its members to aid South Korea and passed a resolution ordering North Korea to withdraw its armed forces. As a permanent member of the Security Council, the Soviet Union could have vetoed any resolutions in support of South Korea. However, the Soviets were boycotting the UN because it would not replace the nationalist Republic of China in exile on the island of Formosa with the communist People's Republic of China who controlled the mainland.

On June 29, President Truman authorized the use of American land, sea, and air forces in Korea. A week later, the United Nations placed the forces of 15 other member nations under U.S. command. Truman appointed **Gen. Douglas MacArthur** supreme commander. On July 2, MacArthur requested “..assignment of Marine Regimental Combat Team and supporting Air Group for duty this command...” Within ten days, 6,500 Marines were on their way to Korea.

The Pusan Perimeter

By the third week of July, U.S. Army troops sent to South Korea were pushed back into an area around the port of **Pusan**. This 100 by 50 mile area was all that was left of the defense of South Korea. On July 29, Lt. Gen. Walton Walker told his troops that they could no longer retreat. They were awaiting the arrival of the Marines, but they would “fight until the end. We are going to hold this line.” They were able to stop the North Koreans at the Naktong River. They had 6,000 casualties and the South Koreans had 70,000.

MacArthur's plan was to land Marines at both Pusan in the southeast and **Inchon** in the northwest. Using a “hammer and anvil” concept, the U.S. troops would squeeze the North Koreans from both ends. When the Marines arrived on

August 2nd, **Brig. Gen. Edward Craig** described the situation as:

The Pusan Perimeter is like a weakened dike, and we will be used to plug holes in it as they open. It will be costly fighting against a numerically superior enemy. The Marines have never lost a battle and this brigade will not be the first to establish such a precedent.

On August 8, the Marines were ordered to plug a puncture in the perimeter at Miryang in the Naktong River area. The Marines began their attack on August 17. Their objective was a piece of ground called No Name Ridge. With brigade artillery firing hundreds of rounds into enemy positions and with the Marine Aircraft Group (MAG) providing air support, the ground troops continued to advance. The fighting was fierce and the casualties heavy. There were counterattacks during the night and fighting throughout the next morning. By afternoon, the Marines occupied No Name Ridge. Having lost the high ground, the North Koreans moved back across the Naktong River. As the North Koreans retreated across the river, the Marines pursued. With Marine air and artillery, the battle turned into a slaughter. The river was colored red with the blood of the enemy.

On the first of September the North Koreans fought back with nearly 100,000 troops. The Marines, who had been called back to the division, were redeployed at Miryang under Gen. Craig. Once again the situation was considered critical. The Marines fought against the 9th North Korean Division. After three days, the Marines drove back the enemy who abandoned enough arms, tanks, and vehicles to equip a small army.

At the first battle of Naktong, the Marines had driven back the enemy at great cost to both sides. Ten days later, the Marines were called back to the area, and again drove off the

area. The Marines had stopped the progress of the North Korean army and preserved the Pusan Peninsula.

Inchon

In preparation for the planned amphibious landing at Inchon, President Truman received permission from Congress to mobilize the reserves. MacArthur requested that a division of Marines be sent to Korea. The Joint Chiefs of Staff told him that a division could not be ready before November. Nevertheless, MacArthur set September 15 as D-Day. Maj. Gen. Oliver Smith found that his troops were at two-thirds strength.

The carrier-based planes and warships of the U.S. 7th fleet fired at Inchon harbor for the five days preceding D-Day. As in the Pacific, the first objective was to take the island nearest the main landing site. It took only 25 minutes to secure Wolmi-do and open the causeway to Inchon. By noon, the “mopping up” of the island was complete. Enemy positions guarding against an assault on Inchon were eliminated. The North Koreans had no real air force, navy, or submarines to oppose an amphibious landing, as long as the Soviets and Chinese stayed out of the war.

The most difficult aspect of taking Inchon was negotiating the high tides and seawall. Using scaling ladders to get over the seawall, Marines were able to secure a beachhead by the afternoon of the second day. The Marines had 22 dead and 174 wounded in the landing.

The resistance became stiffer as the Marines advanced toward Seoul. By September 25, the Marines had reached the outskirts of the city. After two days of bitter fighting, the North Korean People’s Army (NKPA) collapsed, and Seoul was back in the hands of the South

Koreans. The North Korean invasion had lasted three months and four days.

Now the “hammer and the anvil” were about to meet. The NKPA raced back to North Korea. The plan was to chase them back to the **Yalu River**, which serves as the border between North Korea and China. The Inchon-Seoul campaign took about two weeks. Enemy casualties reached 13,666 plus 4,692 prisoners. Marines had 421 dead and 2,029 wounded.

MacArthur wrote in a report to the United Nations that the North Korean enemy had been shattered. It appeared that the combination of South Korean, U.S., and UN forces had sent the invaders back to their own side of the 38th parallel. What happened next was not what MacArthur expected.



North across the 38th Parallel

On September 27, 1950, the Joint Chiefs of Staff with the President’s approval gave MacArthur explicit instructions. They included:

- The military objective is to destroy the North Korean Armed Forces.

- Authorization to conduct military actions north of the 38th parallel is given provided that the Soviet or Chinese Communist forces have not entered or threatened to enter the war.
- Under no circumstances should non-Korean ground forces enter into or near the Soviet or Chinese borders.
- Expect no air or naval action against Soviet or Communist Chinese territory.

President Rhee of South Korea insisted that the country be reunited. On October 1, ROK forces crossed the 38th parallel. Two weeks later, China's prime minister warned that if U.S. forces crossed the parallel, China would enter the war. On October 9, U.S. forces crossed into North Korea. MacArthur met with Truman the next week and advised him that he saw little chance of the Chinese entering the war, which would be over by Thanksgiving.

On October 26, the ROK was attacked by Chinese troops inside of North Korea. On November 1 and 2, Chinese forces attacked the U.S. Army and then the Marines. However, no further action was taken. These forces were said to be "volunteers." MacArthur argued that the North Korean army had been destroyed. He then launched an offensive that carried U.S. troops all the way to the Yalu River. MacArthur had clearly exceeded his authorization. In April of 1951, President Truman in effect fired MacArthur.

Chosin Reservoir

On November 2, a Chinese prisoner indicated that large numbers of Chinese troops were operating within the Chosin Reservoir area. That same day, Marines engaged and defeated Chinese troops at the Battle of Sudong. After four days of fierce fighting the 124th division of the

Chinese Communist Forces (CCF) were so badly beaten that they were never again a threat in Korea. However, by November 27, the CCF began a counterattack.

The Marines were now ordered to move along the road to Yudam-ni through the Toktong Pass. **Colonel Lewis "Chesty" Puller's** 1st Marines were strung out along the Main Supply Route (MSR). The 5th Marines moved to the west on November 27. That night at the Chosin Reservoir it snowed, and the temperature dropped to 20 degrees below zero. Suddenly eight divisions of Chinese came pouring out of the mountains intent on destroying the 1st Marine Division. The Marines were surrounded. There was concern that the Marines' equipment would have to be abandoned and that the Marines would have to work their way back to Hungnam. When asked if the Marines were retreating, Gen. Smith responded, "Retreat! We are coming out as a Marine division. We are bringing out our equipment, our wounded, and our dead. Retreat Hell! We're just fighting in the other direction."

The going was difficult. The Marines were forced to leapfrog rifle companies along the high ground on the side of the MSR so that the convoy would be safe. The convoy itself was an inviting target. Trucks, jeeps, tanks, and Marines were jammed together on the narrow mountain road. The dead and many of the wounded were lashed onto the vehicles. The weather was brutally cold and in many places there was only a steep cliff on one side and a solid wall of mountain on the other. There was little margin for error.

On the final march to the sea, the Marines would be forced to fight the Chinese every step of the way. Finally, on December 12, the Marines reached Hungnam. Out of a total of 4,400 casualties, 730 were killed. The Chinese had lost 25,000. The division that had been given up

for dead was safe, and they had brought out their equipment and wounded. The spirit of the Marines was aptly expressed by Colonel Puller when he said, “They have us surrounded. They won’t get away this time.”



Stalemate

The fighting in Korea now centered on the 38th parallel. It resembled the trench warfare of World War I. The fighting was confined mostly to small unit attacks and skirmishes. The enemy now proposed a **truce**. The Communist and UN negotiators met to discuss an **armistice** in July of 1951.

In an isolated area, small (10-person) Marine helicopters landed 224 fully equipped combat troops and nearly 18,000 pounds of cargo in four hours. It was the first helicopter borne landing of a combat unit. Marine helicopters soon became a familiar sight in Korea.

In the spring of 1953, fierce fighting occurred at places with names like Reno, Vegas,

Carson, Bunker Hill, Dagmar, and Outpost Berlin. However, no real movement occurred for either side.

Finally, after two years of on/off discussions, an armistice was signed on July 27, 1953. The war had simply stopped.

Conclusion

The war in Korea ended where it started. North and South Korea returned to their sides of the 38th parallel. Today, this border still exists and both sides still want to unify the country under their political ideology. The total U.S. casualties included 136,000 killed, missing, or wounded. Of these, 4,262 Marines died. Communist aggression was halted. The attempt of the ROK to take over the north was also stopped.

The use of the helicopter saved untold lives, as injured were brought back to military hospitals. The flack jacket was also used for the first time in this war and saved serious injury or death for many more members of the armed forces. The way the Korean War ended with no real victors, clearly indicated that the confrontations between communist and noncommunist world would continue for some time into the future. ❖

The Fifties and Early Sixties

PURPOSE

The end of the Korean War did not provide a clear victor. What it did show was that Communist aggression would not be tolerated and that the enormous power of the United States had limits. These lessons were learned at a cost of 1.4 million casualties for the Communists and 996,937 for the United Nations troops. The Fifties proved to be a time of great mistrust between the Communists and the Western Democracies.

This lesson will describe the era that preceded the Vietnam War both militarily and politically. Most military actions between Korea and the Vietnam era were on a much smaller scale than those two period defining events.

the agreement not to enter the territory, air space, or waters under control of the other.

At the same time, politics again played an important role in the status of the Marine Corps. Two former members of the Marine Corps in Congress introduced a bill that permanently established Marine divisions and Marine air wings. After much discussion, President Truman signed **Public Law 416** that sanctioned three Marine divisions and three Marine air wings. The “force in readiness” concept was accepted. The law also provided the Commandant with co-equal status with the Joint Chiefs of Staff when Marine Corps related matters were considered.

Even though the level of involvement and the intensity of action were not as great, the Marines were involved in a number of military engagements during the 1950s.

Introduction

The armistice in Korea did not end the tension between the communists to the north and the non-communists in the south. Marines remained in Korea until 1955. U.S. armed forces continue to serve south of the 38th parallel today. Generally, the personnel of the Republic of Korea (ROK) staff the **Demilitarized Zone (DMZ)**.

The Korean Demilitarized Zone is an area of land 4,000 yards-wide straddling the 151 mile long Military Demarcation Line (MDL). The armistice established the DMZ along the approximate line of ground contact between the opposing forces at the time the truce ended the Korean War. The opposing sides consented under



The Cold War

When **President Dwight Eisenhower** took office in 1953, he shared Truman's doctrine of communist containment. Eisenhower believed the Communists sought world supremacy by any means possible. In many cases, the Communists appealed to nationalists who were trying to rid themselves of dictators. In other cases, they appealed to rebels for economic reasons. In any case, Eisenhower and many other Americans viewed the battle against Communism as a war of good versus evil. Because Eisenhower was concerned about the Soviets and the Chinese expanding their ideology by any means necessary around the world, he favored a policy of **massive retaliation**. The United States, under this doctrine, was prepared to use atomic weapons if the nation or its vital interests were attacked.

Once it was discovered that the Communists received atomic bomb secrets from American spies, there was an attempt to identify Communists in the U.S. government. **Senator Joseph McCarthy** used his power as the head of a Senate committee to investigate potential Communists in the State Department. He claimed to have a list identifying more than two hundred Communists in the State Department. Although none were ever identified, McCarthy received a great deal of publicity. People all over the country were fearful about the spread of Communism. McCarthy provided people to blame for the failure of the United States to win a decisive victory in Korea or for Communist advances in Eastern Europe. Ultimately, McCarthy's tactics of **intimidation** and **guilt by association** were questioned, and the Senate condemned him. McCarthy tried to frighten people by intimidating them. He led people to believe that individuals were Communists if they were associated with Communists or Communist sympathizers.

While the United States did not engage in direct battle against the Soviets or the Communist Chinese during this period, Communist factions supported many of the military actions listed below that took place in countries around the world.

Military Engagements of the Fifties and Early Sixties

- 1953 – Brig. Gen. Wilburt Brown led 2,200 Marines and 40 Marine helicopters in maneuvers in Nevada after a simulated atomic explosion.
- 1954 – When the government of Guatemala was overthrown, the Marines were called in to protect U.S. citizens and property.

On November 10, the Iwo Jima Memorial was officially dedicated at Arlington Cemetery.

- 1955 – Marines helped move 26,000 Chinese from an island off the coast of mainland Communist China to Taiwan.
- 1956 – In January, a mob tried to break into the American Consulate in East Jerusalem. Four rioters were killed and others were injured. Even though they were not involved in the deaths of the rioters, Jordan banned the Marines.

In November, Marines helped evacuate Americans from Egypt and a UN truce team from Israel during the **Suez Crisis**. The Suez Crisis began in July when the President Gamal Abdel Nasser of Egypt nationalized the Suez Canal. Nationalizing the canal meant that Egypt took control of the canal. The canal was important to the shipping and security interests of Great Britain, France, and Israel. Nasser had Soviet support and weapons. At

this time, the Arab world split into those who were pro-West and those who favored a pro-Arab nationalist policy. Ultimately, the UN and the U.S. helped negotiate a settlement.

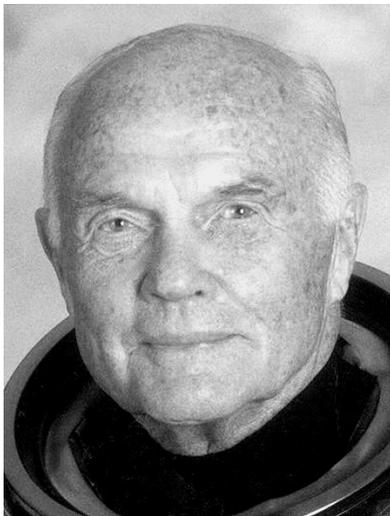
- 1957 – Marines were in Indonesia during a revolt.

Marine helicopters assisted flood victims in Ceylon and Spain.

- 1958 – Marines were flown in to Caribbean bases after Vice-President Nixon was stoned by a mob in Venezuela.

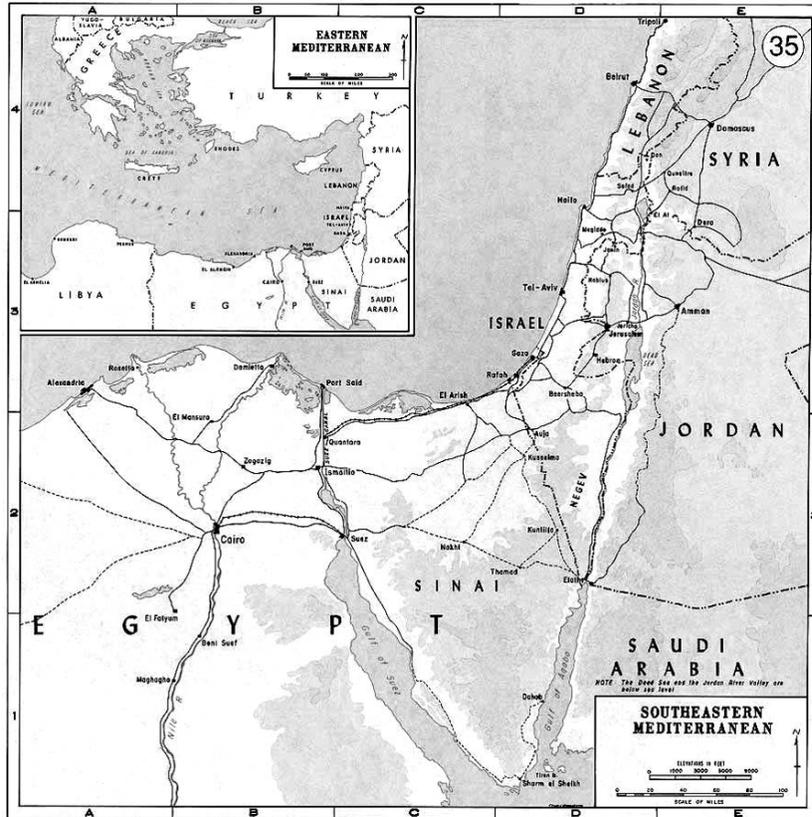
Marines stationed at Guantanamo were kidnapped by Castro rebels and later released. During fighting between the rebels lead by Fidel Castro and the Cuban army, Marines entered Cuban territory to protect their water supply.

A Marine Air Group flew to Taiwan to support the Nationalists after the Chinese Communists bombed the islands of Quemoy and Little Quemoy.



- 1962 – In October, as part of the **Cuban Missile Crisis**, the President John Kennedy announced a blockade of Cuba after discovering that Soviet missiles were being assembled on the island located only 90 miles from Florida. The entire Marine Corps was placed on worldwide alert. Marines were deployed to Key West, Florida and the Caribbean in case an invasion of Cuba was necessary. The blockade was successful in preventing the Soviets from sending additional materials into Cuba. Eventually, the Soviets withdrew the missiles that were in place.

On February 20, 1962, **Lt. Col. John Glenn** became the first American to orbit the earth three times in an American space capsule. Glen served in the Marines from 1942 until 1965 and flew 59 combat missions in the Pacific during World War II and 90 combat missions in Korea. He earned the Distinguished Flying Cross several times among his many air medals. After the Korean War, he became a test pilot. In October of 1998, at age 77, Glenn returned to space aboard the space shuttle Discovery.



Lebanon – 1958

Lebanon in 1958 included a number of political coalitions. The government included Christian, Moslem, Jewish, and Druze interests. When the French controlled Lebanon, these interests were kept in check. After the Suez Crisis, with the French gone, it became difficult to walk the tight walk between Western and pro-Arab interests. When rioting began, Lebanon's President Camille Chamoun asked the U.S., Britain, and France to intervene.

When Iraqi military officers overthrew the pro-Western government of Iraq and

murdered King Faisal, tensions in the Middle East reached new heights. On July 14, after consulting with the Joint Chiefs of Staff, President Eisenhower decided to send in the amphibious units of the Sixth Fleet. The objective was to protect the Lebanese government and prevent an invasion by the Syrian army with its 200 Soviet tanks.

The Marines were ordered to land south of Beirut and to take the airport. There was no rebel opposition and the Syrians did not attack. Taking the airport was a fairly simple task. However, shortly thereafter, General Fuad Chehab commander of the Lebanese army and

U.S. Ambassador Robert McClintock's naval attaché asked the Marines to move from the airport to the Beirut docks. The Marines refused, but they did agree to keep the airport open to commercial air traffic.

The Lebanese landing was unusual to say the least. The Marines were prepared to move into Beirut, but the Lebanese army stood in the way of the advance. It was only through negotiation between Ambassador McClintock, President Chamoun, and Gen. Chehab that a dangerous confrontation was avoided. Ironically, it was the Lebanese government that invited the U.S. into their country, and it was the Lebanese army that was preventing them from entering Beirut.

In general, the rebel activity was limited to occasional sniper fire. By the end of July, Beirut was encircled by U.S. troops. Plans to end the intervention were brought before the UN. A Security Council resolution from Japan to allow the UN to protect Lebanon was vetoed by the Soviet Union. The U.S. determined that the problems in Lebanon were more internal than external. The U.S. felt that Lebanon needed to conduct an election. After assuring the various factions that the U.S. was not trying to keep President Chamoun in power, an election was held. Chamoun was elected again.

The Marines began to pull out late that summer, and by September 29, the 3rd Battalion, 6th Marines left Lebanon. The U.S. proved that it would support countries that feared a loss of their independence through whatever means necessary.

Conclusion

The Fifties and early Sixties were a period of U.S. history marked by the Cold War and by a fear that the Communists were going to take over countries all over the world. During this period,

the U.S. followed the doctrines of Truman and Eisenhower that called for the containment of Communist expansion. Tensions around the world heightened because weapons of mass destruction supported these opposing ideologies. In communities all over the U.S., people were stocking “fall-out” shelters in fear of nuclear attack. An era of mistrust that would spill over into a “hot war” in Vietnam. ❖

The Dominican Republic and the War in Vietnam

PURPOSE

*During the first half of the century, U.S. intervention in the affairs of Latin American countries was accepted if not favored by the countries of the Western Hemisphere. President Franklin Roosevelt established the Good Neighbor policy, and President John Kennedy founded the Alliance for Progress designed to mend relationships with our neighbors to the south. However, the introduction of Communism into Cuba led the U.S. to believe that the United States must stand as the representative for democracy. This lesson will discuss U.S. actions to thwart Communism in the **Dominican Republic** and Vietnam. One of these efforts was successful. The other was not.*

Introduction

Imagine setting up a row of dominoes. If you push the first domino, one after the other will also fall. The doctrines of President Truman and President Eisenhower were designed to stop communism from spreading. By providing economic support and using the threat of military actions, the Truman and Eisenhower Doctrines were effective in keeping communism in check. President Eisenhower applied the **Domino Theory** to his policy. He argued that if one country in Southeast Asia were taken over by the communists, others would fall like dominoes until Australia itself was threatened. It was because of the Domino Theory that the U.S. intervened in Vietnam. **President Lyndon Johnson** first went

into the Dominican Republic because of the concern of Communism spreading in Latin America. The expansion of the U.S. military activity in Vietnam was designed to prevent the dominoes from falling.



The Dominican Republic

In April of 1965, the 6th Marine Expeditionary Unit (MEU) was on board six U.S. Navy ships on cruise in the Caribbean. On April 24, word reached the U.S. that a rebellion against the government of Donald Reid Cabral was underway. Cabral had taken power when he and a group of military leaders overthrew the constitutionally elected government of Juan Bosch, who escaped to Puerto Rico. President Johnson officially recognized the new government based on the agreement that elections would be held in 1965. Now Bosch forces were back trying to retake the government. There was also an anti-Bosch group determined to prevent him from taking over the government.

To safeguard American citizens against the new government overthrow, an evacuation of U.S. and other foreign nationals began on April 27. U.S. Ambassador W. Tapley Bennett, Jr., asked

for Marines to assist in the evacuation. Just as it seemed that Bosch would retake power, the anti-Bosch forces captured the capital. The head of the new **military junta**, also asked for some Marines help restore order. A junta is a group of military officers ruling a country after taking power. President Johnson was faced with the request to support a group that had overthrown a constitutionally elected government. The U.S. was concerned that if they did not support the Dominican military, Communists might take over. The U.S. suspected that Bosch was pro-Communist. The U.S. decided to remain neutral for the time being. Marines were also asked to help protect the U.S. Embassy, which was being fired upon by rebels.

When the situation grew worse on the next day, and the U.S. Embassy came under heavy fire, more than 1,500 Marines landed at Santo Domingo. More people were evacuated. The Marines and the 82nd Airborne established an international safety zone to separate the warring forces. The United States called on the **Organization of American States (OAS)** to create an Inter-American Peace Force to restore peace and a constitutional government. The OAS agreed and support troops were brought in from Paraguay, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Brazil. The U.S. troops began to withdraw. Even though the leadership of the troops was given to a Brazilian commander, Lt. Gen. Bruce Palmer, USA was made his deputy. Marines and Army troops fought the rebels from time to time until peace was restored. Of the 8,000 Marine troops that were involved in the Dominican uprising, nine were killed and 30 wounded.

Fearing a Communist take over, the U.S. used its power to support a military faction opposed to the democratically elected government. The U.S. was accused of **imperialism**. The major criticism was that the

U.S. had gotten militarily involved in the internal affairs of another country.



Vietnam

The involvement of the United States in Vietnam goes back to World War II. In an effort to fight the Japanese, **Ho Chi Minh** provided support for the U.S. He helped rescue downed American pilots and provided information about the movements of the Japanese military. Ho established the Indochinese Communist Party and its military branch, the **Viet Minh** in 1941. During the war, the U.S. and the Communists were allies against Japan and Germany. Ho Chi Minh declared Vietnam to be an independent nation

after the Japanese surrendered. The new country was called the Democratic Republic of Vietnam. However, the French who had controlled what was called Indochina before the war challenged this move. Various nationalists groups joined the Viet Minh in an effort to liberate Vietnam from France. A war broke out in 1946 that ended in the defeat of the French at Dien Bien Phu in 1954.

Even though the United States supported Vietnamese independence from France during the war, the fear of Communism spreading in Southeast Asia changed U.S. policy in the area. While President Eisenhower would not send in troops to support the French, U.S. financial aid supported the French cause. After the defeat at Dien Bien Phu, the armistice conference held in Geneva produced a document that came to be known as the **Geneva Accords**. This agreement divided Vietnam at the 17th parallel. Communist Viet Minh forces moved north of that line. The Geneva Accords also provided for nationwide unifying elections in the summer of 1956. The U.S. did not sign the agreements because they were concerned that the election would result in the Communists controlling the entire country. The U.S. continued to provide economic and to some extent military support, in an advisory capacity, to the non-Communist government in the south headed by Premier Ngo Dinh Diem.

In an effort to secure his power base in South Vietnam, Diem used **repressive** tactics including political arrests and corruption. Because of these tactics, by late 1960 support in South Vietnam for the Communists had grown and resentment toward the U.S. increased. During this time, an organization called the National Liberation Front of South Vietnam or the **Viet Cong** (VC) was formed with the purpose of overthrowing the Diem regime and forcing Americans out of Vietnam. Diem's treatment of his own people eventually contributed to the end

of his rule. At one point Buddhist monks protested his cruelty by setting themselves on fire as a protest. Eventually, Diem and his brother were killed in a military coup and replaced by Generals Thieu and Ky.

In 1961, American involvement was still limited. The first Marines did not arrive until April of 1962 when the Marine Medium Helicopter Squadron 362 landed in the Mekong Delta. The primary purpose of Squad 362 was to transport supplies and troops into areas threatened by possible Communist Viet Cong take over. Marines were also involved as advisors for the Vietnamese Marine Corps and starting in 1964 for the South Vietnamese army.

1965 - Escalation

In February 1965, shortly after the celebration of **Tet** (a major religious festival), the Viet Cong attacked two military installations. A large number of Americans were killed. President Johnson then ordered bombing of military targets in North Vietnam. By March, it was clear that the weakening government of South Vietnam would require U.S. combat forces to intervene as well.

On March 6, the Pentagon announced that two battalions of Marines, totaling 3,500 troops, were going to be sent to Da Nang to protect the air base there. On April 11, the first fixed-wing Marine squadron arrived in Viet Nam. Gradually, more and more Marines began arriving. Soon there were 5,000 Marines in the Da Nang area.

By July, the U.S. military presence had increased to 51,000 troops, of which 16,500 were Marines. That summer, the United States was involved in a political campaign for the Presidency. President Johnson campaigned against sending more troops to Vietnam while his opponent argued for greater intervention.

Nevertheless, the President's authority to send in more troops increased as a result of the **Gulf of Tonkin Resolution** passed in August of 1964.

By this time, it was clear that the Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN) was going to need more support than "advisers" could provide. General Westmoreland received permission to commit U.S. forces to battle when needed.

Another political aspect of the decision to increase the troop numbers in Vietnam was the decision to increase the number of men drafted into the service from 17,000 per month to 35,000 per month. It is important to note that in 1965 all males reaching the age of 18 were required by law to register with the Selective Service. The Selective Service drafted a number of men each month into the armed forces. The decision to double the number of draftees made opposition to the war more vocal within the U.S.

Operation Starlite

An offensive operation by the United States was launched on August 18, 1965, under the name **Operation Starlite**. Information reported that there was a concentration of 2,000 Viet Cong south of Chu Lai. The Marines began their first regimental-sized battle by U.S. troops since Korea. Hitting the enemy on three sides, Operation Starlite was the successful use of the theory of "vertical envelopment." The theory called for using helicopters to insert Marines behind enemy beach defenses. By August 24, about 700 Viet Cong had been killed: a planned attack against Chu Lai had been frustrated; and the Viet Cong learned that it would be a difficult task to defeat the Marines in a standup battle.

Operation Golden Fleece

That year the Marines also engaged in operation Golden Fleece. In order to keep the

enemy from receiving supplies during the harvest season, Marines prevented rice crops from reaching Viet Cong hands.

Operation Harvest Moon

Operation Harvest Moon took place late in 1965 and was designed to attack the Viet Cong units that had moved into the Khe Sanh valley. The VC destroyed two ARVN battalions. The Marines sent in two battalions. B-52s provided air support. But somehow, the Viet Cong seemed to disappear. The Marines lost 45 killed and 218 wounded. There were more than 400 enemy dead. Numerous supplies and pieces of VC equipment were captured. By the end of the year, there were 180,000 American troops in Viet Nam, including 38,000 Marines.

1966-67 The War Continues

In mid-1966, reports indicated that the North Vietnamese Army (NVA) had crossed the 17th parallel and were heading into South Vietnam. The Marines sent in 8,000 troops to keep the NVA from crossing through the Demilitarized Zone. Air Force B-52s bombed the NVA. The Marines continued to defend the DMZ as the North Vietnamese repeatedly tried to cross into the South.

The primary tactic of the U.S. revolved around a strategy called **Pacification**. Pacification was designed to free the South Vietnamese villages from control of the Viet Cong. The U.S. intended to provide the villagers with security, and to encourage them to support the South Vietnamese government. As part of the Pacification program, **Operation County Fair** was designed to win the confidence of the people by helping them with health and sanitation problems. During these operations in the villages outside Da Nang, the Marines dug wells, built schools, funded orphanages, supplied hospitals,

and distributed food. By the end of 1967, Marines had distributed about five million pounds of food, 270,000 pounds of clothing, and 2.5 million South Vietnamese had received medical or dental treatment.

In 1967, there were 110 major operations, battalion-sized or larger, and each one of those, which resulted in major contact with the enemy, produced a victory for the Marines. More than 356,000 small-unit operations were also conducted. These operations included platoon and squad-sized patrols and ambushes, which went on day and night. The escalation had now moved from increased numbers of troops to increased numbers of actions against the enemy.

1968 – Tet and Khe Sanh

The year 1968 marked a major change in the war both at home and abroad. On January 20, the 26th Marines came under siege for two and a half months at the Khe Sanh base just south of the DMZ. Although the NVA fired thousands of shells at the defenders, there was no concentrated ground attack. When General Westmoreland started shifting more forces to Khe Sanh, the NVA broke the truce in observance of the Tet holiday and attacked the cities.

Military installations and population centers were attacked by indirect fire and ground attacks. While most of the attacks were pushed back, the enemy was able to hold the city of Hue until late February. Because Hue was populated with thousands of people and because of its ancient history, using bombers to push out the Communists was not an option. The Marines were forced to engage in house-to-house combat. After 26 days of fighting, the enemy losses reached 5,000 dead.

The results of the Tet offensive were not what the enemy had expected. Prisoners later

explained that the coordinated attacks against the cities were designed to collapse the South Vietnamese government and its armed forces. They also hoped for heavy losses of U.S. troops and a general uprising of the Vietnamese people.

At home, the political war continued to grow as well. President Johnson announced that he would not seek re-election. The televised nightly news reported each day's numbers of dead and wounded. No war had ever come into American homes so vividly. Anti-war protests on college campuses against the war spread to the Democratic Convention in Chicago where rioting occurred. Richard Nixon was elected President campaigning that he had a plan to end the war.

1969 – Vietnamization and Withdrawal

President Nixon met with South Vietnamese President Thieu in June of 1969 and announced plans for the first major withdrawal of troops. Nixon's plan, called **Vietnamization**, was designed to turn more and more of the conduct of the war over to the army of South Vietnam. With each passing month, more and more Marines were relocated or sent home. Nevertheless, in the next three years, 15,000 more Americans were killed. Pacification, which once had meant trying to win the hearts and minds of the people, now became an effort to bomb villages, destroy crops, and remove peasants from the land to find the Viet Cong.

Even with the Vietnamization plan, the U.S. continued to try to keep the North Vietnamese out of South Vietnam. In 1971, U.S. air raids in Laos to cut the off the enemy's entry into South Vietnam from that direction. The bombing killed thousands of the NVA, but almost 90 American helicopters were also destroyed. The South Vietnamese were unable to compete with the battle tested NVA. Vietnamization meant a decrease in the troop numbers for the U.S., but

Nixon's approach to the war included an expansion of the U.S. air war into Laos and Cambodia.

The last U.S. troops left Vietnam in August of 1972, but the war continued. Peace talks had begun in 1968, but when the progress stopped in 1972, President Nixon ordered heavy bombing of North Vietnam. The bombing included the capital of Hanoi where a dozen B-52s were shot down.

Conclusion

The longest war in U.S. history ended when the peace talks finally provided a ceasefire in January of 1973. Between 1965 and 1973 about 448,000 Marines served in Vietnam. U.S. casualties in Vietnam during the era of direct U.S. involvement (1961–72) were more than 50,000 dead; South Vietnamese dead were estimated at more than 400,000; and Viet Cong and North Vietnamese at over 900,000. In 1973, when they left Vietnam, the U.S. armed forces left behind billions of dollars worth of equipment for the South Vietnamese army to use to defend itself. However, at the end of April in 1975, Operation Frequent Wind was put into action. This operation was the final evacuation of Saigon by helicopter. Marines protected the U.S. Embassy until the evacuation was complete. The last eleven Marines exchanged fire with the enemy outside the embassy gates, and the last Marine carrying the embassy's flag boarded the last helicopter. ❖

Post Vietnam and the 80s

PURPOSE

The war in Vietnam took a great toll in the United States. Vietnam was the longest war fought by the U.S. More than 55,000 Americans in uniform died and more than 300,000 were wounded in the Vietnam War. The psychological effects on the Vietnam veterans were also devastating. Americans who put their lives on the line for their country were not treated as heroes. The clashes between anti-war protesters and the government caused a rift. The healing would take a long time. Nevertheless, the post-Vietnam era still required the armed forces to be vigilant. This lesson will identify some of the activities that engaged the Marines between 1975 and 1990.

Introduction

The communists in Cambodia gained control of that country at about the same time that Vietnam fell. Was the Domino Theory going to be proven true? During the next 15 years, it became apparent that while Communism was still a threat in some parts of the world, there were other forces at work that would require the attention of the Marines. Even when other issues such as Nationalism replaced communism, it was sometimes necessary to protect U.S. interests by sending in the Marines.

Cambodia

Evacuation

The North Vietnamese used Cambodia, which shares a western border with Vietnam, as a route to get supplies and forces into the south. The Cambodian communists, known as the **Khmer Rouge**, became more and more powerful in the early 1970s. By April of 1975, the Khmer Rouge had surrounded the capital city of Phnom Penh. With rockets and artillery rounds landing inside the city and with ground forces expected to follow, the U.S. Ambassador called for an urgent evacuation of American personnel.

Operation Eagle Pull relied on the ships of the 7th Fleet as its base. Combat Marines were lifted by helicopter to a soccer field near the U.S. Embassy. The Marines formed a defensive perimeter and organized a landing zone. More helicopters arrived to take the more than 300 Americans and other foreign nationals to safety.

The *Mayaguez*

On May 12, 1975, one month after the evacuation of Americans from the U.S. Embassy in Cambodia, a Cambodian gunboat illegally seized the ***Mayaguez***. Even though the American merchant ship was in international waters, it was taken captive to Koh Tang Island. Koh Tang is southwest of Cambodia. When diplomatic efforts failed to produce results, President Gerald Ford ordered a coordinated air, land, and sea assault. Marines, under the command of Lt. Col. Randall Austin were flown onto Koh Tang Island with the mission of seizing the island and locating any U.S. seamen who might be held captive there. Meanwhile, a Marine boarding party secured the *Mayaguez*, which they found abandoned. The merchant ship was then towed out to sea.

On May 14, Lt. Col. Austin's 179 troops came under heavy fire. Two helicopters were downed and one was turned back at the landing zone. The combat was close, Austin reported, "The enemy threw hand grenades at our people, and we would pick them up and throw them back." With the help of Air Force bombing strikes, the Marines were able to drive back the Cambodians. Eleven Marines were killed and 41 wounded in the rescue effort that was not really a rescue. Ironically, the crew of the *Mayaguez* had been returned two hours before the Marine attacks began.

America Held Hostage

Nine Marines and forty-three civilians were taken hostage in the U.S. Embassy in Tehran, Iran on the 4th of November 1979. They were held hostage for 444 days before a release was negotiated. The TV show *Nightline* began each broadcast with an announcement of the number of days Americans had been held hostage.



Lebanon

In Lebanon on October 23, 1983, an explosion shattered the quiet Sunday morning and 241 Americans were killed, including 220 Marines. A five-ton open bed truck carrying the equivalent of 12,000 pounds of TNT was deliberately crashed into a building where servicemen were sleeping.

U.S. involvement in Lebanon goes back to at least 1958 when Marines were sent into Beirut to protect U.S. interests that were in danger because of the internal strife in the country. In August of 1982, Marines were again called into Lebanon as part of a Multinational Force (MNF). The **Palestinian Liberation Organization** (PLO) had been pushed out of Jordan and into Lebanon. When the Israeli army marched into Lebanon after them, the MNF was asked to peacefully remove the PLO from Beirut. When the evacuation was complete, the Marines were called home.

Within days of their departure the assassination of the pro-Israeli president elect, began a series of acts that resulted in a request for the return of the MNF. First, the Israelis marched into the Moslem section of Beirut, and then a group called Christian Phalangists massacred Palestinians in refugee camps. The new president asked the MNF in to protect Moslems and help get the Israeli and Syrian armies to leave. American interest in Lebanon was high because the U.S. supported the Israelis and the Soviet Union supported the Syrians. It was unclear exactly what the role of the U.S. troops was to be, but they were stationed at the Beirut Airport. Traffic in and out of the airport continued at a usual pace.

In the next several months, there was a change in the attitude of the people of Lebanon toward the American forces. At first, some

Moslem groups saw the Americans as their protectors. But later, the Moslems would be shooting at the Marines and using terrorist tactics to attack the U.S. forces in Lebanon. When the U.S. supported the Lebanese Armed Forces (LAF) with naval gunfire, the Moslem factions viewed the action as pro-Christian rather than neutral. The Marines were shelled at the airport with mortar and howitzer fire. The Marines faced heavy fire, sniper attacks, and terrorist actions. On October 12, 1983, President Ronald Reagan asked Congress for and received an 18-month extension of the authorization to keep troops in Lebanon. In less than two weeks, the battalion headquarters was destroyed.

Perhaps, it may have come as no surprise that a major terrorist attack against the U.S. would occur. In the previous seven months the following incidents took place.

- Marines were fired on by snipers on many occasions;
- Marines at the airport were shelled with rockets and artillery repeatedly;
- A car bomb exploded at the U.S. Embassy in Beirut in April killing 17 Americans;
- Only a week the before October 23 attack, four Marines were wounded when they prevented at car bomb attack on a Marine convoy.

The immediate reaction for the U.S. to the bombing was to name commissions and to investigate the scene. The American people wanted to know how the bombing could have occurred. The Secretary of Defense concluded that Iranians carried out the suicide attack on the Marines with the sponsorship, knowledge, and authority of the Syrian government.

The U.S. also began to take action against future attacks. A nine-foot-high dike, a tank ditch, barbed wire, and other obstacles surrounded the perimeter at the airport. The Marines were prepared for suicide missions.

In February 1984, the fighting between the Lebanese army and the different Moslem factions reached a critical point. The Syrians and Soviets strongly supported the anti-government forces. The government faced a new challenge. The Moslem militias called for all Moslems to leave the LAF. With their forces now depleted, the Lebanese president was forced to change his policy toward Israel and side with the wishes of the Syrians, Iranians, and Soviets. Shortly thereafter, the U.S. contingent of the Multinational Force was ordered to withdraw. By the end of February 1984, the Marines were out of Lebanon.

One terrorist was quoted as saying that it only took two martyrs to get the Marines out of Lebanon—one who blew up the Embassy and one who drove the truck into the barracks.

Grenada

“Grenada, we were told, was a friendly island paradise for tourism. Well, it wasn’t. It was a Soviet-Cuban colony being readied as a major military bastion to export terror and undermine democracy. We got there just in time.”

President Ronald Reagan

“The invasion of Grenada was opposed by the British, the French, the West Germans, the Italians, the Canadians and most members of the Organization of American States.” J. Robert Moskin, [The U.S. Marine Corps Story](#)

Grenada is an island in the eastern Caribbean between the Caribbean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. It is about twice the size as the District of Columbia. It was once a former British colony. There were approximately 600 American medical students on the island attending St. George's University Medical School in 1983.

When the Prime Minister was assassinated, some U.S. officials were concerned that American students might be taken hostage. Others expressed the fear that Cuba would try to impose its version of Communism on the island and set up an air base for the Soviet Union. Still others expressed the concern that the oil routes between the U.S. and Venezuela were threatened.

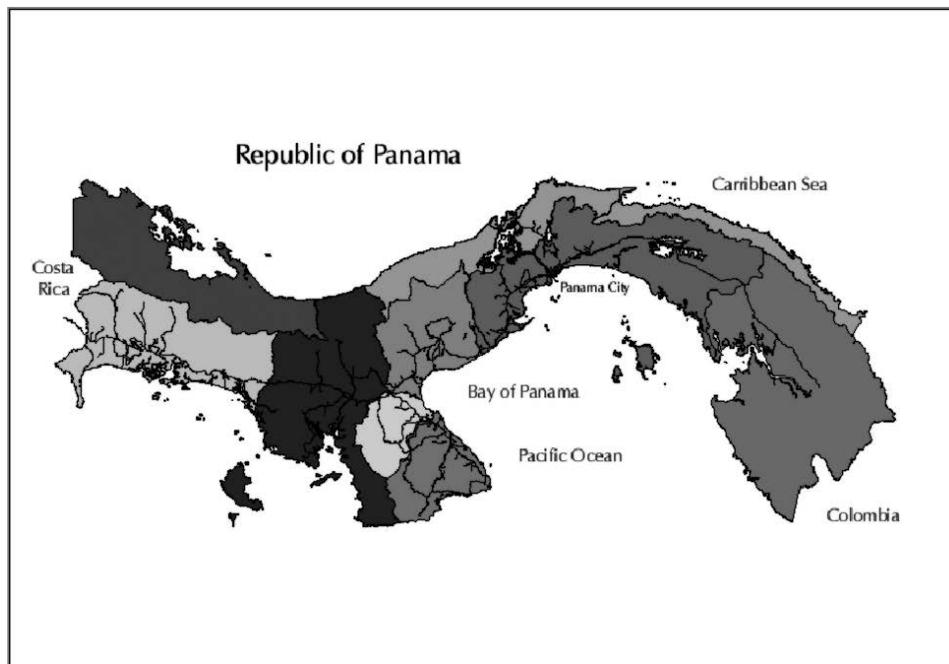
On the morning of October 23, 1983, President Reagan announced that forces of six Caribbean nations and the United States had landed on the island of Grenada to restore order and democracy and to safeguard the lives of U.S. citizens.

The operation was called **Urgent Fury** and was a combined effort of the Marines, the Navy, the Air Force, and the Army. Because the beaches around Pearls Airport were not suited for amphibian tractors, it was decided that the landing would be by air. Twenty-one helicopters brought in two companies of Marines under cover of darkness and landed them just south of the airport. The airfield was taken with little resistance. They moved on to the town of Grenville, where there was no opposition. The Marines were pleased to discover that the local population welcomed them and helped them identify the enemy.

Army Rangers met more opposition near the Point Salines Airfield where they landed. However, they were able to secure the area and move on to St. George's University. The American students were evacuated, taken to the

Point Salines Airfield, and flown to the U.S. By November 2, the Marines were returned to their ships, which had been on their way to Lebanon when they were redirected to Grenada.

The strength of the resistance forces on Grenada was overestimated. Americans lost 19 military dead of which 3 were Marines. Those three were pilots. They died after missiles shot down their helicopters. While fewer Cubans and other armed forces were encountered than had been expected, the U.S. did uncover Soviet made military supplies in several locations around the island.



Panama

Panama is a country that borders both the Caribbean Sea and the North Pacific Ocean. It lies between Colombia and Costa Rica. It has strategic importance for the United States because the Panama Canal, which connects the Atlantic with the Pacific Oceans, is located there.

General Manuel Noriega was the dictator of Panama in 1989. When he came to power in 1983, the U.S. supported him. However, in the years that followed, he became involved in the export of illegal drugs and was indicted by the U.S. courts in 1988. Attempts to remove him from power in his own country failed. When he lost an election in the spring of 1989, he simply **annulled**, or cancelled, the result. When officers of the Panama Defense Forces (PDF) attempted a coup in October of 1989, he rallied support and had the rebel leaders killed. When Marine 1st Lt.

Robert Paz was killed by PDF forces, the U.S. decided to take matters into its own hands.

Paz was unarmed and off-duty when he and three other American officers were stopped at a PDF checkpoint. The Americans were looking for a restaurant at the time. One of the PDF tried to pull someone out of the car, and the car drove off. Paz was hit when the PDF fired at the vehicle.

On December 19, 1989, President George Bush ordered the implementation of **Operation Just Cause** designed to capture Noriega and eliminate his military support. Noriega had no air force and no tanks. His army consisted of 13,000 troops but only about a quarter of them was judged combat worthy.

There were 650 Marines stationed in Panama at the time. They were assigned to the west side of the Panama Canal Zone and were reinforced by I company of the 6th Marines on

December 20. Marines were used to seal off both ends of the Bridge of the Americas and to set up a roadblock south of Howard Air Force Base. After some sniper fire and an initial launching of six rocket-propelled grenades into the American compound, the PDF surrendered or disappeared into the countryside. Noriega was captured as he sought sanctuary in the Vatican consulate. He was brought to the U.S. where he was tried, found guilty, and imprisoned for the drug charges.

Marines now tried to control the crime and looting in the streets. More than 200 Panamanians were killed. While Americans suffered 23 dead, nine of those were from friendly fire.

Conclusion

Even though the post-Vietnam era did not face long-term face-to-face confrontations with communists, the period was still marked by an effort to contain communist influence. It is noteworthy that Soviet support was behind what might otherwise be considered a religious or nationalist struggle in Lebanon. In Grenada, the President identified the potential of communism spreading throughout the area as a primary reason behind our island invasion.

Another point to make about the 1980s is that the use of terrorist attacks against U.S. citizens and troops became more of a tactic than an isolated incident. Suicide missions in time of war were nothing new to the Marines, but the destruction of the battalion headquarters in Lebanon demonstrated that our nation's enemies would employ a terrorist strategy randomly. ❖

The Gulf War, Somalia, and Bosnia

PURPOSE

As the twentieth century ended, it became clear that the world was a different place. The Cold War was over. The Soviet Union ceased to exist. Sophisticated weaponry and intelligence gathering made it seem unlikely that there would ever be another sneak attack against the United States like Pearl Harbor. Nor was it likely that any nation would try to take over entire regions of the world as Japan and Germany did in the first half of the century. Instead, it seemed likely that military issues would be localized. It also seemed that other countries would react quickly and in a cooperative manner to force a resolution, if necessary. The primary military actions involving the United States in the 1990s, the Gulf War, Somalia, and Bosnia, are examples of this type of effort.

U.S. to not act alone, but to use diplomatic efforts to gain support for a military action. The Gulf War is the best example of international cooperation prior to military action.

The Gulf War

The direct cause of the U.S. intervention into the Persian Gulf area was Iraq invading Kuwait on August 2, 1990. **Saddam Hussein**, the Iraqi leader, wanted to pay the debt caused by an eight-year war with Iran. One way to raise money was to have the oil producing countries like Iraq and Kuwait limit their oil production and force oil prices to go higher. Hussein also claimed that Kuwait was historically a part of Iraq. When Kuwait refused to agree to his demands to limit oil production, Hussein sent 80,000 troops into the oil rich country. He announced that Iraq had annexed Kuwait and ordered the closing of embassies there. He even took U.S. and British citizens hostage. Hussein did not expect the United States to intervene.

Introduction

In the modern era, United States military intervention is seldom **unilateral**. Instead, the U.S. seeks support through the United Nations or with other countries that have a stake in the effort. The involvement of the United States in the War in Vietnam was in part connected to a commitment to the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO). The countries that signed that treaty pledged to support each other in the effort to stop Communism. Even the invasion of Grenada included the support of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States. The Marine activities of the 1990s demonstrate this commitment of the

The Iraqi army was composed of approximately one million troops. The armed forces included weapons and munitions purchased from the U.S., the Soviet Union, France, China, Germany, Brazil, Chile, and Italy. Iraq's most skillful and best-trained forces were called the **Republican Guard**.

The United Nations Security Council met immediately following the invasion, condemned Iraq, and demanded the withdrawal of troops. When there was no response, the UN passed a resolution imposing economic sanctions on Iraq.

Another resolution approved the use of force by UN members if Iraq did not withdraw its troops by January 15, 1991.

On August 7, 1990, President George Bush ordered 125,000 troops to the Persian Gulf area. Seventeen nations were involved in an effort to prevent certain goods from going to or from Iraq. This type of effort is called imposing **sanctions**.

Operation Desert Shield was the plan developed to protect Saudi Arabia from a possible Iraqi invasion. The purpose of Desert Shield was to provide a show of force to the Iraqi military in an effort to force them to pull back without fighting and also to protect Saudi Arabia in the event the Iraqi army decided to move south. Eventually, 30 nations joined the military coalition against Iraq, with another 18 countries supplying economic, humanitarian, or other types of assistance. Despite the estimate that 90 percent of its imports and exports had been cut off, Iraq did not remove its troops from Kuwait. Intelligence reports indicated that there were 300,000 Iraqi soldiers, 2,000 tanks, and 1,000 artillery pieces in Kuwait.

On January 15, 1991, President George Bush sent a memorandum to his national security advisors, outlining the goals of the coming conflict with Iraq. The President was specific in focusing U.S. military efforts in four major areas:

- To effect the immediate, complete, and unconditional withdrawal of all Iraqi forces from Kuwait;
- To restore Kuwait's legitimate government;
- To protect the lives of American citizens abroad; and

- To promote the security and the stability of the Persian Gulf.

By the time the memo, known as **National Security Directive 54**, made it to the desks of his advisors, plans were already well underway to achieve the President's goals.

On January 17, Desert Shield became **Desert Storm**. Tomahawk cruise missiles and Stealth bombers began to attack Iraqi targets. The Iraqis responded by sending Scud missiles into Saudi Arabia, Israel, and Bahrain. Patriot missiles intercepted some of the Scuds, but one got through and killed 28 U.S. Army soldiers in a barracks in Saudi Arabia. In the first two weeks, the allies flew 100,000 sorties with the aim of destroying the Iraqi communications and transport systems. When the air attacks were concluded, General Norman Schwartzkopf, USA estimated that the air effort had reduced Iraq's front line divisions by 50 percent and the second line divisions by 25 to 50 percent.

Lieutenant General Walter Boomer served as Commanding General of the 1st Marine Expeditionary Force and as Commanding General of the Marine services component at the Central Command. When the ground forces attacked on February 24 (G-day), Marine strength was at 79,751, of whom 11,703 were reservists and 1,335 women. At its peak, the Marine numbers were nearly 93,000. Thirty-one thousand reservists were activated. All the Marine ground troops wore Mission Oriented Protective Posture (MOPP) chemical protective suits and boots. Masks and gloves were to be added at the first sign the Iraqis were using gas or other chemical weapons.

On February 28, President Bush called an end to the attack. In 100 hours, the Marines could claim 1,040 enemy tanks, 608 armored personnel carriers, and 432 artillery pieces captured or destroyed. An estimated 22,300 enemy prisoners

were taken as well. Eighty-eight Americans were killed. General Schwartzkopf was quoted as saying, “I can’t say enough about the two Marine divisions. If I used words like brilliant, it would really be an under description of an absolutely superb job that they did in breaching the so-called impenetrable barrier.”

Saddam Hussein had predicted that the Gulf War would be “the mother of all battles.” However, Gen. Boomer indicated that when the Marines moved into Kuwait, no more than 25 percent of the enemy wished to fight. The rest just wanted to surrender. The strategic use of air supremacy may have made the battle seem easy, but the allies faced the danger of Iraqi use of nuclear, chemical, and biological weapons throughout the war. Some have argued that the allies should have pursued Hussein and not allowed him to continue in power. However, that was not one of the goals set by President Bush. All of the goals outlined by President Bush were achieved.



Somalia

In 1991, the Marines had helped evacuate more than 260 persons from the U.S. embassy in Mogadishu, Somalia due to civil unrest. The regime in power was thrown out and the result was a series of civil wars between clans competing for power. When the government fell apart, it was not long before many people were starving. President Bush initiated an effort to airlift food and supplies called **Project Relief**.

When fighting began between rival political groups, the 11th Marine Expeditionary Unit, who had been waiting offshore, sprang into action. On December 4, President Bush announced that U.S. troops were being sent into Somalia to reduce the famine and prepare the way for a U.N. peacekeeping force. Lieutenant General Robert Johnston, who had been General Schwartzkopf’s chief of staff, moved forward with **Operation Restore Hope**. Johnston was the Joint Task Force, Somalia commander, and Maj. Gen. Charles Wilhelm was the commander of the Marine Forces, Somalia. Each political group in Somalia was assured that the Americans would be neutral. As part of their role in the delivery of food, Marines confiscated weapons. In the absence of a formal government, Marines were forced to learn the clan system of the Somalis.

While the effort to provide help for the Somali people was a United Nations sanctioned effort, many of the troops were from the U.S. Moving to areas of fighting and trying to restore order was a difficult task at best. Gradually, the Marine involvement lessened and by March 25, 1994 the last of the troops was withdrawn. One year later, the Marines returned to cover the withdrawal of UN troops.



Bosnia

Perhaps no other place on earth is as politically confusing as a region known as the Balkans. World War I began with the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand of Austria in Serbia. Nearly one hundred years later, conflict continues in the region between members of an ethnically diverse population. Today, the Marines continue to play a peacekeeping role in the area.

Before 1991, Yugoslavia was a unified nation of republics. Then Slovenia and Croatia declared their independence from Yugoslavia. In 1992, Bosnia declared its independence as well. The U.S. and most other European nations recognized its independence, and Bosnia-Herzegovina became a member of the United Nations on May 22.

People who were ethnically Serbian did not wish to see independent countries where there

were sizable minorities who were Serbian. Bosnia has three distinct and conflicting ethnic groups. They include the following:

- Serbs who are orthodox Christians and want to see a “Greater Serbia.”
- Muslims who tend to favor an ethnically mixed state.
- Croats who are Roman Catholic and generally side with the Muslims.

Because these ethnic groups are also represented in other nations in the area (Serbia, Albania, Croatia), the dispute over who should control Bosnia carried over the boundaries of several nations.

Eventually, the **Dayton Accords** were signed on November 21 in 1995. The agreement provided that 49 percent of Bosnia would be controlled by Bosnian Serbs and 51 percent by the Croatian/Muslim Federation. The Accords focused the participants on trying to make the region politically stable. Prior to the signing of the agreement, Marines flew 99 missions in support of operations in the region. Since the Accords were signed, the U.S. has sent billions of dollars of aid to Bosnia. In addition, Marines have played a variety of roles since 1991 ranging from flying reconnaissance missions to acting as a peacekeeping unit under the United Nations’ International Implementation Force (IFOR) and providing humanitarian assistance under the title of **Operation Provide Promise**.

Conclusion

As the twenty-first century begins, the Marines find themselves in a variety of roles. Because of their flexibility and capability, they are able to respond rapidly to crises around the world. Their expeditionary character allows them to

U.S. MARINE CORPS. JROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 7 – Military History

contribute during the initial phase of a crisis as well as when the crisis turns to conflict. But the Marines are also able to provide humanitarian aid when natural disasters require quick response. The next century will continue to provide opportunities to demonstrate unique character of the Marine Corps that makes them so important to the security of Americans all over the world. ❖

Orienteering

PURPOSE

*This lesson will introduce you to **orienteering**, its techniques and terminology, as well as the various types of orienteering courses. In addition, many of the map reading and land navigation skills practiced in previous lessons will be applied.*

Introduction

Orienteering began in Scandinavia in the 1800s, primarily as a military event and as part of military training. By 1919, it had become a competitive sport in Sweden. Then in the early 1930s, the sport received a boost with the invention of an improved compass. Bjorn Kjellstrom, one of the inventors of that compass, introduced orienteering to the U. S. in 1946.

Orienteering is for all ages and degrees of fitness and skill. It provides the suspense and excitement of a treasure hunt. The object is to locate **control points** (see Illustration A) by using a map and compass to navigate the terrain.



Illustration A

Organizers of an orienteering event will give each participant a topographic map with various control points circled. Each control point has a corresponding flag marker on the ground and

a special punch, which organizers use to mark the scorecard. Competitive orienteering involves running from point to point. It is more demanding than road running, not only because of the terrain, but because the participant must make decisions, and keep track of the distances covered. Courses may be as long as 10 kilometers.

Although orienteering challenges both the mind and the body, the competitor's ability to think under pressure and make wise decisions is sometimes more important than speed or endurance. The person just starting out in orienteering should concentrate more on refining map reading and land navigation skills than on running between the control points.

Types of Orienteering Courses

There are different types of orienteering events that range from individual courses, to a relay event, to night competition. All types of orienteering courses are interesting and challenging, but they vary in their degree of difficulty. The best location for an orienteering course is one that is easily identifiable on both a map and the actual terrain. It should also be accessible from several routes. Listed below are some of the most common orienteering events/courses.

Route Orienteering

This form of orienteering can be used by beginners to the sport as well as for advanced competition. In route orienteering, a master (or advanced competitor) walks a route while beginners trace the actual route walked on the ground using their maps. Beginners circle the location of the different control points found along the walked route. When they finish, organizers analyze and

compare the maps. For beginners, time is not a factor in this event.

Another variation of route orienteering involves a course laid out with markers for the competitor to follow. Because the route is indicated with flags or markers, there is no master map. The winner of the event is the competitor who successfully traces the route and accurately plots the most control points.

Line Orienteering

In line orienteering, competitors trace on their maps a pre-selected route from a master map that has at least five control points. The object is to walk the route shown on the map, circling the control points on the map as competitors locate them on the ground. See Illustration B.

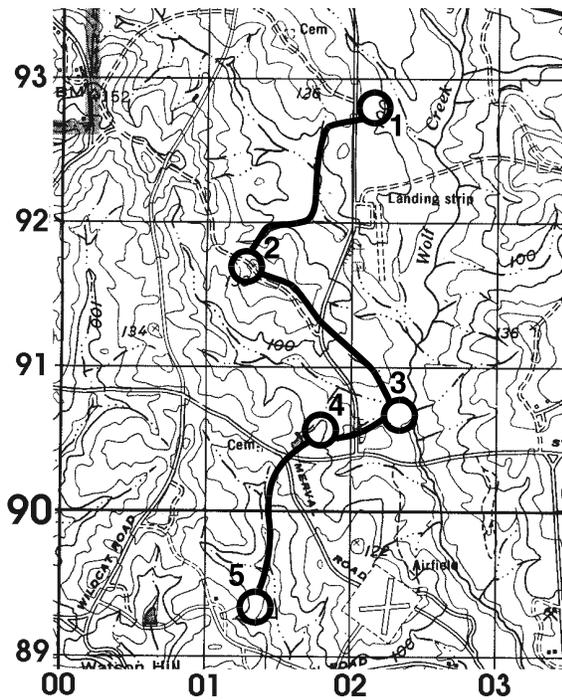


Illustration B

Cross-Country Orienteering

Cross-country (or free-point orienteering) is the most common type of orienteering competition. It is considered the most competitive and intriguing form of orienteering. In this event, all competitors must visit the same control points in the same order. With the normal one-minute starting interval, it becomes a contest of route choice and physical skill. The competitor with the fastest time is the winner.

The length and difficulty of the course is determined by the skill of the competitors. There are usually six to 12 control markers on the course in varying degrees of difficulty and distances apart so that there are no easy, direct routes. The course may be closed-in with the start and finish located at the same position (see Illustration C) or the start and finish may be at different locations.

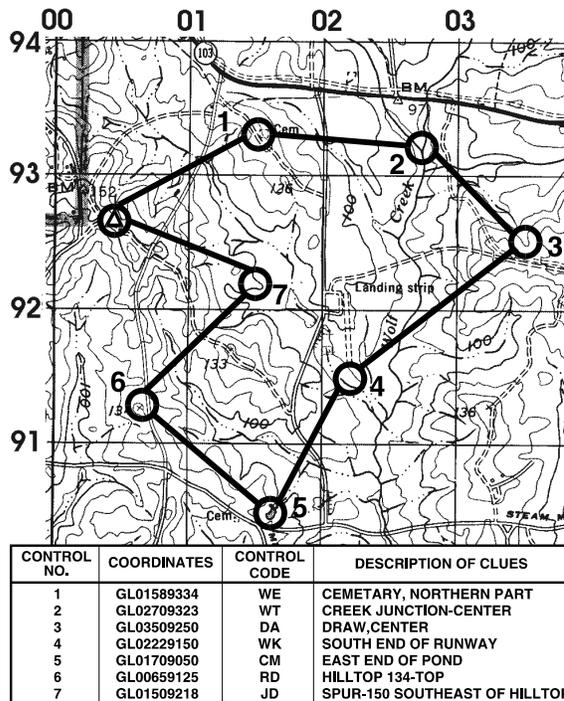


Illustration C

U.S. MARINE CORPS. JROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 11 – Land Navigation

Organizers mark each point in order on a master map. They give competitors a clue list that describes each control point with an 8-digit grid coordinate, a two-letter control code, and a clue describing the terrain in the location of the marker. Competitors must indicate on their score cards proof of visiting each control marker. This is usually done with a special stamp or punch.

Score Orienteering

In this event, the area chosen for the competition has many control points. The control points near the start/finish point (usually identical in this event) have a low point value, while those more distant or more difficult to locate have a high point value. The competitor must locate as many control markers as possible within the specified time (usually 90 minutes).

As with a cross-country event, organizers give each competitor a map and an event card. The card lists all the control points with their different values.

Organizers design the course (see Illustration D) so that there are more control points than a competitor can possibly visit in the allotted time. Therefore, competitors must plan and choose their route between control points carefully. Points are awarded for each control point visited and deducted for exceeding the specified time. However, there is no reward for returning early with time still available to find more points. Therefore, the good competitor must be able to coordinate time and distance with the ability to land navigate while running the course. The competitor with the highest point score is the winner.

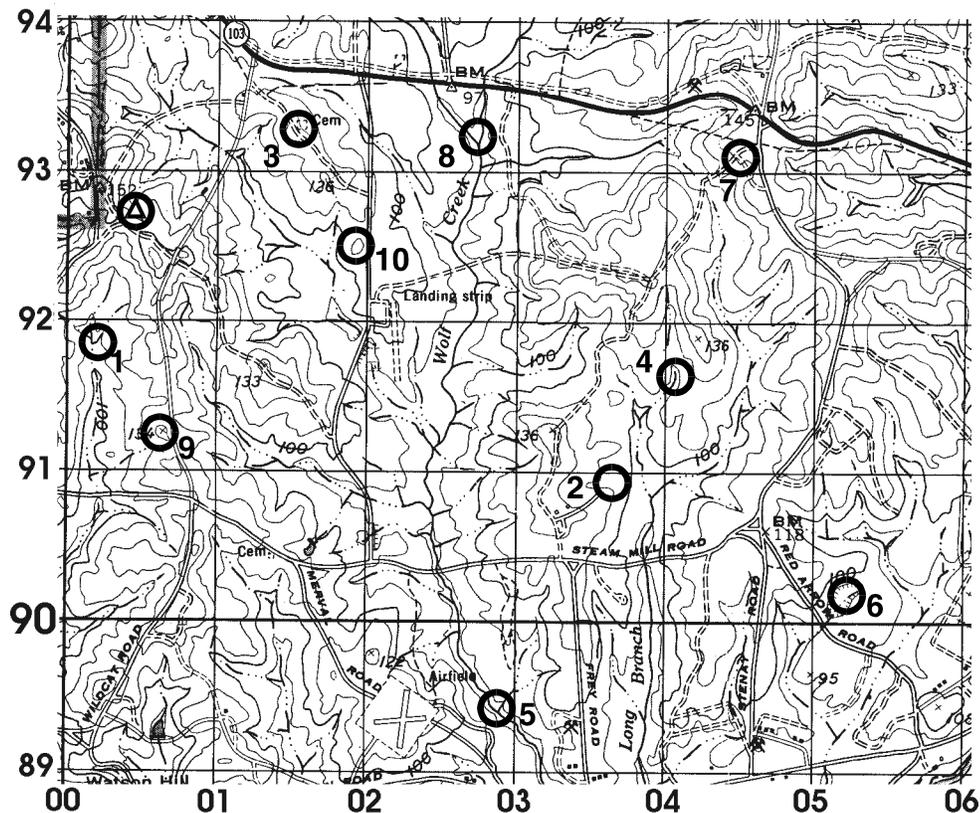


Illustration D

Relay Orienteering

This type of orienteering is a popular team sport. Each member of the team runs a free-point or line orienteering leg of one to two miles. No person runs more than one leg. The competition may be held using a master map for the entire course or one for each leg.

In the case of a master map for the entire course, the first team member copies down all legs of the course. After completing the first leg, he or she hands the map to the next runner, who completes the next leg of the course. The team repeats this process until all members have run their portion of the course.

In the case of a master map for each leg, the first trainee goes to a master map that has only the first location on it. When that person completes the first leg, he or she gives the map to the next person, who goes to a different master map and copies the second portion of the course. This continues until all members of the team have completed their legs.

Night Orienteering

Night orienteering is a free-point or score event occurring in the evening. The main differences between a night conducted free-point or score and one conducted during the day are:

- Control points are marked by a light that is visible from 30 to 50 meters in all directions.
- Control points are located no more than 400 to 800 meters apart.
- The event is run over less difficult terrain.
- Competitors receive a detailed safety briefing before the event begins.
- The signal used to indicate the conclusion of the event or an emergency is a vehicle horn or a flare.

Controlling Your Movement

Determining Direction of Travel

Once you have plotted the course's control points, you must determine how to get to the first and other control points. The basic compass technique used in orienteering to determine direction of travel consists of five steps:

- Step 1. Lay the map on a flat surface and orient it to magnetic north by placing the edge of the compass along a north-south grid line. Rotate the map and compass until the north arrow is under the black hairline.
- Step 2. Keeping the map oriented, move the compass in such a way that one side of the compass touches your location and your destination. The compass is now pointing in the direction of travel.
- Step 3. Rotate the bezel ring until the luminous line is pointing to grid north on the map. The luminous line should be over the north arrow (if the map is still oriented) and it should be parallel to the north-south grid line.
- Step 4. Lift the compass off the map and correct for magnetic declination. If the declination is west, rotate the bezel ring counterclockwise; if east, then rotate it clockwise.
- Step 5. Holding the compass in front of you, rotate your body until the north arrow lies under the luminous line. The direction of travel is now indicated by the black hairline.

Route Selection

As mentioned at the beginning of this lesson, orienteering develops many skills besides map reading. An important one is decision-

making. Route selection is where competitors must make decisions. Which is the fastest way from point A to point B? Is it over or around a hill? Is it going cross country, using a road, or trail? Except for those instances when organizers mark or specify the route in advance, wise route selection is important.

A good orienteering course will have some elevation obstacles. These obstacles will force you to decide if it is faster to go the most direct route over it or to take a longer detour around it. A simple formula to convert height into comparable flat distance is: *25 feet of elevation equals 100 meters on a flat surface.* For example, suppose the straight line distance to point B is 500 meters with a 50 foot high hill en route. The energy you would expend would be equivalent to running 500 meters plus an additional 200 meters for going over the hill. If the detour around the hill equals a total of 680 meters, it may be easier to go around it, depending upon the type of terrain you encounter.

The type of terrain and vegetation that you encounter has a major impact on your pace. You must know your pace count through several types of terrain. In addition, you must know your pace when trotting and running, both when you are fresh and when you are tired. Although pacing will vary from individual to individual, the chart below may be useful to a beginner. These figures apply during daylight, when the runner is fresh and on flat terrain. The numbers represent paces or each time the left foot strikes the ground.

	SMALL (less than 5'8")	MEDIUM	TALL (over 6' tall)
Road/Path	42	40	47
Light Vegetation	45	43	40
Open Forest	50	46	43
Dense Forest	55	50	46

Movement Techniques

In addition to knowing where the control points are and where you are at all times, you must also know the best route for getting to the next control point. The shortest route may not be the fastest, and it may not pay to travel between two points as fast as possible if you tire yourself out in the process. Remember, you can locate your position on a map using terrain features, a back azimuth, or resection.

There are several techniques available to aid you in moving from one control point to another. They include the following:

- *Direct line.* This method involves establishing a compass bearing between your location and the destination. Then, follow the compass bearing until you reach the point. A variation of this technique is to establish a compass bearing that you will follow for a specific distance at which time you establish a new bearing. Repeat this process until you reach the final destination.
- *Steering marks.* A **steering mark** is a prominent object or terrain feature on the ground that you can see and *that* is in the general direction of travel. Such objects as a

lone tree or building are good examples of steering marks. One of the advantages of this technique is that once you reach the steering mark, you can reorient yourself before continuing.

- **Aiming off.** This technique is valuable when your destination lies along a linear terrain feature such as a road or stream. Due to errors in compass or map reading, you may reach a linear feature and not know whether your objective lies to the right or the left. Furthermore, each degree that you are offset to the right or left will move the aim-off point from the destination 17 meters to the right or left for each 100 meters traveled. For example, if the number of degrees offset is 10 and the distance traveled is 100 meters, then your location is 170 meters to the left of the objective (10 degrees offset X 17 meters per 100 meters traveled = 170).

A proven technique to prevent this from occurring is to deliberately aim to one side of the destination. Then, when you reach the linear feature, you will know in which direction to turn.

- **Attack points.** When using this technique, you select a prominent terrain feature, such as a hilltop or road junction, near your destination. You may use any technique to arrive at this point. Once there, you can reorient yourself, and then make a final short approach to it. The purpose of this *technique* is to minimize the distance you have to travel on the final approach. This in turn limits any errors in compass work or pacing you might make in locating the destination. The difference between an **attack point** and a steering mark is that you select an attack point from a map.
- **Geographic orientation.** This technique involves keeping the map oriented as you *travel* and

remembering what terrain features, you will encounter en route to the next control point. For example, if you decide to follow a road to reach the next control point, you should orient the map as you stop and make turns along the road.

Using Illustration E, assume that you wish to travel from your position at “A” to control point 4. One route that you could take would be to use the north-south intermittent stream bed. Pass the first two east-west intermittent stream junctions that you encounter and take the eastern fork at the third junction. Follow that intermittent stream and draw to the road junction (which you can call an attack point). From the road junction, shoot an azimuth of 77 degrees to the control point.

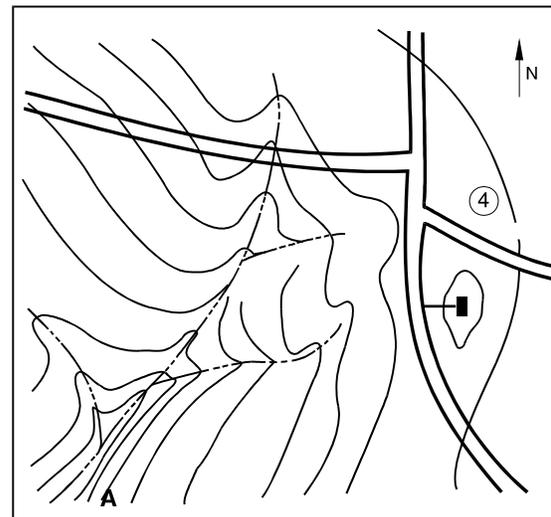


Illustration E

Clothing and Equipment

When planning to participate in an orienteering event, you should wear and take the proper clothing and equipment.

Choose the *clothing* to wear depending on the type of vegetation and terrain you will encounter on the course. For example, in bushy terrain, you should wear a long-sleeve shirt and long pants to protect against cuts and scratches. For those who want to pursue orienteering as a sport, consider purchasing light nylon racing suits. These are full-length suits (usually fluorescent) with long sleeves and pouches in the front to carry maps, compasses, etc.

Hiking *shoes* or boots are excellent for orienteering because of their durability and the ankle support they provide. High-top sneakers also provide excellent ankle support. Cross-country running shoes are good because they are lightweight and have better traction in mud, but they do not normally support the ankles.

Although a standard military lensatic compass is very good for orienteering, its one disadvantage is the time required for the needle to stabilize before lining up an azimuth. Those who desire to pursue orienteering as a sport may want to acquire an induction dampened or liquid-filled compass.

The *map* is probably the most important item the participant carries. The most common map used in orienteering is a topographic map with a 1:50,000 scale; however, competitors prefer a 1:25,000 scale because it is easier to read and it shows features in detail. Try to use multi-colored maps if they are available. Once a competitor outlines the course details and copies the key terrain features from color-coded master maps, his/her own maps, should be covered with a clear, plastic-like material such as a document protector

to prevent these marks from smearing and/or becoming unreadable.

Organization of the Course

Officials

Most events often use the same officials at both the start and finish. They include:

At the Start

Course Organizer. Briefs competitors in the assembly area, issues event cards and maps, and calls competitors forward to start individually (or in groups if it is a group event).

Recorder. Records the competitor's name and start time on recorder's sheet, checks the competitor's name and start number on the event card, and issues any last-minute instructions.

Timer. Controls the master clock and releases the competitors across the start line at their start time (usually at one-minute intervals) to the master map area.

At the Finish

Timer. Records the finish time of each competitor on his or her event card and passes the card to the recorder.

Recorder. Records competitor's finish times on the recorder's sheet and tallies final score based on time and correctness of control points visited.

Course Organizer. Verifies correctness of names, finish times, and final score. Posts competitors' positions on a results board and accounts for all participants at the end of the event.

More officials and/or assistants may be used. However, the three listed above are the minimum required to run the competition.

Control Areas

In many orienteering events, there are three or four control areas. They are:

- *Assembly Area.* Here participants register and receive instructions, maps, event cards, and start numbers. They may also change into their orienteering clothes if facilities are available, study their maps, and fill out their event cards. Sanitation facilities are normally available in this area.
- *Start (Start/Finish).* At the start, each competitor reports to the recorder and timer to be logged in and released. Oftentimes, the start and finish are at the same location.
- *Master Map Area.* There are three to five master maps 20 to 50 meters from the start. When the participants arrive at this area, they must mark all the course's control points on their maps. Having done this, competitors must decide on the route they will follow. Experienced competitors will take the time to orient their map and carefully plot the route before rushing off.

Control Cards

Event Card. Organizers make the event card as small as possible so that competitors can easily carry it in a pocket. It contains the following items: name, start number, start time, finish time, total time, place, and spaces for marking the control points visited. As indicated earlier, it may also contain a listing of descriptive clues. Illustration F is a sample event card for the most common type of an orienteering course.

CROSS COUNTRY ORIENTEERING	
NAME _____	COMPANY _____ COURSE _____
START TIME _____	FINISH TIME _____
DESCRIPTION CLUES	
SAMPLE FORMAT	
NOTE: All control signs are located at eye level on trees.	
CONTROL POINTS	
1 2	
3 4	
5 6	
Total Value of Points _____	1. All work is individual team effort.
Penalty Points _____	2. You must not join with or coordinate with any other team.
Final Score _____	3. You must personally visit each point you indicate on your score card.

Illustration F

Clue Description Card. Organizers prepare these cards with the master maps after the course is set. They contain the descriptive clues for each control point, control code, grid coordinate references, returning time for competitors, removal times for each location, and panic azimuth. Organizers keep the clue description cards and the master maps confidential until the competitors start the event.

Scoring

Organizers score the *cross-country* or *free event* by the competitor's time alone. Competitors must visit all control points; failure to visit one results in a disqualification. In this event, the fastest time wins. A variation that organizers often use for beginners is to have a "not-later-than" return time at the finish and to add minutes on to their final time for the number of minutes late and for the number of control points not located.

The *score* event requires the participant to collect as many points as possible within the time limit. Organizers deduct points for extra time spent on the course -- usually one point for every 10 seconds over the time limit.

Safety

The following items and provisions are required to ensure that an orienteering course runs as safely as possible. Furthermore, the course organizer will ensure that all participants receive a detailed safety briefing that covers the key information listed below.

- *First aid.* Ensure that a first aid kit is available at the start and finish. One of the officials should be trained in first aid, or a qualified medical person should be at the event.
- *Control points.* Locate all control points where the safety of the competitors is not endangered by hazardous terrain or other conditions.
- *Safety lane.* Designate a location, usually linear, on the course where competitors may go if injured, fatigued, or lost. A good course will usually have a well-defined boundary as a safety lane, and then competitors can set a panic azimuth on their compass and follow it until they reach the boundary.
- *Finish time.* All orienteering events must have a final return time. At this time, organizers should sound a loud siren or horn and all competitors must report to the finish line, even if they have not completed the course.
- *Search and rescue procedures.* If not all competitors have returned by the end of the competition, the officials should drive along the boundaries of the course to pick up the missing people.

Interest in orienteering within the United States has grown rapidly over the years. Orienteering is conducted under the guidelines of the United States Orienteering Federation, which presently has approximately 70 clubs affiliated with it.

Conclusion

Orienteering is a form of land navigation where the terms, symbols, and techniques are different from military land navigation. Although an expert military map reader/land navigator is by no means ready to complete a civilian orienteering event, military experience and training in navigating on the ground and reading maps (as well as physical training and decision-making) will help you to become a good orienteering competitor. Several orienteering practices and a complete familiarization with the map reading skills that we presented in previous lessons will help you to gradually become competitive in this exciting and challenging sport. ❖

Mock Trial - NJP

PURPOSE

Military law consists of the statutes governing the military establishment and regulations issued thereunder, the constitutional powers of the President and regulations issued thereunder, and the inherent authority of military commanders. Military law includes jurisdiction exercised by courts-martial and the jurisdiction exercised by commanders with respect to nonjudicial punishment. The purpose of military law is to promote justice, to assist in maintaining good order and discipline in the armed forces, and to promote efficiency and effectiveness in the military establishment, thereby strengthening the national security of the United States.

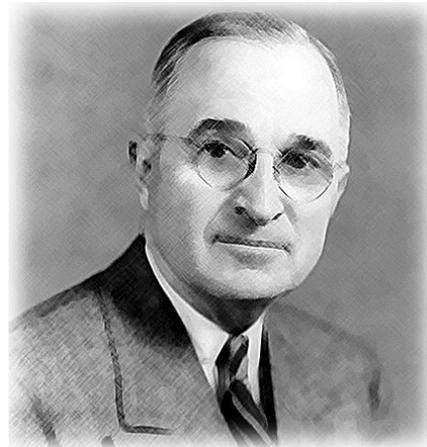
(Reprinted from the MCM, 1995, Part I, PREAMBLE, 3.)

This lesson will provide background information for conducting a mock trial related to Nonjudicial Punishment.

done so at the lowest possible level. When an offense is brought to the attention of the Commander, there are several options. The Commander may:

- Take no action,
- Take administrative action,
- Implement nonjudicial punishment,
- Forward the case to a superior or subordinate for disposition, or
- Refer the case to a court-martial.

For offenses that are not serious in nature, nonjudicial punishment is the preferred course of action. If a Marine refuses to accept nonjudicial punishment, the Marine may request a trial by summary court-martial. It is important that Marines understand the nature of nonjudicial punishment and of a summary court martial.



Introduction

On May 5, 1950, President Harry Truman approved the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). The UCMJ established a set justice system within the U.S. military to ensure discipline and order with the military community. The UCMJ sets forth rules of conduct and provides a means for enforcing the rules by nonjudicial punishment and trial by court-martial.

It is the policy of military law that an offense be handled as quickly as possible, and

Nonjudicial Punishment

Nonjudicial punishment is often referred to as company punishment, NJP, Article 15 punishment, “**office hours**,” commanding officer’s punishment, and captain’s mast. “Mast” originated from the area around the main mast of sailing ships. That location was the center of the vessel, where the ship’s company gathered. The area also served as a place for floggings and other punishment.

In the Marine Corps, the customary name of nonjudicial punishment is “office hours.” “Office hours” is a hearing by the Commander concerning a personal matter of a Marine that has been brought to his/her attention. While nonjudicial punishment may be the reason for the meeting, “office hours” is not always related to Article 15 punishment. In some cases, a Marine will be brought before the commanding officer to be complimented, to be counseled on a personal matter, or to receive a Meritorious Mast. The primary objective of NJP is to correct the offender for minor breaches of discipline without the stigma of a court-martial conviction. Used properly, such authority, in the hands of Commanders, can be an effective tool for promoting discipline within the military.

Minor Offenses

Non-judicial punishments are imposed for acts or omissions that are minor offenses under the punitive articles of the UCMJ. Whether an offense is minor depends on several factors.

- What was the nature of the offense?
- What were the circumstances surrounding the commission of the offense?
- What are the age, rank, duty assignment, record, and experience of the offender?

- What is the maximum sentence possible if the accused were to be tried in a general court-martial?

Ordinarily, for a minor offense, the maximum sentence possible would not include a dishonorable discharge or confinement for longer than one year, if tried in a general court-martial.

Extenuating Circumstances

An **extenuating circumstance** may help to explain why an offense occurred. For example, a Marine accused of stealing money may have taken it to feed a starving child.

Mitigating Circumstances

A **mitigating circumstance** may actually lessen the punishment that might be imposed for an offense. For example, the fact that it was a first offense, that the accused has a silver star, or that the accused had a good combat record may tend to reduce the Marine’s punishment.

Aggravating Circumstances

An aggravating circumstance is one in which there may be evidence of financial, social, psychological, and medical impact or cost to any person who was the victim of an offense committed by the accused. Aggravating circumstances may also significantly impact adversely on the mission, discipline, or efficiency of the command.

Examples of Nonjudicial Punishments

When an offender accepts a nonjudicial punishment, there is no need for a court-martial. An offender may refuse a nonjudicial punishment and ask for a trial. However, it is worth noting that a court-martial is a federal trial, and conviction could have a lasting impact on the

offender's career, benefits, and future opportunities.

A commanding officer may impose nonjudicial punishments that fall into the following categories.

- **Admonition and Reprimand** are the lightest forms of punishment. They amount to nothing more than a disapproval of a Marine's action or a "slap on the wrist." For an enlisted Marine, an admonition or reprimand may be verbal or written, however, for an officer it must be issued in written form.
- **Restriction** to certain specified locations, with or without suspension from duty for a specified period of time.
- **Correctional Custody** involves keeping a Marine in a prisoner status for a relatively short period of time. Marines held in **correctional custody** are normally only confined with other Marines who have been sentenced to correctional custody. While held in correctional custody, a Marine may be required to perform extra duties, fatigue duties, and hard labor.
- **Forfeiture** of up to ½ of one's pay for a specified period of time.
- **Detention** of up to ½ of one's pay for a specified period of time.
- **Confinement** on bread and water or diminished rations for a specified period of time.
- **Demotion** to the next inferior grade.
- Extra duties involve the performance of duties in addition to those normally assigned to a Marine undergoing punishment. Military duties of any kind may be assigned as extra duty. Extra duties assigned as punishment to NCOs should be supervisory in nature and

not demean their position as an NCO. Extra duties may be assigned before or after normal working hours, but these duties should not extend to more than two hours a day. Extra duties should not be performed on Sunday, although Sunday counts as a duty day of extra duty in the computation. Guard duty should not be assigned as an extra duty.

Summary Court-Martial

A Marine may refuse to accept the punishment imposed by the commanding officer and request a trial. In that case, the trial would be referred to a summary court. The purpose of the summary court is to administer justice promptly for minor offenses with a simple procedure. The minor offenses include unauthorized absence (UA), disrespect, and disobedience.

Jurisdiction

Summary courts-martial have jurisdiction to try only enlisted persons subject to the code for any offense that is not **capital** and is punishable by the code. Officers may not be tried by summary courts-martial.

Convening Authority

A **convening authority** is a person empowered by law to create a court-martial. The lowest unit commander in the Marine Corps who may convene a summary court-martial is a battalion/squadron commander with the exception of those officers authorized by Articles 22 and 23 of the UCMJ and by commanders designated by the Secretary of the Navy. Anyone who may convene a special or general court-martial may also convene a summary court-martial.

Composition

A summary court-martial is composed of one commissioned officer on active duty. According to Navy policy, the summary court-martial officer must be a Navy lieutenant or a Marine captain. In some commands, the officer designated must be a major. The officer should be appointed on the basis of age, training, experience, length of service, and judicial temperament. The summary court-martial officer does not have to be a lawyer. The officer acts as judge, jury, trial counselor, and counselor for the defense.

Rights of the Accused

A summary court-martial has the power to **subpoena** witnesses, take **depositions**, and punish for contempt of court. All witnesses must testify under oath or affirmation. There are no **challenges** in a summary court-martial. A summary court-martial is a federal court, and a conviction will follow a Marine throughout his remaining military and civilian career. At a summary court-martial, the accused has the right to:

- Refuse trial by summary court-martial.
- Consult with counsel before making decisions about the court.
- Be represented by a civilian counsel at his own expense if such representation would not delay the proceedings.
- Cross-examine witnesses and examine evidence.
- Call witnesses and introduce evidence.
- Remain silent.

Authorized Punishments

Authorized punishments for convictions in summary court include:

1. Confinement for 30 days.
2. Hard labor without confinement for 45 days.
3. Restriction for 60 days.
4. Forfeiture of 2/3 pay for one month.
5. Reduction in grade to the lowest enlisted pay grade.

Note: In the case of sergeants and above, the summary court-martial may not sentence the accused to confinement or hard labor without confinement. Reduction may only be to the next lower grade.

Conclusion

Civil laws are created and enforced by the Federal and State government. These laws apply to all citizens, both civilian and military. Unlike civilians, all military personnel are also subject to the UCMJ. In the military, nonjudicial punishment is the most common way of dealing with minor offenses. While it is expected that Marines will not conduct themselves in a manner that will put them in jeopardy of receiving nonjudicial punishment, the Uniform Code of Military Justice provides for the occasions when such punishment is necessary. In addition, the procedures and practices related to a Summary Court Martial are available to ensure that any Marine accused of committing an offense is treated fairly. ❖