MARINE CORPS

Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps

LEADERSHIP EDUCATION III

STUDENT TEXT

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Conducting Individual and Team Training

PURPOSE

This lesson will identify roles and responsibilities of cadets in a mentor/mentee association. It will provide tools for a successful mentoring connection, and define an improper mentoring relationship.

Additionally, this lesson will explain how to develop a leadership-training plan and will identify the topics that are required in a leadership-training plan.

> "Leadership and learning are indispensable to each other."
>
> John F. Kennedy

Introduction

The most important responsibility in the Marine Corps is leading Marines. If Marines are expected to lead, and Marines are expected to follow, they must be provided with the education of the heart and mind to win on the battlefield and in the barracks, in war and in peace. Traditionally, education has taken many forms, often handed down from Marine to Marine, by word of mouth and example.

This lesson presents a more formal approach to training than word of mouth. In this lesson, you will be provided with the information you need to help educate your fellow cadets through one-on-one training, called **mentoring**, and through team training.

Training Individuals through Mentoring

Everybody is a **mentor** and everybody has mentors. Most of us do not use the word "mentor" to define these relationships. Think back to all those who have helped you throughout your life to achieve the successes you have had. Remember that coach who worked with you to be a better sports team player. Remember the times your parents helped you through tough periods and supported you. They were mentoring you, providing assistance in the form of counsel to help you perform better and to assist you in your personal and educational growth.

This section of the lesson will outline and discuss the purposes and **goals** of mentoring and provide guidance on how to set up and participate in a mentoring association.

Since its inception, the Marine Corps has emphasized the importance of passing on professional knowledge to those of you who will be privileged to lead. By definition, a mentor is a trusted counselor or guide.

There are no set rules for a mentoring association, but general guidelines apply. The most important thing to remember is that mentoring is a specialized association formed to enhance a cadet's educational and personal worth to him/herself and to the Corps. The rules and regulations that define the relationships between senior and junior cadets apply in total to mentoring.

Mentoring is usually an informal program, but can be command sponsored. The relationship between mentor and **mentee** is voluntary. When there is no command-sponsored program, "natural" mentoring may take place. A mentoring connection is an educational and career development association, whose success is solely the responsibility of the mentor and mentee.

Marine Corps Policies

There is no Marine Corps Order that mandates or describes a Mentoring Program. Where no command-sponsored program exists, mentors and mentees, who establish their own mentoring relationships, must adhere to all applicable standards of conduct and regulations for junior and senior relationships.

Mentoring should be a universal program. Mentoring is useful for all cadets. While it is useful for mentor and mentee to have some things in common, it is not necessary. All that is necessary is a willingness on the part of both parties to make a genuine effort to improve the performance and prospects for success of the mentee.

Mentor-Mentee Associations

Mentoring should not happen by chance. Both members of the mentoring association have responsibilities.

Mentor Roles

The roles assumed by a mentor depend on the needs of the mentee and on the association established between the two. There are at least ten roles a mentor can assume:

1. *Teacher.* As a teacher, the mentor teaches the mentee the skills and knowledge required to perform the job successfully.

2. *Guide.* As a guide, the mentor helps the mentee to "navigate" and understand the inner workings of an organization. Sometimes this includes passing on information about the unwritten "rules" for success.

3. *Counselor.* Counseling a mentee requires establishing a level of trust in the mentoring association. A counselor listens to possible ethics situations and provides guidance to help the mentee find his or her own solutions and improve his/her own problem solving skills.

4. *Motivator.* A mentor shows support to help a mentee through the tough times, keeping the mentee focused on developing job skills to improve performance, self respect, and a sense of self-worth.

5. *Sponsor.* The mentor helps to create possibilities for the mentee that may otherwise not be available. Opportunities should be challenging and instructive, without being overwhelming. The mentee should not be set up for failure.

6. *Coach.* A coach observes performance, assesses capabilities, provides **feedback** to the

mentee, and instructs with a view to improve performance. Then the loop repeats.

7. *Adviser.* A mentor helps the mentee develop professional interests and set realistic career goals. Goals should be specific, have a time frame, set deadlines, and be results oriented, relevant, and reachable.

8. *Referral Agent.* Once a career plan is developed, the mentor assists the mentee in approaching persons who can provide training, information, and assistance. The mentor also points the mentee to relevant career enhancing schools, correspondence courses, books, reading, professional organizations, and self-improvement activities.

9. **Role Model.** The mentor is a living example for the mentee to **emulate**. A mentor must lead and teach by example.

10. *Door Opener.* The mentor opens doors of opportunity by helping the mentee establish a **network** of contacts both within and outside the MCJROTC unit. He/she helps the mentee understand the importance of staying in touch with seniors, peers, and juniors to exchange information, ideas, and concerns.

Mentee Roles

The mentee responsibility in the mentoring association is to maintain a willingness to learn, accept guidance, and trust that the mentor has the mentee's best interests in mind. The following are attributes for a mentee:

1. *Willing.* The mentee must want to improve performance, contribute to the organization, enhance career prospects, and be willing to work to reach his/her goals.

2. *Active.* A mentee takes action based on career goals, suggestions of a mentor, job requirements, and educational opportunities.

3. *Accepting.* A mentee is willing to accept responsibility for his/her actions, accept meaningful feedback and criticism, and accept guidance and counseling from his/her mentor.

4. *Respectful.* The mentee shows consideration and respect for the mentor's willingness to help and seriously considers all advice and suggestions from the mentor. He/she is open-minded; progress takes time and effort.

5. *Professional.* The mentor/mentee relationship is professional at all times. Both parties should be respectful of privacy and each other's personal lives.

6. *Prepared.* The mentee is ready to move beyond the mentoring association, once the association has served its purpose.

Establishing a Mentoring Connection

There are six stages to developing, maintaining, and terminating a mentoring connection:

1. *Identification stage.* Most mentoring associations are formed haphazardly, except where a command-sponsored program is in place. Where no program exists, either a senior or

junior cadet may initiate the mentoring connection. Senior cadets look for junior cadets with potential for improvement and who need guidance. Junior cadets recognize that they need assistance with some facet of their career development and seek help to improve. There may be some common bond between mentor and mentee such as gender, race, hometown, hobbies, unit, and so forth.

2. *Preparation stage.* Both mentor and mentee must want to establish the mentoring association. They should understand the purpose of the relationship, expectations, goals, risks, and rewards.

3. *Initiation stage.* The mentor and mentee set the parameters, discuss and set goals, decide on time frames, and write a plan with a time frame.

4. *Cultivation stage.* This is the stage where the mentor teaches job skills, provides guidance, lends psychological support, opens doors, and provides counsel. The mentee works to improve performance, learn new skills, follow guidance, and actively learn the organization and its goals and **"ethos."**

5. *Redefinition stage.* A review and action phase where the mentor and mentee assess accomplishments, reorient the action plan, and redefine goals. During this stage one or both parties may decide to end the association.

6. *Termination stage.* Parties may decide during the redefinition stage to terminate the association due to positive or negative factors. Mentor and mentee should discuss which goals were achieved and which were not. Both should try to make a realistic assessment of strengths and weaknesses of the association. Sometimes mentoring associations continue indefinitely.

Tools for a Successful Mentoring Connection

The following are tools for a successful connection between the mentor and the mentee.

- Effective Interpersonal Communication Skills: Both mentor and mentee must be able to adequately express to each other the messages they want to get across. **Interpersonal** communication is a dynamic, never-ending, two-way process that is oriented toward the receiver. Messages are written, spoken, verbal, and non-verbal. The receiver must listen, read, reflect, and respond. There are barriers to effective communication. In a mentoring connection, it is better for the mentor to avoid being authoritarian, admonishing, threatening, or too critical and negative. The mentor must strike the right balance between being overly harsh or coddling the mentee. Feedback is necessary for any communication loop to develop and operate properly. Encourage the mentee to discuss what is and is not working for him or her. As a mentor, ensure you understand and observe the mentee and his/her work so you can provide meaningful help and guidance.

- Personal Assessment: Each mentee with his/her mentor's assistance must truthfully perform a self-assessment to identify both strengths and weaknesses. Look at past performance, performance reports, school grades, and other performance indicators. Examine the criteria for advancement. What courses, extracurricular activities, and other improvement opportunities are important to the mentee's career advancement? Once strengths and weaknesses are examined, a list is made of areas for improvement or enhancement.

- Make a Career Development Plan: The mentor and mentee look at the mentee's

strengths and weaknesses and develop a plan to use educational and extracurricular opportunities to develop necessary skills and attributes in the mentee. The plan can be based on both short and long term improvements. Follow the plan. The mentor can help attain goals by utilizing formal and informal contacts, writing letters of introduction, helping prepare the mentee for formal schooling, and so forth.

- Re-Evaluate the Plan: When a major goal is achieved, expectations may rise. Do not be afraid to set the "bar" a little higher. Conversely, some goals may not be achievable; therefore a reassessment of what is and is not practical may be necessary.

The Successful Mentoring Connection

How are mentoring connections formed? Some units have established programs for mentoring. They keep a list of volunteers from among the more senior members and from among the interested juniors. Matches are made based on a number of elements such as working relationships, shared interests, common background, and other natural factors. A unit may establish mentoring relationships for all cadets. Some will work out; some will not.

Most mentoring occurs through some shared experience, background, or other factor that causes the connection to occur almost by itself. A mentee looking for help may want to emulate the success and style of a senior cadet and ask for assistance. A senior cadet may see the spark of potential in a junior cadet and take responsibility to encourage and assist. Naturally formed mentoring connections should be encouraged.

Improper Mentoring Relationships

The Marine Corps Manual (MCM) defines an improper relationship as: "situations that invite or give the appearance of familiarity or undue informality among Marines of different grades."

This sentence means that familiarity and undue informality between Marines of different grades is improper. Further, it states that perception is important because the relationship or situation must not invite or give the appearance of familiarity or undue informality.

For example, a mentoring relationship between a couple that is dating would not be appropriate and might not be beneficial for mentee. The mentor would have difficulty maintaining objectivity in the advice given to his or her partner because of the personal nature of the relationship.

Team Training: A Leadership Lesson

In order to understand how to plan training for your team, it is best placed in the context of creating an actual lesson plan. The purpose of this section is to give you an understanding of how to plan team training by demonstrating how a leadership-training plan is constructed.

Establishing Training Goals/Objectives

The ability to lead is not inherently bred into your character; it is a skill you develop with experience.

The primary goal of Marine Corps leadership training is "to develop the leadership qualities of all Marines to enable them to assume progressively greater responsibilities to the Marine Corps and society." The secondary goal is to enhance mission accomplishment and troop

welfare. There are several ways to accomplish this goal.

- Foster the constant application of leadership principles, particularly leadership by example.

- Develop proper moral and ethical behavior.

- Promote fair treatment with special emphasis on equal opportunity and prevention of sexual harassment.

- Improve personal and performance counseling.

- Develop the team concept and stress teamwork in daily activities to reinforce the team concept.

Training Topics

There are some topics directly related to leadership training goals that are required by regulations. The leader should consider including these topics in his/her leadership-training plan. Not only will their inclusion enhance the accomplishment of the leadership training goals, but it will also fulfill the related training requirements. Required topics are:

- Sexual harassment

- Essential subjects for training including the Code of Conduct and Military Law/Uniform Code of Military Justice, history, customs, courtesies, close order drill, and interior guard.

- Unit information program including drug abuse, equal opportunity, personal affairs, character and moral education, and personal conduct.

- Equal opportunity

Periodically, additional requirements for leadership-related training are addressed as needed.

The Training Plan

Any training plan should be oriented to fulfilling leadership-training goals. In doing so, it should meet the unit's specific needs, fulfill each cadet's needs, and develop each cadet's leadership abilities.

There are four characteristics that indicate success or failure in the unit's leadership. They are morale, esprit de corps, discipline, and proficiency. These indicators can be used as a gauge for measuring leadership effectiveness and can assist in determining training requirements. By using these indicators as an evaluation tool, leaders can determine their unit's needs and develop a training program to fulfill those needs.

Preparing a Training Plan

There are seven basic steps in developing a leadership-training plan. They are:

1. *Analyze*. When developing a unit's leadership training program, the analysis should consider the unit's mission, size, leadership needs (unit's and individual's), guidance from higher headquarters, desired training goals, resources available, teaching ability of instructors, and methods utilized.

2. *Plan*. A leadership-training plan is based on Marine Corps leadership philosophies, policy guidance, historical references, and personal experiences of the unit commander. Additionally, the plan needs to take into account the unit's activity schedule, operational requirements, and resources.

3. *Provide/direct*. The plan is provided to the instructor for execution, including directions to execute the plan, and provisions for the required resources for its execution.

4. *Prepare/schedule/announce*. The instructor receives the plan and reviews it for specific guidance. He or she then conducts research and confirms the availability of resources.

5. *Conduct.* The instructor then conducts the leadership training according to his/her schedule and resources available.

6. *Evaluate.* The instructor must evaluate the program's effectiveness by any means available. True evaluation stems from how much the program enhances the accomplishment of the leadership training goals by meeting the needs of the unit.

7. *Correcting.* The instructor is responsible for making corrections in the training program. The instructor evaluates his or her execution of the program, takes whatever corrective action he/she can within his/her limit of authority, and provides feedback to the unit commander.

These steps are not necessarily completed in a step-by-step sequence, but are accomplished in a continuous repeated fashion.

Implementing Training

Leadership training should be accomplished using the method best lending itself to the topic and situation. The real importance lies not in the method itself, but in how well the method achieves the instructional goal. Some of the most effective methods of presenting training are given below.

- *Lecture.* This technique is good if you have a lot of information and a short period of time to present it. It is good for a specific topic or for inexperienced audiences.

- *Guided discussion.* This is used for a more in-depth discussion or when working on a unit problem solving situation.

- *Panel discussion.* This is used to gain insights from personnel with greater experience or a particular expertise.

- *Case studies.* A case study is used for classroom simulation to gain a more realistic learning experience. The difficulty with this technique is the availability of "cases" and good examples of solutions that enhance the study.

- *Hands on application.* Hands on application is used for developing command presence and confidence. It allows for cadets to get hands-on practice that translates to better understanding and ultimately, enhances learning.

Not all techniques are suitable for all subjects and audiences. Each topic must be packaged for presentation based on the needs of the unit/audience.

Evaluating A Training Lesson's Effectiveness

To properly evaluate a leadership-training lesson, there must be continued feedback so the appropriate corrective actions can be initiated.

One of the most immediate methods to solicit feedback from the team is to use a training survey after the session has been conducted. The following sample questions can be asked about most training lessons:

- Was the overall presentation well organized?

- Did the instructor use appropriate visual aids and use them well?

- Did the instructor choose an appropriate delivery technique?

- Was the instructor knowledgeable about the subject matter?

- Was the course design appropriate for skill and concept levels?

- Was the instructor's presentation style good?

- Was the room comfortable and appropriate for training?

- Was training related to your current task assignment?

- Topic/s/ I found most valuable:

- Topic/s/ I found least valuable:

- Changes I would recommend before next session offering:

Cadets rate each question in the survey based on specific rating criteria. For example, the question, "Was the overall presentation well organized" can be rated on the following 1 – 5 scale:

1. Definitely Agree

2. Somewhat Agree

3. Agree

4. Somewhat Disagree

5. Definitely Disagree

Based on the feedback received, you can adjust your lesson for future sessions.

Conclusion

We have briefly discussed mentoring and its impact on individual cadets and the MCJROTC unit. Mentoring can be a powerful tool to ensure that all cadets perform to the best of their abilities, have opportunities for advancement and self-improvement, and can contribute to the success of the unit.

Leadership training is not merely a skill, but an art. Due to the diverse roles and missions of the units, special attention must be paid to the leadership needs of each cadet. It is critical to both morale and unit effectiveness that leadership training be implemented into a unit's training schedule. ❖

Importance of Inspections and Evaluations

PURPOSE

This lesson will examine the importance of inspections and evaluations. You will learn the difference between an inspection and an evaluation as well as the purpose of each of these events. You will also learn how inspection and evaluation results will ultimately impact your personal career growth.

> "A disorderly mob is no more an army than a heap of building materials is a house."
>
> Socrates

Introduction

Throughout your career, military or civilian, you will be inspected and evaluated. Both **inspections** and **evaluations** are tools used to measure performance against a set of **standards**. In addition to your ability to do the job, these tools also take into consideration efficiency, morale, discipline, training, and leadership. While an inspection examines performance at a single point in time, an evaluation looks at performance over a period of time. For example, an evaluation might include your performance during an entire year. You could equate an inspection to a test you might have in math class, whereas the evaluation would be your final grade for the semester.

Inspections and evaluations are objective **assessments** that will ultimately be used to determine promotions, school selections, and duty assignments. It is important that you realize the significance of these events and prepare for them accordingly.

Inspections

An inspection is merely an opportunity for a leader to observe the people under his/her command, provide **feedback** on their performance, and look at the conditions within the organization. Feedback is one of the most important means of changing behavior. The inspection opens a dialog between a superior and his or her subordinate, and ensures that the performance standards are clearly understood. Without standards, there would be no way to judge the quality, excellence, or correctness of performance. Inspection results let people know if their performance is hitting the mark, and if progress is being made. Consistent and timely feedback will improve performance, enabling the person being inspected to become more **proficient** in his or her duties, which ultimately benefits the mission.

You should consider an inspection a source of pride, and an opportunity to show what you can do and how well you can do it. In his guidance on inspections, the Commandant of the Marine Corps said, "We have great units and our inspection criteria should be aimed at showing how good they are and helping them to become even better."

The Commandant went on to say that the inspection process should be used as a means of sharing ideas. By providing commanders with inspection results, as well as the average performance of other units, they will have important information on what works and what does not. This exchange of information will improve performance across the board.

Inspections also will uncover issues relating to morale, discipline, training, efficiency, and leadership of a unit. This is very important, because if the commanding officer is unaware of these deficiencies, he or she can do nothing to fix them. However, if these issues are uncovered during an inspection, there is an opportunity to address them.

In addition to **personnel** inspections, there are several other types of inspections, including inspections of equipment, supplies, records, and buildings. Each inspection has a particular purpose. Just as you would prepare for a test in school, it is important for you to prepare for an inspection if one is announced (some inspections are unannounced). Careful preparation is key to excellent inspection results.

An inspection provides you with the opportunity to improve the performance of your unit and follow up with corrective action on any issue that did not meet or exceed standards. The results of these inspections will surely factor into your overall evaluation.

Evaluations

While an inspection helps to shape future performance, an evaluation highlights past performance. An evaluation is an assessment of the Marine's performance of assigned duties and responsibilities against an understood set of requirements, his or her individual **capacity**, and professional character. It is an official record used for long-term professional development and career decisions. Officer and enlisted evaluation reports are the single most important document in the Official Military Personnel File (OMPF). They are used for such personnel actions as school selection, promotion, and duty assignments.

The Marine Corps **Performance Evaluation System** (PES) provides for periodic reporting, recording, and analysis of the performance and professional character of Marines in the grades of sergeant through major general. The process begins when the Marine meets with his senior officer to discuss the **billet** description, set expectations, and establish goals. Senior officers document their observations and assessment of the performance and character of a Marine on the USMC Fitness Report. The PES primarily supports the Commandant's efforts to

select the best-qualified personnel for promotion, command, and duty assignments.

Conclusion

Many cadets approach inspections and evaluations with **trepidation**. Rather than thinking of these events as obstacles to be hurdled, you should consider them opportunities to demonstrate your proficiency and your ability to carry out the mission. Just like when you prepare for a final exam or prepare to run a marathon, if you prepare for your inspections and evaluations, you will be successful. ❖

Evaluating and Recording Performance

PURPOSE

In a previous lesson, you learned the importance of inspections and evaluations. This lesson will identify several elements which are important to evaluations. Also, you will learn how a Marine's performance is recorded the Marine Corps "Fitness Report."

Introduction

Completing and maintaining performance evaluation records for subordinates is a critical responsibility of a leader. These records provide important information for the Marine and his or her Commanding Officers throughout his or her entire military career.

The Elements of What is Evaluated

Marine Battle Skills Training (MBST) Handbook

Every Marine is responsible for maintaining proficiency in certain general military subjects. The MBST Handbook provides Marines with information regarding these general military subjects. Each subject is associated with specific training tasks. The MBST states the **Individual Training Standard** (ITS) for each task, followed by **evaluation guidelines**. The guidelines provide the Marine with information regarding what is expected of him or her during the evaluation of the ITS.

For example, in the subject of *Military Justice and the Law of War,* the task is "Explain the purpose of the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ.)" The standard is, "The Marine must explain the purpose of the UCMJ as per the references." The evaluation guideline is, "The Marine must explain the purpose of the UCMJ, who is responsible for upholding it, and who is subject to it." For some ITS, a list follows of the individual performance steps necessary to refresh or instruct the training objective.

Close Order Drill and Ceremonies

Knowing the purpose of close order drill, performing individual drill movements, and participating in Unit Drill are tasks on which Marines are evaluated. The following is an example of these tasks and the guidelines used to evaluate the Marine's performance of the task:

Task

Explain the purpose of close order drill.

Standard

The Marine must explain the purpose of close order drill as per the reference.

Evaluation Guidelines

The Marine must explain the five purposes of close order drill.

Performance steps

The five purposes of close order drill are to:

1. Provide a simple formation from which various combat formations could readily be assumed.

2. Move units from one place to another in a standard and orderly manner, while maintaining the best possible appearance.

3. Provide the troops an opportunity to handle individual weapons.

4. Instill discipline through precision and automatic response to orders

5. Increase a leader's confidence through the exercise of command by giving proper commands and drilling troops.

Marine Corps Organization, History, Customs, and Courtesies

Another responsibility of a Marine is to learn about the Marine Corps Organization, identify significant events in the Corps history, perform required military courtesies and honors, and explain military customs. The following is an example of these tasks and the guidelines used to evaluate the Marine's performance of the task:

Task

Explain the Marine Corps mission

Standard

The Marine must be able to explain the Marine Corps Mission.

Evaluation Guidelines

The Marine must recall the document that identifies the official mission of the Marine Corps, listing the seven elements of that mission.

Performance Steps

1. Name the official document in which the mission of the Marine Corps is established.

   - Specify that the official mission of the Marine Corps is established by the National Security Act of 1947, amended in 1952. Marines are trained, organized, and equipped for the offensive amphibious employment and as a "force in readiness." According to the Act, Marines stand prepared to meet mission requirements.

2. List the seven elements of the Marine Corps Mission.

   a. Provide Fleet Marine Forces with combined arms and supporting air components for the service of the United States Fleet in seizure or defense of advanced naval bases and for the conduct of such land operations as may be essential to the execution of a navel campaign.

   b. Provide detachments and organizations for the service of armed vessels of the Navy and security detachments for the protection of naval property at naval stations and bases.

   c. Develop, in coordination with the Army, Navy, and Air Force, the

doctrines, tactics, techniques, and equipment employed for landing forces in amphibious operations.

d. Provide Marine forces for the airborne operations, in coordination with the Army, Navy, and Air Force, according to the doctrine established by the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

e. Develop, in coordination with the Army, Navy, and Air Force, the doctrine, procedures, and equipment for airborne operations.

f. Expand peacetime components to meet wartime needs according to the joint mobilization plans.

g. Perform such other duties as the President may direct.

Marine Corps General Leadership

Additionally a Marine must explain the objectives of leadership. The following is an example of a task taken from the MBST Handbook used to evaluate a Marines performance of the task.

Task
Explain the Objectives of Leadership.

Standard
The Marine must be able to explain Objectives of Leadership.

Evaluation Guidelines

The Marine must be able to explain the primary and secondary objectives of leadership to other Marines.

Performance Steps

1. Identify and explain the primary objective of leadership: mission accomplishment.

   a. Military discipline is a moral, mental and physical state in which all hands respond to orders or to the will of the commander or leader, whether or not he or she is present.

   b. Efficient performance in battle is the ultimate objective of military discipline which is to overcome fear and replace it with action.

   c. Standards of good discipline are deportment, attention to duty, setting a good example, and demonstrating decent behavior. Enable men and women to accomplish goals and give their best.

   d. The results of a well disciplined unit are clear and observable.

Conduct and Proficiency Marks

A Marine is expected to always maintain a high level of personal conduct and professional proficiency. The conduct and proficiency of Marines at the rank of private through corporal are evaluated and assigned numerical marks/grades of performance, based on a scale of 0-5. The proficiency and conduct marks, known as PRO/CONS, a young Marine receives as an evaluation of his or her performance greatly affects promotion and career options.

The chart below lists the standards of conduct, corresponding adjective rating, and marks from 0 to 5 used to assign conduct marks.

Mark	Corresponding Adjective Rating	Standard of Conduct
0 to 1.9	Unsatisfactory	• Habitual offender • Convicted by general, special, or more than one summary court-martial. • Given a mark of "0" upon declaration of desertion • Ordered to confinement pursuant to sentence of court-martial. • Two or more punitive reductions in grade
2 to 2.9	Poor	• No special court-martial. • Not more than one summary court-martial. • Not more than two nonjudicial punishments • One punitive reduction in grade
3 to 3.9	Fair	• No court-martial • Not more than one nonjudicial punishment • No unfavorable impressions of qualities • Failure to make satisfactory progress while assigned to weight control or military appearance • Conduct such as not to impair appreciably one's usefulness or the efficiency of the command, but conduct not sufficient to merit an honorable discharge.
4 to 4.4	Good	• No offenses • No unfavorable impressions as to attitude, interest, cooperation, obedience, after-effects of Intemperance, courtesy and consideration, and observance of regulations
4.5 to 4.8	Excellent	• No offenses • Positive favorable impressions • Demonstrates reliability, good influence, sobriety, obedience, and industry
4.9 to 5	Outstanding	• No offenses • Exhibits to an outstanding degree qualities. • Observes spirit as well as letter of orders and regulations. • Demonstrated positive effect on others by example and persuasion.

The chart below lists the standards of performance, corresponding adjective rating, and marks for recommending proficiency marks to a Marine during the marking period.

Mark	Corresponding Adjective Rating	Standard of Conduct
0 to 1.9	Unsatisfactory	• Does unacceptable work in most duties • Generally undependable • Needs considerable assistance and close supervision on even the simplest assignment
2 to 2.9	Poor	• Does acceptable work in some of duties but not dependable • Needs assistance and close supervision on all but the simplest assignments
3 to 3.9	Fair	• Handles routine matters acceptably • Needs close supervision when performing duties not of a routine nature
4 to 4.4	Good	• Dependable in doing regular duties thoroughly and competently • Usually needs assistance in dealing with problems not of a routine nature
4.5 to 4.8	Excellent	• Does excellent work in all regular duties but needs assistance in dealing with extremely difficult or unusual assignments
4.9 to 5	Outstanding	• Does superior work in all duties • Extremely difficult or unusual assignments given with full confidence the job will be thoroughly and competently completed

Recording Performance: Fitness Reports

Marines are expected to develop certain positive attitudes, values and leadership qualities from the instruction and the leadership provided by Marine Corp instructors. It is necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of training and record a Marine's performance in these areas.

The Marine Corps **Performance Evaluation System** (PES) provides for the periodic reporting, recording, and analysis of the performance and professional character of Marines in the grades of sergeant through major general. The Corps' primary means for recording a

Marine's performance is a "**fitness report**." The key concepts of the fitness report are:

- **Fairness**: Reporting officials must provide fair and thorough evaluations.

- **Focus**: The fitness report is a documentation of observations and assessments of individual performance, personal qualities, character, and potential to serve at a more senior level.

- *Measurement*: Marines are measured against known Marine Corps values and soldierly virtues, not against a personal set of **precepts** and unreasonable expectations.

- *Ethics*: Professional **ethics** constitute one of the foundations of the PES.

- *Avoiding* **Zero Mistakes**: Reporting officials must consider that Marines develop by having the latitude to make mistakes.

- *Counseling*: Leaders must counsel Marines to transmit the guidance, performance standards, and direction important for the Marine's success and continued development.

The fitness report is divided into several sections. The descriptions that follow provide a general idea of information that is gathered for the fitness report.

- *Billet Description* - This section of the fitness report provides the reporting senior an opportunity to describe the scope of duties that form the basis for evaluating the Marine during the reporting period.

- *Billet Accomplishment* - This section of the fitness report provides the reporting senior an opportunity to highlight the Marine's most significant accomplishments during the reporting period.

- *Mission Accomplishment* - This section of the fitness report gives assessments of an overall picture of an evaluated Marine's ability and success getting the job done during the reporting period.

- *Individual Character* - This section focuses on measurable traits of the Marine's individual character and contains three attributes:
  - Courage
  - Effectiveness Under Stress
  - Initiative

- *Leadership* - This section focuses on the most important aspects of leadership. Each evaluated area serves to provide information that gives a more comprehensive picture of the individual's effectiveness as a leader. The overall view provides an understanding of the individual's leadership style. The section has five attributes:
  - Leading Subordinates
  - Developing Subordinates
  - Setting the Example
  - Ensuring Well-Being of Subordinates
  - Communication Skills

- *Intellect And Wisdom* - The Intellect and Wisdom section measures the Marine's efforts to grow intellectually and to use the knowledge gained to benefit both personal and unit performance. A Marine's intellect and wisdom is measured indirectly through three assessed attributes:
  - Professional Military Education
  - Decision Making Ability
  - Judgment

The Marine's fitness report is important as it documents, through written communication to the Commandant of the Marine Corps (CMC), a history of a Marine's performance and potential.

Conclusion

Individual training standards form the basis for all individual instruction in units and training centers. You have seen how the MBST provides guidance for tasks associated with general military subjects and the Individual Training Standards for each task.

Further, you have seen how the Marine Corps Performance Evaluation System is used to complete a Marines fitness report. The fitness report is a vital part of a Marine's Official Military Personnel File and follows him or her throughout a military career. ❖

Leadership Styles

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P URPOSE

This lesson explains the three different leadership styles.

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Introduction

Style of leadership is the manner in which you go about communicating with those whom you lead. There are many things to be taken into account when determining what style of leadership is appropriate for a given situation. You must determine what is called for in the situation and what types of communications are possible, or necessary. You also must consider the capabilities of those whom you are leading and the **constraints** of time. Knowledge of the geography, the political atmosphere, and the general mood of the populace will also be factors in your leadership style and decision making process. The three leadership styles that will be discussed are the **authoritarian**, the **participative**, and the **delegative** leadership styles.

Different situations call for different leadership actions or styles. As an MCJROTC cadet, you will face a variety of different situations that will require you to make a decision about the leadership style that is most appropriate. Therefore, it is important that you understand all three leadership styles.

Authoritarian Leadership Style

A leader displays the authoritarian leadership style when subordinates are told what is to be done and how it is to be done without the leader consulting others for advice or ideas. This style is quite often appropriate for situations involving the military. In using the authoritarian leadership style, one should remember that it is not necessary to be loud or abusive. There is no need to **demean** or belittle a subordinate in order to establish authority.

Occasions when the situation at hand will not allow sufficient time for the participation of others in the decision making process, may require the leader to use the authoritarian leadership style. In times such as these, it will be necessary for the leader to make a decision quickly and firmly. On the other hand, a situation calling for the authoritarian leadership style may be one where the task at hand simply does not require input from others. Often, it is a situation where there is much at stake and little room for error.

For example, such a situation can occur in a football game. If a team is behind by six points with only two minutes to play and the ball is on their own twenty yard line, some decisions need to be made quickly. Whether it is the coach or the quarterback that is calling the plays, there is little time for consultation or discussion concerning the play that should be called. There is also little room for error. For these reasons, the person making the decisions must act quickly and decisively.

In the Marine Corps, situations arise in which the authoritarian leadership style is the best style to use. Just as in a football game, there are moments when there is little time to accomplish the game plan. For example, it might be necessary for a Marine to replace supplies that have been delayed due to inclement weather; or, in a combat situation, a Marine might have to make advances against the enemy who is inflicting heavy

casualties. In these situations, action must be quick and decisive.

It is necessary to see that situations such as these do not create morale problems. In a situation involving the lack of supplies, morale can become a problem. The supplies might be food, weapons, ammunition, or fuel. All are essential to a smoothly functioning military unit. The combat situation speaks for itself. When lives are at stake, action must always be swift and decisive.

As a MCJROTC leader, you may at times find it necessary to use the authoritarian leadership style. For example, you are the squad leader and your squad is participating in a drill competition. At the last minute, one of your squad members is unable to participate. You must decide who will replace the cadet in the competition.

A situation such as this requires that you act quickly. It is also necessary that you take into consideration as many factors as possible before making a decision. You should find out who is available and who is proficient at drill.

The Follower

In an authoritarian situation, you must make sure that you understand your followers' capabilities. Again, football can be used as an illustration. In order for the person calling the plays in the last two minutes to make the best possible decision, that individual must be familiar with the players and their capabilities. If you know that your quarterback has a sore arm, you will have to go with medium range passes. If you have a running back with phenomenal speed, you might want to try to get the ball to him in the open field. Regardless of what play is called, if you do not know what your players are capable of, your chances of making a correct decision will be slim. This is not to say that if you do have all available information, you will make the best decision. It is to say that you will be in a position to do what is best for the team.

The example of the football team illustrates how important it is to know your followers in a unit. It is necessary that you know their abilities and backgrounds. You must be familiar with their knowledge of equipment and tactics. In this way, you will know which cadet is best suited for a specific task.

The Leader

You must also be aware of your own abilities and knowledge. The football coach has to understand that there is no time to develop new tactics or new plays, but he must apply what he knows. If he tries to create a play that is beyond his own and his players' understanding and capabilities, his chances of success are poor.

You, as a MCJROTC leader, must also be aware of your limits. There is no sense in attempting something that you know you are not capable of doing. This does not mean that whenever obstacles appear, you can pass the

problem to someone else. It means that the most important thing for you to consider is the accomplishment of the task. If you are unsure of the situation and some aspects of the problem seem foreign to you, it might be best to delegate some of your authority to another individual or to seek advice. In some cases, authoritarian leadership is not the best style to use to accomplish a task.

Communication

Communication between you and your subordinates is essential to gain knowledge of each other's abilities and nature. The football coach must see that his plays are communicated correctly to the quarterback. He can do this by using signals from the sidelines or by sending the plays in with other players. Regardless of the method the coach uses, it is still necessary that the plays are communicated correctly. If they are not, the ensuing delay will result in penalties.

As a cadet leader, you must develop your communication skills so that you will be able to convey your ideas with ease. Clear, concise orders allow speed in the communication process. In an authoritarian leadership situation, this is of the utmost importance. A situation that requires speed cannot be dealt with if the communication process is inaccurate.

Situation

The knowledge and understanding of these factors is of little or no use if the leader has failed to correctly analyze the situation. You must determine what is going on and what needs to be done to alleviate the problem or complete a task. In a situation requiring the authoritarian leadership style, you must examine these factors as quickly as possible. You must establish the nature of the situation; decide what must be done, and then see to it that it is done.

The football coach must also understand the situation in which he is involved in order to generate a solution. He must examine the field conditions, check the injury report, see how many time-outs are left, and consider the team's position on the field. This having been done, he is ready to make his decision.

It is often necessary to use the authoritarian leadership style when immediate action must be taken. In spite of the need for immediate action, the leader must still take into account the factors of leadership. These are the follower, the leader, communication, and the situation. These factors must also be taken into consideration when using the participative and the delegative leadership styles.

Participative Leadership Style

The participative leadership style involves the ideas and advice of others. Subordinates are involved in the determination of a plan of action. This does not mean that the leader is not responsible for the decision and the outcome of the action decided upon. It simply means that the leader has the benefit of the ideas, attitudes, and opinions of the group. This gives the leader a wider **spectrum** of possible actions. It also gives the group a voice in the decision making process.

Allowing the group or unit to have a say in the decision making process is good for morale. Subordinates are appreciative when their superiors consult them. Also, insight into a particular problem is not exclusive to the leader. Again, the analogy of a football team can be used to illustrate this leadership style.

During the course of a game, a coach has many decisions to make. He cannot always be aware of all the factors involved. For this reason, he has assistant coaches, much in the same way

that Marine Corps and MCJROTC officers have NCOs. The coaches study game films and establish attitudes concerning the tendencies and abilities of the opposition. Since all individuals are different, their observations are also different. What one coach sees in the offense or defense of the opposition may well be missed by others. Armed with this information, the assistants meet with the head coach, express their opinions, and explain why they think their ideas will lead to the successful completion of the mission -- victory. In this manner, the assistant coaches, or subordinates, are participating in the decision making process.

The same principles are involved in a MCJROTC leadership situation. If there is sufficient time, the leader can call in subordinates, so that advice concerning the situation at hand can be requested. The subordinates, having been informed that the meeting was to take place, have studied the problem at hand and have developed plans of action. Once the subordinates have been consulted and all ideas have been examined, the decision will be made by the leader.

When discussing the participative leadership style, remember that asking subordinates for advice is not a sign of weakness. It is a sign of intelligence and maturity for an individual to acknowledge the abilities and intelligence of others.

The participative leadership style means that you merely listen to the advice of others. It does not mean that you are obligated to follow this advice. You must make the decision that will allow for the accomplishment of the task. If you believe that your idea is the best of all possible solutions, then it should be used.

Delegative Leadership Style

When using the delegative style of leadership, your decision will concern assigning a specific task to a specific individual. In this style of leadership, decision-making authority is delegated to a subordinate. The responsibility for the actions and outcomes as a result of this delegation falls on the leader who assigned the task. In other words, you are responsible for the results of your subordinates' decisions.

Like the authoritarian and participative leadership styles, the delegative style can be illustrated by the workings of a football team. There is a great deal of time and effort spent in the preparation for a football game. It is almost impossible for one person to do everything. For this reason, the head coach delegates some of his authority to his subordinates. This allows the coach to work on the overall plan of action and to leave the details to others. The head coach is still responsible for the outcome; only the authority for the preparation has been delegated to others.

If a coach has enough confidence in the quarterback, the quarterback may be allowed to call his own plays. The coach might even allow the offensive coordinator to call the plays. Regardless of who makes the choices, the responsibility belongs to the coach because the coach is the leader. It is the coach's responsibility to win. If he

is not successful, he will be fired. It does not matter who called the play, developed the offensive strategy, or decided upon what kind of defense to use, the responsibility belongs to the leader.

The delegative leadership style is also found in the MCJROTC. You, as a cadet officer, have authority delegated to you. You also delegate authority to others. The responsibility for actions taken through authority that has been delegated always belongs to the cadet officer that delegated the authority. This does not mean that anytime something goes wrong, you can blame the individual officer above you. All cadets have a responsibility to do whatever they can to accomplish their task completely.

If your commanding officer assigns you a task, your chief concern should be the accomplishment of the task, not who will be responsible for success or failure. Conversely, you should not be concerned with the responsibility for success or failure when you delegate authority to a subordinate. You should be concerned with the success of the task.

It is your responsibility, when assigning a task or delegating authority, to see that the assignment is of a nature that will allow success. For this reason, you must always consider the factors of leadership when making a decision. The examination and consideration of these factors -- follower, leader, communication, and situation -- will put you in a position to choose a wise course of action.

Conclusion

Styles of leadership are important aspects of the leadership process. You must know which style to use in which situation. You must understand what each style entails. There are no set rules or regulations concerning which style to use at any given time. You must use your own judgment.

Understand that these styles of leadership interrelate and are interdependent. As you can see in the chart below, the leader receives input from subordinates. After the leader makes a decision for which the leader is responsible, authority is given or delegated to subordinates by way of orders. Notice that ultimate responsibility always belongs to the leader and that subordinate leaders must take on a degree of responsibility. There seldom will be only one leadership style involved in a particular situation. A leader who is using the authoritarian leadership style has been delegated authority by a superior. A leader using the participative leadership style, after making a decision as to what to do, will often delegate authority to others to accomplish various tasks. ❖
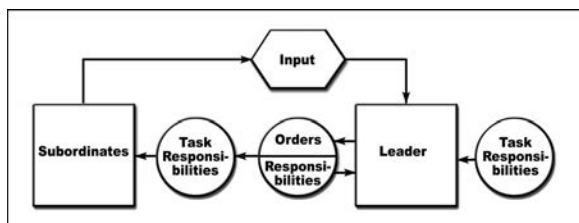
Plan and Conduct Special Events

PURPOSE

This lesson will explain and demonstrate how to effectively plan for and conduct a community, school, or public affairs event. You will learn the categories of issues to be considered and what questions you should answer in order to have a well-planned event. You will also learn about how to follow through, close out an event, and evaluate how things went.

Introduction

Regardless of the career path you follow, you may be called upon to help plan for and conduct a special event. You may be asked to help plan an event while you are still in school. Special events can take place at school or within the community. They can also be public affairs events encompassing a larger or more specific audience.

A special event is a one-time occasion focused on a definite purpose such as a school assembly, an awards banquet, a community clean-up day, a job fair, or a public debate.

A one-time special event is different from ongoing programs such as a lecture series, club meetings, weekly practices, or monthly homeowners meetings.

Planning and conducting an event is something anyone can do, provided he or she is willing to follow certain basic steps. These steps can be divided into several categories: planning, logistics, organization, promotion, follow-through,

and close out. Each category raises issues and questions for you to answer.

Planning

The planning stage for an event is the most critical, if you are aiming at success. Having realistic goals and a knowledge of an event's **operational** requirements are the first steps to hosting a well-managed, financially successful event. If you do not start out with a clear roadmap of what success looks like for your event, there will be no way for you to tell whether or not you achieved what you were hoping for. Many issues and actions come into play during the planning stage. There are many questions to answer.

- What is the purpose for the special event? Is the purpose important enough to merit the time and expense needed to properly stage, **publicize**, and evaluate the event?

- What will be the publicized theme of the event?

- What is the proposed budget for the event?

- Is there a specific audience to be defined and reached? Can that audience be assembled? Is there more than one audience?

- Does the theme or purpose of the event relate to a specific location or area or is it too general for a localized event?

- Does the event relate to a specific date or occasion? Is there another event at that time that may compete for attention?

- Is the event suitable for media coverage? School paper? Local paper? Television coverage?

- What are the minimum and maximum amounts of people that can attend the event?

Logistics

During the **logistics** stage of an event, you try to figure out how everything is going to come together. The logistics are the details that will make the event go smoothly. If you leave out the details, your event could turn into a nightmare.

- Where will you hold the event? Is there a contact person for the facility?

- Will there be food? What type of food? Will you allow for dietary limitations, such as attendees who are vegetarians?

- Will there be a charge for the event? How will you determine the appropriate amount to charge? What will the fee include? What will not be included?

- How will you follow through on the theme of the event? Will there be decorations? Will there be a need for graphics?

- How will you select the outside speakers or presenters of the event? How will contact be made?

- Who will provide technical support? What type of technical support will be needed?

- Will attendees be traveling to this event? How will travel be arranged?

- If there are separate activities within the event, where will they be held? How will they be scheduled?

- Will attendees register for this event? How will they register? Where will records be kept?

- Will there be souvenirs, awards, or certificates for the events. How will they be arranged?

- Will there be printed materials? How will they be produced?

Organization

Now that you know what your event is about, who it is for, and some of the issues with which you have to deal, it is time to think about who will do all this work. There is no need for you to feel overwhelmed. You may already have a chair and members of your planning committee. Perhaps they worked with you during the planning and logistics stages.

During this stage, you should create a checklist to make sure everything gets done. The checklist should have milestones and dates by which each action should be completed, and who is responsible for the action. Here are some other issues related to organization.

- Who will chair and serve on your committee(s)? How will they be selected?

- Who will draft a calendar of events to see when each decision must be made or each activity must take place in order to be ready on time?

- Who will be in charge of the food? Will it be delivered or will it need to be picked up?

- What is the **budget** for this event? How much money does each committee have in its

budget? How will committee members be reimbursed for expenses?

- Who will collect the money from **registrants**? Where will the money go once it comes in?

Promotion

If you do not **promote** your event, no one will show up. Formulate a publicity plan. Decide when and how media should be contacted. Be sure to alert the media of photo and interview opportunities.

- How will you notify potential attendees? What medium will you use? Phone? Flyer? Word of mouth? Radio? Newspaper?

- What do you need to tell potential attendees to encourage them to come? What will attract your targeted audience?

- With what frequency do you need to publicize your event?

Follow-through

As the day of the special event approaches, your work is far from over. You should not leave anything to chance or take anything for granted.

- Is the production of event materials on schedule?

- Have you ordered all gifts, awards, or certificates?

- How is the registration going?

- Have the nametags, signs, or invitations been produced?

- Have all the food and beverages been ordered?

- Have you scheduled a "tie-down" meeting just before the event to go over all last-minute arrangements for all committees?

- Have you arranged for a complete clean up of the facility where you are holding the event? Who will help with that?

Close-out

Once the event has taken place, there is still plenty of work to do.

- Have you developed ways to evaluate the event's success? Did you reach your target goals for attendance or the amount of money raised? If not, why not?

- Have the attendees evaluated the event? Did you reach your target goal for this evaluation?

- Have you documented the things that went well and the ones that missed their mark? This type of documentation will help others hold similar events.

- How did the **vendors** that you used work out? Are there any vendors that should not be used again for future events?

- Were any items omitted from your checklist that should have been there?

- Have you sent out any thank-you notes to special guests or presenters?

- Was the event worth repeating?

Conclusion

If you are called upon to plan or help plan an event, it is worth making the time and effort to do it correctly. How well the event comes off will reflect on you and your reputation. If you produce a well-planned, well-organized event, you will gain the respect of others. People will anxiously await the next opportunity to attend an event organized by you.

Remember to plan everything, make a checklist, get others to participate in the planning, and follow through on all your planning. Good organization will lead to a successful event. ❖

The United States Can Declare War
and Maintain a Navy

PURPOSE

All nations, by the very fact that they exist as nations, have the power to declare war, to make peace, as well as to conduct diplomatic relations with other nations. The United States is no different from any other country in this respect. The U.S. Constitution in Article I Section 8 Clause 11 states that Congress has the authority to declare war.

If a nation has the power to declare war and to make peace, and hopes to maintain that peace, it seems only logical to conclude that a nation with a shoreline must maintain a Navy. Without a navy, how could a nation protect its ports and waterways? How could a nation conduct commerce between its own ports and across the oceans? It is no wonder that the founding fathers clearly stated in Article I Section 8 Clause 13 of the U.S. Constitution that Congress has the power to provide and maintain a Navy.

You might wonder why one country declares war on another? There can be many reasons. This chapter will look at the two powers to declare war and maintain a naval service and examine the five declared wars in which the United States has engaged over the past two centuries.

Introduction

The Constitution of the United States documents the fundamental laws of the United States of America. Fifty-five delegates to the Constitutional Convention drew up the Constitution in Philadelphia during the summer of 1787. It was ratified by the states in 1788. The Constitution defines distinct powers for the Congress of the United States, the President, and the Federal Courts. This division of authority is known as a system of **checks and balances**, and it ensures that no one branch of government can dominate the others. The Constitution also establishes and limits the authority of the Federal Government over the states and spells out freedoms and liberties for U.S. citizens.

Two of the powers that the delegates felt were essential to include in the Constitution were the power to declare war and the authority to establish and maintain a naval force.

The Authority to Declare War

The power "to declare war" found in the U.S. Constitution (Article 1 Section 8 Clause 11) is generally thought of as an **inherent** power of all nations. In other words, it is a power that exists as a permanent and inseparable **attribute** of a nation.

When our country was not yet a nation but was 13 united colonies, we created the Continental Congress to act as if these colonies were one nation. The Continental Congress, composed of delegates from each of the thirteen colonies, exercised the powers of war and peace, raised an army, created a navy, and adopted the Declaration of Independence. When the American colonies separated themselves from Great Britain with that declaration, they separated as a unit. The powers of **sovereignty** (the supreme and independent power or authority of a state) passed from Great Britain to the newly formed nation -- the United States of America. In other words, the Constitution did not really "grant" the Federal Government the power to declare war. The power to declare war is a power of any and all nations simply because they are nations.

In the Supreme Court ruling of 1936, United States v. Custis-Wright, Corp., Justice Sutherland explained the logic of this thinking in the following way:

> It results that the investment [to furnish with power or authority] of the Federal Government with the powers of external sovereignty did not depend upon the affirmative grants of the Constitution. The power to declare and wage war, to conclude peace, to make treaties, to maintain **diplomatic** relations with other sovereignties, if they had never been mentioned in the Constitution, would

have vested in the Federal Government as necessary concomitants [i.e., attribute or quality] of nationality.

Provide and Maintain a Navy

Many of our nation's founders argued in favor of including the power "to provide and maintain a Navy" (Article I Section 8 Clause 13) in the Constitution. They felt it was necessary to protect the nation's commerce and navigation. In fact, they asserted that one of the great purposes of the Constitution was the encouragement and protection of navigation and trade. Without a navy, many felt it would be impossible to maintain the rights to our fisheries; to conduct trade and navigation on the country's lakes and rivers, especially the Mississippi River; and to conduct foreign **commerce**. In addition, many people argued that the nation required a naval service to protect the entire Atlantic coast. Without a strong navy, we could not protect ourselves against a foreign power in the case of war. We would be susceptible to an enemy invasion. Our **maritime** towns would be subject to foreign control. Even entrance to and departure from our own ports might be **interdicted**.

The founders who supported adding language to the Constitution regarding the nation's power to maintain a navy claimed that naval service would be the cheapest, as well as the best, defense against a foreign enemy. With a navy, the nation would not have to spend great amounts of money to build and maintain numerous forts and garrisons on our seacoast.

Briefly, many people felt maintaining a naval service was not only in the best interest of our national defense, it was also economical.

The general public also favored this position based on our experiences in the war with Great Britain.

> Our little navy, by a gallantry and brilliancy of achievement almost without parallel, had literally fought itself into favor, that the nation at large began to awake from its lethargy [lack of interest or concern] on this subject, and to insist upon a policy, which should at once make us respected and formidable abroad, and secure protection and honor at home. (Joseph Story: Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States, Book 3 Chapter XXI.)
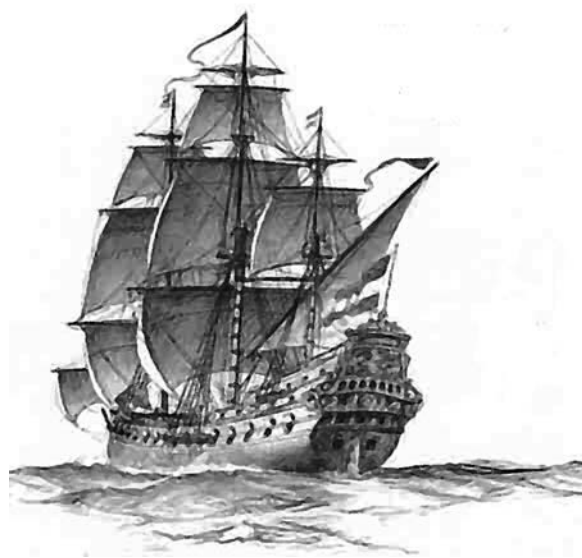
The Country Declares War

Between 1798 and 1993, there were approximately 234 times in which the United States used its military forces overseas in combat or potential conflict situations. That is about once every six months. The one common characteristic linking most of these military actions is that Congress did not formally declare war.

The United States has used the power to declare war on another nation five times from 1798 to 1993: The War of 1812, the Mexican War of 1846, the Spanish-American War of 1898, World War I, and World War II.

Why does one country declare war on another? There are many reasons. Some of those reasons include the following:

- Interfering in the conduct of international commerce, or interfering in the internal affairs of another country,

- A country's desire to expand beyond its current borders or spheres of influence,

- An invasion across a country's borders, the desire to come to the aid of an allied and often weaker nation,

- Any act of aggression on the part of one country over another.

Look at the five declared wars our country has experienced in the last 200 years.

War of 1812

Despite the desire of the United States to insulate itself from European affairs, the Napoleonic Wars (1799 – 1815) pulled the United States into a trade war with England and France. Starting in 1805, English ships captured American vessels engaged in trade with the French West Indies.   Similarly, the French **intervened** in American trade with the British.   Hoping to resolve the matter, Jefferson signed the **Embargo** Act of 1807 forbidding all trade with foreign nations.

Although the Embargo Act intended to bring England and France to terms, instead it

slowed the growth of American commerce and was difficult to enforce. Congress and President James Madison withdrew the Embargo Act in 1809 with the Non-Intercourse Act, giving the President the authority to allow trade with selected foreign powers. Trade relations between the nations proved difficult, however, and in 1810 resulted in Madison authorizing trade with France, but not with England.

By 1811 the longstanding tensions between the United States and Great Britain were very intense. Americans were outraged at the British Navy's practice of **impressing** American sailors into involuntary service. On the Western Frontier, the British were accused of **inciting** Native American attacks on white settlers. The United States was still in dispute with the British over certain land areas (Northwest Territories and the border with Canada). We were interested in acquiring more territory for ourselves. There were, in fact, those in the U.S. who wished to take over Canada.

A small group of "War Hawks" emerged and called for American military action against British intrusions on the young nation's sovereignty. Among the "War Hawks" were future national leaders like Henry Clay of Kentucky and John C. Calhoun of South Carolina. New England, however, opposed the war, fearing it would stifle the region's economy.

On June 1, 1812, President James Madison asked Congress to declare war on Great Britain. The formal declaration was made on July 18, 1812. Madison began his speech to Congress in this fashion:

> What, Mr. Speaker, are we now called on to decide? It is, whether we will resist by force the attempt, made by the [British] Government, to subject our maritime rights to the arbitrary and capricious rule

of her will; for my part I am not prepared to say that this country shall submit to have her commerce interdicted or regulated, by any foreign nation. Sir, I prefer war to submission.

Mexican War (1846)

Because Mexico never recognized Texas's independence, Mexicans technically considered the United States's annexation of Texas as an act of war. President Polk, whose **expansionist** goals were well known, sent General Zachary Taylor to Texas and in 1846 ordered him to advance to the Rio Grande. This action triggered a border dispute with Mexican troops because Mexico claimed the Nueces River farther north was the Texan border.

Mexican troops attacked a scouting group of American soldiers. Polk used the skirmish to claim that Mexico had invaded the United States and asked Congress to declare war, which it did. American troops quickly won victories in California and embarked on three campaigns to seize what is today the American Southwest. They captured Mexico City with a force commanded by General Winfield Scott. American soldiers won a series of victories. The war was very popular at home. A sudden outpouring of books, newspaper stories, poems, and songs celebrated the war, the first to take place outside the borders of the United States.

Spanish-American War (1898)

On February 15, 1898, an explosion killed 266 United States sailors on the *Maine* while the warship was anchored in Havana, Cuba. Investigations many years later showed that a fire in the ship's coalbunker triggered the disaster. Nevertheless, the accident came at a time when

expansionist fever ran high in the United States. Many newspapers and politicians actively encouraged anti-Spanish resentment for the treatment of Cuban revolutionaries. When the *Maine* blew up in the Spanish harbor, newspapers, politicians, and the public demanded **retribution** against Spain.

On April 11, 1898, President William McKinley asked Congress for a declaration of war, even though the day before Spain had agreed to United States demands in Cuba. On April 25, war was formally declared. Starting in the 1880's, naval officers such as Alfred Thayer Mahan and Commodore George Dewey advocated a naval buildup as the key to United States securing national greatness. By the time the Spanish-American War arrived, the United States boasted a heavily armed, modern navy.

President Theodore Roosevelt told Commodore Perry to be ready to attack the Spanish fleet docked in Manilla Bay in the Philippines. When the war was declared, Dewey sailed into the harbor and annihilated the Spanish fleet.

World War I (1917)

When Woodrow Wilson ran for re-election in 1916, he pledged to keep the United States out of war. He actually ran on the ticket, "He kept us out of war." At this time in our nation's history, **isolationist** sentiment ran deep. In addition, at the outset of the war, it was unclear which side the United States would take. Many German- and Irish-Americans opposed intervening on the side of the **allies**. In 1916, United States troops had engaged in several border conflicts with Mexico after the United States had attempted to influence domestic politics. Although the two countries had reached a peace agreement, tensions remained.

By early 1917, however, the United States found it increasingly difficult to maintain its **neutral** stance. There were strong financial ties between the British and American financial communities. In addition, Germany had used submarines to sink merchant vessels. Although it had suspended the sinking of neutral vessels, Germany was just about to restore the policy. The Germans were about to rescind the Sussex Pledge, which restricted submarine attacks. It was not just neutral vessels; it was also sinking vessels without warning. Confident that Germany was on the verge of knocking Russia out of the war, the German foreign minister, Arthur Zimmerman, sent a message. In it, he proposed that Mexico and Japan ally themselves with Germany if the United States entered the war when Germany lifted its ban on unrestricted submarine warfare. The Zimmerman Note offered Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico to the Mexicans in return for their support.

The British **intercepted** the telegram and used its contents to influence the U.S. to be anti-German, before forwarding the telegram to the United States. Wilson released the contents of the note to the public. The release of the contents of the message made American sentiment swing strongly to the Allied cause. The message also alerted the nation to the fact that the war was not just a European affair.

With the resumption of submarine attacks on neutral ships in the Atlantic Ocean, President Wilson decided to seek a declaration of war from Congress. When Wilson made the request on April 2, 1917, to declare war, 209 Americans had died in the attacks, 28 of them on American ships, since the start of World War I in 1914. The most spectacular sinking had been the British ship *Lusitania* on May 7, 1915, killing 128 Americans. Germany claimed (correctly as it turned out) that the ocean liner was carrying ammunition bound

for Great Britain. Nevertheless, Americans were outraged at the German aggression, and it became pretty clear that we would become a member of the Allies. Two days after Wilson's speech, Congress declared war on Germany.

World War II

On January 6, 1941, Franklin D. Roosevelt delivered his famous "Four Freedoms Speech" outlining the principles for which the United States would be willing to go to war. The four freedoms he outlined were freedom of speech, freedom of worship, freedom from want, and freedom from fear.

Desperate for supplies to protect England, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill begged Roosevelt for assistance to prevent Germany's expected invasion. By early 1941, Roosevelt had no doubt that the United States needed to throw its weight behind England.

Just before dawn on December 7, 1941, the Japanese Air Force launched a surprise attack against the United States Pacific Fleet in Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, destroying most of the battleships. Casualties totaled 2,280 killed and 1,109 wounded. At the same time, Japanese forces successfully attacked the Philippines, Guam, Midway, Hong Kong, the Malay Peninsula, and several other military bases.

On December 8, stunned by the strike, Roosevelt asked Congress to declare war against Japan. Congress unanimously approved the request the same day. Three days later, Germany and Italy declared war on the United States.

The opening lines of Roosevelt's speech to the Congress remain forever in our minds:

"Yesterday, December 7, 1941 – a date which will live in infamy – the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by naval and air forces of the Empire of Japan."

Conclusion

Wars are declared for a variety of reasons. Depending on the policies of the national government, attitudes of the general population, and the time period, wars can be the result of a nation's desire to expand its sphere of influence or remain isolated and focused only on its own interests. A nation may desire to gain additional territory, defend its friends and allies, or combat the aggressive actions of another country. Many reasons have prompted wars over the centuries. Nations such as the United States have the power to declare war, and have set forth that power in documents, just as we have in our U.S. Constitution. The writers of our Constitution found it essential to include the power to declare war and the authority to provide and maintain a navy in order to protect and defend our nation's liberty and freedoms. ❖

Congress and the President –
Their Tug of "War"

PURPOSE

Since the creation of the Republic, Presidents and Congress have argued over who should control the power to involve our nation in war. The War Powers Resolution of 1973 tried to resolve this longstanding debate that is the result of two seemingly conflicting provisions in the Constitution. The Constitution gives Congress the power "to declare War … make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water" and "to make rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval forces." At the same time, the Constitution states the President "shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States."

Since World War II and the Cold War, what generally happens is the President informally consults with the Congress before considering military action. However, during a crisis, the President acts and Congress supports the decisions made by our nation's leader.

Introduction

The Constitution clearly grants Congress the power to declare war in Article I Section 8. However, in Article II Section 2, the Constitution also clearly states that the President is the Commander in Chief of all the armed forces.

One of America's earliest Presidents, Thomas Jefferson said, "Congress alone is constitutionally invested with the power of changing our condition from peace to war…" Another of our founding fathers, Alexander Hamilton, also supported Congress's sole war-making powers when he stated,

> The Constitution supposes, what the History of all governments demonstrates, that the Executive is the branch of power most interested in war, and most prone to it. It has accordingly with studied care vested the question of war to the Legislature.

Many people argue that the intent of the framers of the Constitution was to empower Congress – and not the President – with the power to commit U.S. military forces to battle.

However, history shows that the ability to defend our nation or take military action has often not involved the Congress directly, and that the President's role as Commander in Chief is often the reason for that.

A Historical Perspective

The issue of control over and deployment of U.S. military forces once seemed simple.

The drafters of the Constitution had just gone through the experience of the war with Great Britain. The Declaration of Independence listed offenses against King George III, the British monarch. The King had absolute power to declare war in Britain. With the war fresh in their minds, the framers were determined that no one person should have the authority to decide on war. They believed that a division of powers, not a centralization of authority, would best serve the country. To that end, the Constitution in Article 1, Section 8 gave Congress the power to declare war.

The question of the need for a declaration of war dates all the way back to the presidency of Thomas Jefferson and the war with Tripoli (1801 – 1805). Jefferson sent a squadron of warships to the Mediterranean to protect U.S. shipping against the forces of the Pasha of Tripoli. Jefferson's instructions to the squadron were that they act in a defensive manner only, with a strictly defined order of battle. When a Tripolitan cruiser shot at a U.S. ship, the U.S. forces seized the ship, disarmed it, and released it. Jefferson's message to Congress on the incident indicated that he felt the acts to be within constitutional bounds. Alexander Hamilton wrote to Congress and espoused his belief that since the United States did not start the conflict, the United States was in a state of war, and no formal declaration was needed to conduct war actions. Congress authorized Jefferson's acts without declaring war on the Pasha.

Based on this incident, you could draw the conclusion that if an act of war was committed against the United States, a state of war exists. A declaration of war by the Congress places the Unites States at war without any doubt. Absent a declaration of war, the President can react to acts of war in an **expedient** fashion as he sees fit.
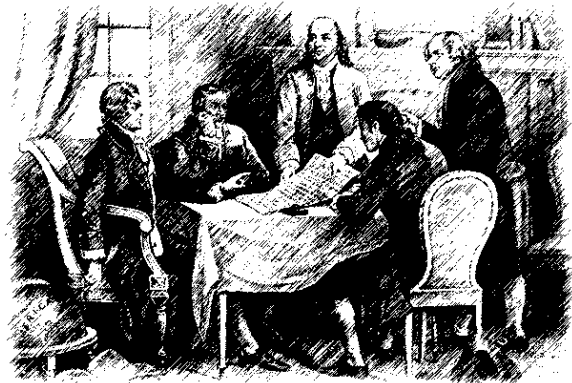
In fact, Presidents started to undertake military actions without congressional approval soon after the American Revolution. Between 1798 and 1989, there was approximately 215 times in which the United States used its military forces overseas in combat or potential conflict situations. That is about once every nine months.

The one common characteristic linking most of these military actions is that they were undeclared. There have only been five declared wars: The War of 1812, the Mexican War of 1846, the Spanish-American War of 1898, World War I, and World War II.

Use of Presidential Powers

In World War II, President Roosevelt asked Congress to declare war against Japan, Germany and Italy in 1941, the day after Japan bombed Pearl Harbor, December 7. However, in Korea, we insisted the U.S. was participating in a "police action," so the debate over who had war-making powers did not arise. From 1950 to 1953, U.S. forces were committed to war against

communist North Korea, -- without a formal declaration by Congress.

During the **Cold War** (1945 – 1991), Congress **acquiesced** to the President. The Cold War symbolized the fight for supremacy between communist, especially the Soviet Union, and democratic, primarily the U.S., countries. It was not a "hot" war in the sense that one nation attacked another. However, there was the threat of immediate nuclear exchange between the U.S. and its enemies allowed only minutes to make a decision.

In Vietnam, the **Gulf of Tonkin Resolution** allowed President Johnson to at least pay lip service to the Congressional war-making prerogative. This resolution stated that Congress approved and supported the determination of the President, as Commander in Chief, to take all necessary measures to repel any armed attack against the forces of the United States and to prevent further aggression. This resolution further stated that it was both in the national interest of the U.S. and the interest of world peace to maintain peace and security in Southeast Asia.

The War Powers Resolution

The **War Powers Resolution** was passed in 1973, following eight years of the war in Southeast Asia. At the time, U.S. forces were still involved in a conflict between communist North Vietnam and South Vietnam without a formal declaration of war. By this time, the administration of President Richard M. Nixon had begun a substantial withdrawal of U.S. forces. However, Congress was concerned about how an undeclared war could last eight years and cost 50, 000 lives. The War Powers Act granted the President the right to send forces overseas for 60 days without any sort of congressional authorization.

The purpose of the War Powers Resolution (P.L. 93-148, passed over President Nixon's veto on November 7, 1973) is to ensure that both Congress and the President share in making decisions that may get the U.S. involved in hostilities. This resolution requires the President to meet several conditions whenever the President introduces U.S. forces abroad in situations that might be considered hostile or **imminently** hostile.

Criterion for **compliance** include the following:

- Prior consultation with Congress, alerting it that the military force had been used or was expected to be used in a particular situation;

- Fulfillment of certain reporting requirements, including specific reasons for the action and justifications for the action to be provided to the Congress within 48 hours of taking any action or making any tactical decision;

- Congressional authorization for the action;

- Congress has 60 days to debate the President's action. If the Congress does not authorize the action, the military forces have to be withdrawn at the end of 60 days. The President could submit a request for 30-day extension of this deadline; and

- Congress retains the power, through the passage of a **concurrent** resolution, to direct the President to remove military powers at any time during the 60-day period.

Events of the 1980s

There has been twenty times, since the War Powers Act was passed, that the President has legally started, drafted and allowed the use of the military without congressional participation. The War Powers Act has given the President

much leeway in placing the military in conflict. Take a look, for example, at the period of the 1980s and early '90s.

The 1980s saw numerous instances of Presidential use of U.S. military forces without a declaration of war by Congress. In 1980, the attempt to rescue American hostages in Iran resulted in the death of eight American troops. The U. S. sent military advisers to Honduras and El Salvador. As part of a multi-national force, U.S. Marines were sent to Lebanon where, in 1983, a car bomb attack resulted in the death of 239 U.S. military personnel. Also in 1983, the U.S. invaded Grenada. U.S. bombing strikes against Libya resulted in the death of two American pilots in 1986. The U.S sent troops to Bolivia in 1986 to assist in anti-drug operations. There were U.S. naval escort operations in the Persian Gulf in 1987 and 1988. Libyan fighter planes were shot down in 1989. Also in 1989, the U.S. invaded Panama. And in the early 1990s, we saw the war against Iraq and the deployment of troops to Somalia and Bosnia.

The closest Congress came to formally declaring war in recent history was just prior to the start of operations against Iraq during the 1990-91 Gulf War, in response to Baghdad's invasion of Kuwait. Although President Bush, Sr. argued he did not need Congressional approval to act in the Gulf War, Congress **explicitly** supported the war. Congress simply passed a resolution supporting President Bush, Sr.'s deployment of U.S. forces to the Gulf; although those forces were already being deployed by the time the resolution was offered.

These are the latest actions in a long list on the use of U.S. armed forces abroad. The President ordered most of these decisions alone. In recent times, a new issue has become congressional authorization of U.N. peacekeeping or other U.N. sponsored actions in which the U.S. participates. The President has employed diplomatic means through the UN to gain world-wide support for military actions. In the Gulf War, the UN Security Council Resolution 678 authorized the use of force against Iraq. By that time, the President had already deployed troops and ships to the area. However, before an assault took place, the UN Security Council set a January 15, 1991, deadline for Iraq to get out of Kuwait. By that date a coalition of 39 nations were part of the mobilization. The President consulted with Congress who supported the President's actions. However, no formal declaration of war was asked for or given.

Despite the requirement for shared decision-making powers in the War Powers Act, Congressional war-making authority and oversight has decreased considerably. As a result, there is some debate as to whether the War Powers Resolution is an appropriate and effective means of assuring congressional participation in actions that might get the U.S. involved in war. Some people insist that the War Powers Resolution has not significantly increased congressional participation. Others emphasize that it has prompted consultation and served as **leverage**. For now, Presidents consult Congress, and, for the most part, Congress supports Presidents during crises.

An Effort to Repeal the War Powers Act

There have been proposals made to strengthen, change or repeal the resolution. On March 13, 2001, a Texas lawmaker, Representative Ron Paul, introduced a measure in the House of Representatives. The measure was called the "Constitutional War Powers Resolution of 2001," or H.J.R. 27. The bill, which has six co-sponsors,

sought to "repeal the War Powers Resolution to fulfill the intent of the framers of the Constitution that Congress and not the President has the power to declare war." The bill was referred to the House International Relations Committee. Since the bill was introduced, terrorist activities in New York and Washington, DC resulted in military action in Afghanistan. President Bush did not ask Congress for a formal declaration of war. Congress, however, passed a variety of bills, which supported President Bush's efforts to fight terrorism at home and abroad. It is unlikely that the War Powers Act repeal effort will have enough support to move from committee to the floor of the House for a vote by the full membership.

Conclusion

In Article I Section 8, Congress is empowered "To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water" as well as "To make rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and Naval forces." At the same time, Article II Section 2 states that the President "shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States." Over the years, the debate over the meaning of these two provisions of the Constitution centered on the extent of the President's right to commit troops into military conflicts to preserve our nation. With the War Powers Resolution in 1973, Congress and the President were directed to share in the decision-making responsibility of involving the U.S. in hostilities.   Since that time, however, the President, with only the consultation of Congress, has initiated many of the hostile actions involving the U.S. For the most part, Congress supports the President's decisions. ❖

Service Etiquette

PURPOSE

This lesson will examine the role of etiquette in the armed services. You will learn proper forms of address for the military as well as civilian dignitaries when making introductions and in official correspondence. You will also learn the protocol for reporting to a senior officer, rendering honors during an official visit, and attendance at military funerals and military banquets.

Introduction to Service Etiquette

During your high school years, your time in the MCJROTC, and life after graduation, there will be occasions when you will be encouraged to interact with people socially. By knowing the rules of proper etiquette, you will not only make a good impression, but you will also be more relaxed and confident in these situations.

Service etiquette is really just an extension of the simple courtesy and good manners that you should practice everyday. It is a code of behavior based on common courtesy, sincerity, and respect, combined with the customs and traditions of the armed services. Military courtesy is very formal in nature and reflective of the discipline of the service.

When you demonstrate proper service etiquette, you show respect for authority and experience, appreciation for the support of fellow Marines, and loyalty to the United States and the Constitution.

Introductions

Introductions should be simple, direct, and dignified, and the act of making them should be an occasion of formality. They should be made whenever people gather socially, even for a short period of time. Introductions should be made automatically and immediately when discovering that two people do not know each other. You may make these introductions or have someone else do it – as in a **receiving line**, but you cannot neglect an introduction without running the risk of being rude or negligent.

Making Introductions

When making an introduction, avoid the use of elaborate phrases. Recall that introductions should be simple and direct. The most generally accepted introductions are: *"…, may I introduce…"* or *"…, I would like you to meet …."* Never say *"…, meet so-and-so."* Speak each name slowly and clearly so there can be no possibility of misunderstanding on the part of either person.

When you are on the receiving end of an introduction, make a special point of listening to the other person's name. If you forget the name, or did not hear it, ask – with an apology – for the name to be restated. Then, use the name several times in conversation. This will help you remember it.

When being introduced, always return a courtesy such as, *"Nice to meet you," "Hello," "I am really glad to meet you,"* or *"How do you do?"* If you were the one making the introduction, it is not appropriate to walk off and leave the two people staring at each other. As the person who made the introduction, you should either say something about each person to get a conversation started or

excuse yourself so that you and your guest can continue to move about the room or participate in some other event.

When starting a conversation, mention something of common interest to both parties. For example: *"Captain Davis, I would like you to meet Michael Knight. Captain Davis is my Senior Army Instructor, Michael. Sir, Michael hopes to enroll in MCJROTC next year."*

Before taking leave of the person whom you just introduced, your guest should respond with *"Good-bye, I am very glad to have met you,"* or something to that effect. (Note: In taking leave of a group, it makes no difference if you were introduced or merely included in their conversation, you politely and quietly respond good-bye to anyone who happens to be looking at you, without attracting the attention of those who are unaware that you are leaving.)

Formal Introductions

It is a general rule that you introduce juniors to seniors (this applies to age and military rank), gentlemen to ladies, and so on. However, the degree of formality used when making the introduction depends on the position of the persons involved and/or the solemnity of the occasion.

When introducing someone to a dignitary, mention the dignitary first to show respect for the office he or she holds. Ensure that you use the correct formal title or **appellative** for the dignitary when making the introduction. A few of the more common titles are listed below.

- Introduce a doctor, judge, or bishop by their titles.

- Introduce members of Congress by Senator or The Honorable.

- Introduce a Catholic priest by Father, and an archbishop by Your Grace. Some Protestant clergy use titles such as Reverend, Pastor, or Doctor, whereas others prefer to be addressed as Mr., Mrs., Miss, or Ms.. It is best to ask the individual how he or she prefers to be introduced before the introduction is made.

- Introduce military personnel by their rank (including doctors and clergy); for example, when introducing your guest to one of your MCJROTC instructors, you might say *"First Sergeant Allen, I would like you to meet Miss Jones."*

If the situation arose where you had to introduce a teacher to a parent, you would use the teacher's name first. For example, *"Major Cooper, I would like you to meet my mother, Mrs. Eastern."* If both of your parents were there, you would introduce the woman first and then the man, such as, *"Major Cooper, I would like you to meet my parents, Mrs. Eastern and Mr. Eastern."*

Less Formal Introductions

When introducing two people whom you know very well and who have heard you talk of the other, you may be more casual. For example, to introduce a squad buddy to your sister, you might simply say, *"Susie, this is Pete."* In this example, it is perfectly acceptable to make the introduction using the first names of both people; however, never make an introduction to an adult, senior, etc., using that person's first name.

In some cadet battalions or military academies, cadets have only one formal title as far as introductions are concerned – that of a Cadet. In those situations, the rank structure is not used when addressing cadets socially. For instance, you would say, *"Doctor Jones, this is Cadet Draper,"* not *"Doctor Jones, this is Cadet Lieutenant Draper."* Furthermore, at some schools cadets may be addressed as *"Mr. Draper"* or *"Ms. Draper"* during conversations. For example, *"Mr. Draper, I am pleased to meet you."*

When and How to Shake Hands

When gentlemen are introduced to each other, they always shake hands. Additionally, ladies who are MCJROTC cadets always shake hands during introductions. However, as a more general rule, whenever a lady or gentleman extends their hand as a form of greeting, the receiving party should reciprocate the gesture. Nothing could be more ill bred than to treat curtly any gesture made in spontaneous friendliness. At the end of the introduction and/or conversation, those who were drawn into it do not usually shake hands when parting.

A proper handshake is made briefly; but there should be a feeling of strength and warmth in the clasp. In addition, always maintain eye contact at the same time with the person whose hand one takes. Never shake a hand violently, grasp the hand like a vise, keep the handshake going for a long period of time, or offer only your fingertips.

The Receiving Line

Introductions at a formal reception may often include a receiving line. It is customary, and often mandatory, that all guests go through the receiving line upon arrival. The people who would be in the receiving line are (from left to right):

- The host (commander of the unit holding the reception)

- The spouse or guest of the Unit Commander

- The ranking honored guest, with his or her spouse/guest

- Other dignitaries with their guests

At a reception, the lady precedes the gentleman through the receiving line. The gentleman, whether or not he is the MCJROTC cadet, introduces the lady first then himself to the **adjutant**, who often announces the names of all attendees to the host. A lady or gentleman attending **stag** should introduce him or herself to the adjutant. The adjutant will announce your name to the host as you step in front of him or her. A simple, pleasant greeting and a cordial handshake are all that is necessary when moving through a receiving line. Save lengthy conversation for later. Should your name get lost in the line, repeat it for the benefit of the person doing the greeting.

In the absence of an adjutant, the lady still precedes the man through the receiving line. He introduces her first, and then introduces himself directly to the host. Once you have finished this line, you may proceed to the serving of refreshments or conversation with other guests and await the signal for the next event. If the receiving and dining rooms are separate, do not enter the dining room until that signal is given.

For the remainder of the event, you will be responsible for making introductions as you move around the room and during dinner.

Other Forms of Introductions

If seated, one rises to acknowledge an introduction and remains standing while other members of the party are being introduced to one another. When being introduced to ladies or

gentlemen who are seated, you need not rise if rising may inconvenience others at the table.

When being introduced to a lady out-of-doors, a gentleman in civilian clothes always removes his hat. In addition, a gentleman will ordinarily remove his glove to shake hands unless he is a member of a color guard or honor guard. However, if he is confronted with a sudden introduction when he has gloves on, making it slow and awkward to remove a glove while the other person is standing with his or her hand outstretched, it is better to shake hands with the glove on with no apology. (Note: You would also use these rules as part of general public behavior, even in casual situations.)

If you wish to introduce two people who are not near each other, always take the junior to the senior, the young lady to the older person, the gentleman to the lady and so on; never the reverse.

When in doubt whether two people have met, it is perfectly permissible to ask. Be sure to address the senior first, using a courtesy such as *"Colonel Smith, have you met Miss Jones?"* If they have not met, make the introduction. Usually, most people will consider your question as tantamount to an introduction, and will proceed with the how-do-you-dos. The important thing is not to assume that people know each other. There is no harm in introducing people who have already met; it is, however, quite inconsiderate to have strangers together without an introduction.

Some people have a difficult time remembering names. Not remembering a name is a common failing and can be easily forgiven. However, forgetting a name is never an excuse for not making an introduction. If necessary, ask for the person's name – with appropriate apologies – before starting the introduction. For example, *"I beg your pardon, sir (or ma'am), but I have forgotten your*

name. Thank you, sir (ma'am). Colonel Smith, I would like you to meet Miss Jones."

In certain situations, you may find it necessary to introduce yourself to another person. If you are next to someone you do not know and no one is around to make an introduction, it is perfectly acceptable to make your own introduction. Use a greeting such as *"Hello, I am Tom Frazier,"* while shaking that person's hand. Do not say, *"What's your name?"* A good reply to you would be *"Ted Wentworth, nice to meet you."* It is then up to both people to start their own conversation.

Service and Civilian Forms of Address

In addition to knowing the proper way to introduce someone who has a particular title or rank, it is also important to know how you should address them when speaking and how you should address any kind of written correspondence. In written correspondence, full rank precedes the name and is written out. In conversation, however, all generals, admirals, colonels, and privates are addressed as General, Admiral, Colonel, and Private respectively. All staff Noncommissioned Officers (NCOs), those with the rank of staff sergeant and higher, are addressed by their specific titles (e.g., Gunnery Sergeant Williams, Master Sergeant Woodson, etc.) Some examples are listed in the following table:

Written	Spoken	Introduction
Brigadier General John Doe, U.S. Army	General Doe	General Doe
Lieutenant Colonel Jane Doe, U.S. Air Force 225th Bomber Squadron	Colonel Doe	Colonel Doe or Lieutenant Colonel Doe, of the 225th Bomber Squadron
First Lieutenant John Doe, U.S. Marine Corps	Lieutenant Doe	Lieutenant Doe or First Lieutenant Doe, of the Marine Corps
Rear Admiral John Smith, U.S. Navy	Admiral Jones	Admiral Jones or Rear Admiral John Jones, Superintendent of the U.S. Naval Academy
Lieutenant Commander Louise Smith, U.S. Navy Gunnery Officer	Lieutenant Commander Smith	Lieutenant Commander Smith
Midshipman Joseph Smith	Mr. Smith	Midshipman Smith
The President	Mr. President	The President or The President of the United States
The Vice President	Mr. Vice President	The Vice President or The Vice President of the United States
The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court	Mr. Chief Justice	The Honorable John Doe, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States
The Honorable Jane (John) Doe Secretary of State	Madam Secretary or Mr. Secretary	The Honorable Jane Doe, Secretary of State

Written	Spoken	Introduction
The Honorable Mary Jones United States Senate	Senator Jones	The Honorable Mary Jones, Senator from Virginia
The Honorable John Doe House of Representatives	Congressman Doe	The Honorable John Doe, Representative from Massachusetts

In less formal and in official correspondence, the abbreviations USMC, USN, USA, etc. may be used for the branch of service as well as abbreviations for rank, such as MajGen, LtCol, Capt, 1stLt, etc. Reserve officers of all the services use the letter 'R' after their branch. For example, a Marine Corps Reserve officer would use USMCR.

It is also important to note that elected officials retain their titles even after leaving office. For example, President Clinton would still be introduced as President Clinton, and spoken to as Mr. President.

Invitations

When you are invited to attend a social event, which could be a short afternoon visit, a dinner party, or a formal dance or ball, you have certain obligations that you must observe as a guest.

First, you must understand the invitation: what you are invited for, where it will be held, when you should be there, and what you should

The Cadet Class of 2002
of the United States Marine Corps
Junior ROTC Program
requests the pleasure of your company
at the
Annual Cadet Dinner
On Saturday, the sixteenth of May
at seven o'clock in the evening
Weiss Banquet Hall

R.S.V.P.
202-694-2475/8762   Formal Attire

wear. A written invitation will usually spell out most of these things quite clearly.

The R.S.V.P

R.S.V.P. comes from the French expression *"Respondez s'il vous plait,"* which means *"please reply."* On many invitations, you will see the R.S.V.P. followed by a telephone number. In this case, the courtesy of a prompt reply by telephone is required to permit the host, hostess, or planning committee to properly plan the event. Always call within two or three days to accept or decline the invitation. Make your call between 9 a.m. and 6 p.m.

If your plans for that day are unsettled or indefinite, do not pass this problem on to the prospective host or hostess. It would be much better to outright decline the invitation than to give a complicated account of your indefinite social activities. Even if the other arrangement or engagement is tentative; it is best to decline the invitation. Once you have declined, however, do not call back if your plans change.

When declining, it is sufficient to say to the host or hostess that a conflicting duty or social engagement prevents you from accepting. You are at liberty to turn down an invitation because you do not wish to go; however, you should exercise good judgment in deciding whether or not to decline an invitation.

If, after you accepted an invitation, an illness or an absolute emergency prevents you

from attending, call the host or hostess immediately with regrets and apologies.

You are not at liberty to invite someone else along unless the invitation clearly indicates the number and names of those invited.

There are several variations of the R.S.V.P. that are coming into widespread use, especially on informal invitations.

- "R.S.V.P. Regrets Only." This invitation means that the prospective host or hostess is expecting you unless you notify otherwise that you cannot come. If you can accept, you need not reply, just be there on time.

- Invitations by phone. When accepting an invitation by phone, it is a good idea to repeat back all of the essential information so that there is no misunderstanding. If you must first check your calendar before answering, get all the details and explain that you will call back as soon as you have done so. Thank the caller for the invitation, make sure you have the phone number, and promise to call right back. Then, make sure you do.

Where

Most written invitations will indicate exactly where the function is being held. Some invitations may include a small map for your convenience.

When

Invitations to dinners, receptions, and weddings will always give a time. For dinners and receptions, this is the time at which you should arrive, **no earlier and no later**. You will need to plan your timing so that you can be punctual. The time on a wedding invitation is the time the ceremony begins; therefore, you should allow sufficient time to be punctual.

If you are invited to an open house from 3 to 6 p.m., you may arrive any time after three and depart before six. You are not expected to stay the entire three hours. After a dinner party, you should stay at least an hour, otherwise it hints of "eat-and-run" rudeness.

What to Wear

The invitation may specify what you should wear. For example, cadets would most likely wear their Class A uniform to a Cadet Ball. In this situation, male guests should wear a suit while female guests should wear either short or long evening attire.

Some invitations may simply indicate that the dress is formal, informal, or casual. Ensure that you understand what these terms mean. If you are in doubt, ask the host or hostess what to wear when you call to R.S.V.P. As a general rule, use the following guidelines:

- *Formal*: For gentlemen, a suit may be acceptable, although a tuxedo or uniform equivalent is preferred; for ladies, a short or long evening gown is appropriate.

- *Informal:* For gentlemen, a sport coat and tie is appropriate; for ladies, a dress appropriate for day-time wear or a nice pants suit is acceptable.

- *Casual:* For gentleman, nice slacks and a sport shirt is appropriate; for ladies, a sundress or nice pants and blouse is appropriate. In some situations, jeans or shorts and a nice shirt or blouse may be acceptable.

Courtesies When a Guest at Smaller Functions

When attending an open house or a small dinner party, seek out your host and/or hostess immediately upon arrival and greet them. A

crowded room should not keep you from properly greeting your host and hostess. You should also delay getting any refreshments until after you have properly greeted them.

Since the host and hostess are in charge, let them run things. As a polite, unassuming guest, you should help by making conversation and joining wholeheartedly in whatever activities they have planned.

You should never sit when other guests are standing in your presence.

Before leaving, you must thank your host and hostess for a wonderful time. Even if there are still dozens of people present, you must seek them out to say thank you and good-bye.

Thank-You Notes

Thank-you notes should be written within two or three days, but no more than a week, after you have been a guest at someone's home. A thank-you note should be handwritten in ink on quality writing paper. Stationary sets that provide matching paper and envelopes are recommended. Be conservative in the choice of color and design. Plain white is always acceptable. Some of the requirements for a thank-you note are:

- Spell out the month – the notation 3/9/99 is not used socially. Place the date in the upper right-hand corner just below the fold line on the informal notepaper.

- Ensure there are adequate margins on both sides of the paper – leave about one and one-fourth inch on the left side and about three-fourths inch on the right, depending on the size of the paper.

- Place the salutation, such as *"Dear Mrs. Elliott,"* at the left margin.

- Indent the first line of each paragraph; bring each subsequent line out to the left margin.

- Place the complimentary close approximately as far to the right as the date at the top of the page. *"Sincerely,"* or *"Sincerely yours,"* with your first and last names are acceptable complimentary closes. Never use *"Yours truly,"* and reserve the use of *"Love,"* for a family member or close friend followed by your first name only.

- Do not use "Cadet" or your cadet rank in your signature.

- Your return address belongs on the envelope, not under your signature.

There should be a minimum of three paragraphs in the thank-you note. The first expresses your thanks specifically and in detail for the occasion. The last briefly summarizes your thanks. There must be one or more paragraphs in the middle on any topic you choose about the occasion you attended. Do not invite yourself back in your thank-you note.

When expressing yourself – be yourself! If you do not normally speak in flowery language, then do not sound that way in your note. Sincerity is far more important than eloquence. *"I was overwhelmed by the sumptuousness of the repast in your exquisite domicile,"* is pretty silly from most people. *"I enjoyed the dinner in your attractive home,"* sounds much more natural. If you particularly enjoyed the soup, or if the chocolate cream pie was out of this world, by all means say so in your note.

Sincerity is the first rule in social correspondence. Simplicity is the second rule. You can hardly go wrong with a few simple and direct statements of the things that pleased or amused you. Write just as you would say it to someone you know very well. Also, use correct grammar and spelling and keep it neat.

The thank-you note is an individual responsibility. If more than one of you enjoyed a dinner party at someone's home, it is not proper to send one thank-you note. Each of you should write your own note.

Follow the example shown below to address an envelope. Ensure that you use a block style; always include the proper title with the name (such as Mr., Mrs., Miss, Ms., Dr., Colonel, etc.); and place the city, two-letter state abbreviation, and zip code on the same line.

> Mrs. Leslie Elliott
> 2001 Deerfield Street
> Parsons, NC 12345-0021

Place your return address on the front top left-hand corner of the envelope. You may use an address label for this purpose. You may also include "Cadet" in your title, but not your cadet rank: Cadet John C. Scott is acceptable, but Cadet Captain John C. Scott is not correct.

If you are on the planning committee for a Cadet Ball, you should also send thank-you notes to the special guests, the organizations that sponsored the event, and the organizations that provided services and entertainment.

Telephone Courtesies

The telephone is a valuable time-saver and an effective means of communication. Here are some tips for proper telephone usage.

When calling a private residence to respond to an R.S.V.P., it is most proper to call between nine in the morning and six at night. Avoid calling during meal hours. If you are in doubt, ask the person you are calling if this is a convenient time – offer to call back later if

necessary. Let the phone ring at least six times to allow the person to reach the phone.

Always identify yourself when placing a call. Unlike talking to someone face-to-face, the person on the other end of the phone may not recognize your voice until you identify yourself. While talking on the phone:

- Be polite. This applies to any conversation.

- Speak slowly and clearly.

- Do not eat, drink, or chew gum.

- Do not sneeze or cough into the receiver. Turn your head or excuse yourself.

- Do not carry on a conversation with someone in the room while talking on the phone.

- Call back immediately if you get disconnected and you placed the call.

- When answering a call for someone else, say, *"May I ask who is calling?"* This sounds better than *"Who is this?"*

When leaving a message on an answering machine, clearly state your name, the date and time of your call, and a brief message. Leave a phone number only if you need to be called back.
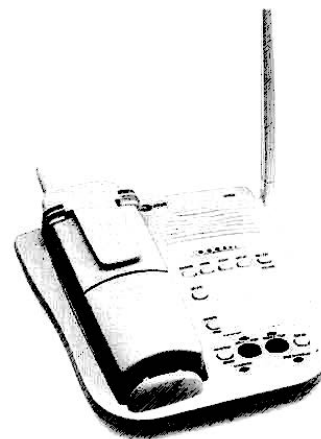
Cellular Phone Courtesies

Because "wireless phones" can be used virtually anywhere, their users need to remember common-sense courtesy. Results from a nationwide survey indicates that wireless users need to improve their phone etiquette and put people ahead of phone calls. A few tips to follow are:

- Use of wireless phones is prohibited in most schools and at school functions.

- Use of wireless phones during social gatherings is not appropriate.

- Never place a cell phone on the table during a meal.

- Do not drive and use a cell phone.

- Do not use a wireless phone when it will inconvenience or disrupt others.

- Use should be limited in public places or gatherings to safety for emergency reasons.

Being Responsible for Your Guest

Depending upon the nature of the social occasion, cadets should inform their guests about the traditions and courtesies of it before arriving. Cadets should inform their guests about appropriate dress, conduct, the receiving line, traditions of the mess, and so on. Remember, if you invite a guest; understand that you are responsible for your guest's behavior. If you have duties to perform after you arrive at the social, arrange for someone else to act as an escort for your guest until you are free. Introduce your friends and ensure that your guest is not left unescorted.

Respect to Seniors

When you show respect and courtesy to a senior, you are demonstrating your respect for authority, responsibility and experience.

You may encounter situations when seniors address you by your first name. While this may be flattering, under no circumstances should you address a senior by his or her first name, unless that person specifically asks you to do so. "Sir" and "ma'am" are correct forms of address in conversations with seniors. Since it is militarily incorrect to use slang or poor grammar like *"yeah," "nope,"* or *"un-huh"* to a JROTC instructor, likewise, it is socially rude to say these things to others.

When walking with a senior, you should walk to the left, one pace back, and in step with that senior. When you meet a senior in a hallway or on a stairwell indoors, you should always give way promptly. If you must pass a senior, you should first salute, then ask. *"By your leave, Sir (Ma'am)?"* You may not proceed until the senior replies, *"Carry on,"* or *"Granted."*

When a senior enters a room (other than an office, workplace, or recreation room), the most senior person in the room should command, *"Attention*!" The cadets, or other juniors present should come to attention until the officer directs otherwise or leaves the room. When a senior enters a room where individuals are at work or play, they are not required to come to attention unless the senior addresses them.

Reporting to Seniors

If reporting to a senior, you must report immediately and in correct uniform. When indoors, you must:

1. **Uncover** (if not under arms), removing your headgear and placing it under your left arm, visor forward.

2. Remove your overcoat, if any

3. Knock and enter when told to do so.

4. Two paces in front of the senior, you should halt and stand at attention (you should remain at attention unless told otherwise).

5. Identify yourself, stating your name, rank and the business you are there to discuss. For example, "*Sir, Lieutenant Stevens reporting.*"

6. When you are dismissed, take one step back and halt. If you are **under arms** (carrying a weapon of any sort), you salute. Then you face about and march out.

If out of doors, on the drill field, or on a parade ground, it is necessary for juniors to proceed and report on the double. Headgear should not be removed. If wearing a rifle, it should be carried at trail or at right shoulder arms, and a rifle salute should be executed at the order arms or right shoulder arms position.

In order to preserve the chain of command, a junior must always seek the permission of his/her immediate superior before speaking to anyone with a higher office. In most cases, the matter can be resolved without having to go any higher in the chain of command.

Salutes

The salute is a long standing military custom, a form of greeting, and show of mutual respect within the armed services. Both junior and senior officers and enlisted men and women salute; however, it is the responsibility of the junior to initiate the salute. The person saluted should always acknowledge by returning a salute if possible. There are three types of salutes:

- Hand Salute. To execute a hand salute, stand or walk at attention and raise your right hand in quick time so that your forefinger touches the headgear to the right of your right eye. You should look directly at the person or colors, which you are saluting, and hold the salute until it is acknowledged. When you salute, you should also offer a greeting such as, "*Good Morning, Sir.*"

- Rifle Salute. A rifle salute is given when carrying a rifle in one of the following positions: right or left shoulder arms when out of doors, order arms when at a halt, trail arms when at a walk, or present arms when in formation. If you were carrying a weapon at sling arms, you would render a hand salute.

- Sword Salute. If your sword is drawn, you would execute a sword salute; however, if your sword is sheathed you would execute a hand salute.

The most common of these salutes is the hand salute. It is important to know whom to salute and when it is appropriate to salute.

Whom Do You Salute?

All commissioned officers and warrant officers from the armed services (Army, Navy, Air Force, Marines, and Coast Guard) should be saluted. Salutes are also appropriate for Reserve officers and those of the National Guard.

Certain high-ranking civilian officials are entitled to salutes. These officials include: The President of the United States, the Vice President of the United States, State Governors, the Secretary of Defense, Secretaries of the Army, Navy and Air Force, and others to whom honors are rendered according to Navy Regulations. Additionally, officers and dignitaries of friendly foreign governments are saluted.

Cadets are expected to salute their fellow cadets on duty when addressing them officially or addressed by them.

Officers and Noncommissioned Officers (NCOs), who are in command of a formation, salute on behalf of their units. Enlisted men and women only salute other enlisted persons when they are reporting to them.

Finally, prisoners may not salute or be saluted.

When to Salute?

You should salute when you are six paces from the person or colors you are saluting. If you will not come within the six paces, you should salute at the nearest point within thirty paces.

When you speak to, or are addressed by a senior officer, you salute initially and again when the conversation ends. In addition, senior officers passing in cars should be saluted as if they were on foot.

When men and women officers are of the same rank, they should salute simultaneously.

When the National Anthem is played or "To the Colors" is sounded, you should come to attention, face the Colors (if the Colors are not present, face the band) and salute until the last note is played. You do not salute unless you are covered or under arms. If in formation, the formation is brought to attention and the commander salutes.

When you pass the Colors (**uncased**) you should salute at six paces and hold the salute until you are six paces beyond the Colors. The same is expected if the Colors pass you.

In the Navy and Marine Corps, you do not salute if you are uncovered (without headgear); however, in the Army and Air Force, you salute whether you are covered or uncovered. To prevent awkward situations, as an exception to this rule, you may return a salute of Army or Air Force personnel if you are uncovered.

When you are in civilian clothes, you can hold your cap, hat, or your right hand over your heart in lieu of a hand salute.

When Not to Salute?

There are certain times when it is not necessary or appropriate to salute. These include:

- In the sick bay or hospital ward

- Indoors when not under arms

- In the Mess Hall

- If you are carrying items in both of your hands. In this case, you should acknowledge a salute verbally and if standing still, come to attention

- While driving

- In the ranks of formation

- On public transportation, or in public places such as theaters, churches, etc.

- Engaged in work or play (unless addressed by a senior officer)

Honors and Official Visits

It is important to know what to do when an officer in command or dignitary visits your unit. You will want to make a good impression. First you must know if it is an **official visit** or and **official call**. There is a clear distinction between the two. An official visit is a formal visit that requires special honors and ceremonies, while an official call is an informal visit that does not require honors and ceremonies.

There are particular steps and **protocol** traditionally followed when rendering personal honors.

1. When the honoree arrives, the bugler sounds "Attention," and the person who is receiving the dignitary greets him or her and brings them to a post in the front and center of the honor guard.

2. The honor guard is brought to present arms, while others, not in the honor guard, render a hand salute.

3. **Ruffles**, **flourishes,** and other musical honors are played, while the National Colors is unfurled. Ruffles are played on the drums and flourishes are played on bugles. They are sounded together, once for each star of the general being honored or according to the title or office held by the honoree. Four ruffles and flourishes is the highest honor. You should salute at the first note of music and hold the salute until the ruffles, flourishes, and the march are completed. While honoring the commander during a military ceremony, it is appropriate to dip the Battle or Organizational Colors during the playing of the National Anthem, as a salute to the person being honored.

4. When and if a gun salute is rendered, the person being saluted, as well as others in the ceremonial party, should render a hand salute, the guard remains at present arms, and all others should stand at attention throughout the firing.

5. Upon completion of musical honors and the gun salute, the commander of the honor guard will bring the guard to order arms and then executes a present sword to the person being honored. The commander then says, "*Sir, the honor guard is formed.*" The honoree may then inspect or review the guard if he or she chooses.

Other Service Etiquette

There are several other unwritten rules that are important for you to know and follow.

- If your commanding officer says to you, "*I wish*" or "*I would like,*" these statements are the equivalent of a direct command, and you should treat them as such.

- Marines under arms never uncover unless at a religious service, such as a wedding. They also do not **unsheathe** their swords inside a place of worship.

- When you acknowledges orders, you should always say "Aye, Aye, Sir" or "Aye, Aye, Ma'am," meaning that you have understood your orders and will carry them out accordingly. You should never say "OK," "Yes," or "All right."

- When you enter the mess hall, or galley you should uncover (if not under arms). If called to attention during meals, you should stop eating and sit silently. You need not rise unless an officer speaks to you directly.

- When dining with a group, wait until all members of the group have been served before you begin eating.

The Military Funeral

The military funeral is a solemn ceremony steeped in tradition. It is a final salute to members of the armed services forces for the services and sacrifices they made for our country.

The basic elements included at all military funerals are:

- *The American Flag.* The casket is covered with the American Flag; a custom began during the Napoleonic Wars. When the U.S. flag covers the casket, it is placed so the union blue field is at the head and over the left shoulder of the deceased.

- ***Body Bearers***. The casket is usually transported to the cemetery on a **caisson** or hearse, and carried to the grave by six to eight body bearers. The body bearers are active duty military personnel appointed by command that are highly proficient in their duties for these occasions. In a funeral with chapel service, the body bearers also bring the remains into and out of the chapel. At the cemetery, the casket is placed over the grave, and the body bearers hold the flag at **pall**, or waist high and stretched taut over the casket. It is also important to note that, except in the case of a clergyperson, body bearers will always carry the casket foot first. Clergy are carried head first.

- *Firing of Volleys.* After the graveside service, a firing party fires three volleys across the gravesite. Although it came to signify a show of respect for the deceased it was originally a signal to both sides that the fighting could be resumed. Battles were halted so that each side could remove its dead from the field. Once

the slain had been taken away each side fired three shots in the air to let the armies know that it was time to battle again.

- *Sounding of "Taps".* Finally, a bugler plays "Taps," which signifies the beginning of the last sleep. Immediately following the sounding of "Taps," the body bearers fold the flag and present it to the chaplain or officer in charge, who in turn presents it to the next of kin. The flag is not placed in the grave and is not allowed to touch the ground.

You should always salute during the passing of a hearse or caisson in a funeral procession, when the body is removed from the hearse to the chapel or the gravesite, when volleys are fired, and when "Taps" is sounded. If you are attending a military funeral in civilian clothes, you should uncover.

History of Military Dining-Ins

You should be familiar with the terms "**dining-in**" and "**dining-out**." (A dining-in is also referred to as a "mess night.") These terms refer to formal dinners, which are intended for military members only (dining-in) or to which guests are invited (dining-out). The protocol for these affairs often reflects long-standing traditions within a regiment or corps of the armed forces.

Dining-in has its roots in Europe and may extend all the way back to the Roman practice of holding great banquets to celebrate victory and parade the spoils of war. The customs and traditions of our contemporary dining-in come from those of the British Army Regimental Mess. The British mess provided a time for satire, solemn formality, horseplay, an excuse for living beyond one's means, and was an occasion to observe long-standing customs and traditions of the regiment. The first recorded American dining-in occurred in September 1716 when Governor

Spotswood of Virginia, along with a company of Rangers, celebrated after crossing the mountains and descending into the Shenandoah Valley.

Even today, there is still ample reason to observe the dining-in tradition. The intent of the dining-in is to promote cordiality, comradeship, and esprit de corps. In addition, it is hoped that participation in this worthy tradition will stimulate enthusiasm to prevent it from dying out.

The dining-in is an excellent vehicle to remind us of the nature of our service and the traditional courtesies and amenities appropriate to the military. The primary elements are a formal setting, posting of the Colors, invocation, traditional toasts (may be at the conclusion of dinner), a fine dinner, comradeship of the members of the command, benediction, retirement of the Colors, and martial music.

Toasting

The custom of toasting is universal. It is a simple courtesy to the person being honored. It is not proper to drain the glass at the completion of each toast. Therefore, know how many toasts are being given so that you will know how much to drink with each toast. It is also not proper to raise an empty glass to make a toast. Toasts are always made standing up. One person will present the toast by saying either, *"Ladies and Gentlemen, the President of the United States"* or *"Ladies and Gentlemen, I propose a toast to the President of the United States."* Then, all will raise their glasses and say *"The President"* or *"To the President,"* respectively.

On the presentation and retirement of the Colors, face toward the Colors at attention until the ceremony is completed. Then, remain standing for the toasts and the invocation at the beginning of the program. You are expected to rise again for the benediction at the end of the program.

Good Grooming

Your personal hygiene often times will determine whether you make a good first impression. Be certain that you are well groomed every time you make an official or social appearance. One dirty or untrimmed fingernail may seem like a small thing to you, but it may be the basis for a negative impression. You will not have a second chance to make a first impression.

As a MCJROTC cadet, you are expected to take care of your equipment, and your person, maintaining the highest standards of grooming. Your uniform, **cover**, and gloves should be neat and clean; your shoes should be shined, and your hair should be clean and neatly trimmed. This training should continue for the rest of your life.

Punctuality

Being on time cannot be overemphasized. In fact, punctuality will be critical to your success throughout your career. When you are on time, you demonstrate respect for the time of others and responsibility in your duties. For official occasions and ceremonies, you should always arrive before honored guests or high-ranking officers. Habitual lateness will be considered rude and irresponsible.

There may be times when you are late through no fault of your own. If this happens, apologize and march on.

Other Courtesies

At a dinner, a gentleman does not sit down until all the ladies at his table are seated. He can help with the seating by holding the chair, first for his guest, then for other ladies near him if the ladies outnumber the men. He does this by pulling out the lady's chair from the table far enough for her to move easily in front of it.

Then, as the lady sits down, he gently pushes the chair under her until she is seated. Keep in mind that some ladies prefer to adjust their own chairs. When all ladies at the table are seated, he may then take his seat by going around the left side of his chair. Posture at the table should be straight, but not stiff.

If a lady leaves the table at any time, the gentleman who seated her rises. When the lady returns to the table, her escort or the gentlemen who seated her rises and the courtesies mentioned in the preceding paragraph are repeated.

If an older woman or an invalid gentleman needs some support, it is appropriate for you to offer your arm. A cadet does not offer his or her hand. Hand holding in public is not appropriate and is considered a public display of affection, which is improper when in uniform. A cadet may offer his or her hand only when it is not practical to offer the arm, for example, to help an elderly lady or gentleman out of a car. Offer your hand palm up, and do not force it upon the person to whom you are offering it. Then, withdraw your hand as soon as it is no longer needed.

If a gentleman arrives at a door first, he should open it and allow others to pass through. If a lady arrives at the door first and opens it, the gentleman may hold the door for her to continue. In the armed services, however, a male or female junior officer opens the door for his or her senior, allows them to pass through, and then follows. In this instance, seniority prevails.

Conclusion

Learning proper service etiquette is an important part of your growth and character development. When you know the rules of proper etiquette, you will be more confident and relaxed in social and official situations, and will surely make a good impression, gaining the respect and admiration of those you meet.

In practicing service etiquette, you show respect, appreciation, and loyalty, and you carry on the rich traditions, customs and courtesies of the armed services. ❖

College Preparation

PURPOSE

*This lesson will help you in your preparation for **college**. It will tell you what you need to know about the different types of colleges, the admission process and requirements, and ways to finance college.*

Introduction

One of the few nice things about the college **admissions** process is that you get to choose first. Before an admissions officer reads your application, you decide where to apply. Choosing wisely requires lots of work because many factors enter into deciding where you want to live for the next four years.

Deciding Whether College is Right for You

Before you can begin preparing for college, you have to ask yourself a few questions. "What are my reasons for attending college?" "What are my reasons for not attending college?"

Attending college is not the only way to attain your career goals. It is possible that certain careers can be pursued without a traditional four-year college program. Take nursing for example. You must earn either a two-year associate degree or a four-year baccalaureate degree to qualify for a job as a registered nurse. However, in a two-year program at a community college, you would not take the courses in management and public health found in the four-year counterpart, but you would get more clinical experience.

If a traditional college or **university** does not cover your career choice, you might explore the opportunities that a Business, Trade, or Technical School has to offer. The length of study at these schools varies from a few weeks to a few years. You can learn a particular skill or trade and earn a diploma, certificate of completion, or a license of some sort following the completion of the program. Some examples of occupations that these schools can provide instruction for are court reporting, automotive technician, computer networking, and cooking.

Another alternative to a four-year college program is E-learning, or **distance education**. Distance education has its advantages. The reduced need for buildings, housing, and personnel costs may make **tuition** more affordable.

Online classes through distance education institutions or universities are often more convenient and can be taken at different times and places. Other distance education programs, may make use of other technologies including: video, audio, audio graphics, text-based correspondence, radio, broadcast TV, etc. Additionally, many employers offer distance classes on the job.

How Careers and Majors Are Related

Do you know what you want to be when you grow up? Do not feel that you are far behind if you do not at this stage of the game. Many students don't have an idea until they actually start taking college classes and find what interests them. Choosing your college major is one of the most important decisions that you will make.

Taking a personal assessment and discovering your aptitudes, interests, abilities, and personal preferences, and then matching them with occupations, can lead to a major in college.

You can do research on your own to learn where and how to get information on different careers. If you meet a person who has an interesting job, ask them if they have a degree and in what major.

Many people have careers that are not strongly related to their college major. Employers look for well-rounded people who have done well in college no matter what their major was.

It is most likely that you will be working for the majority of your adult life. Choosing a career or college major that fits with your values, interests, and abilities will likely lead you in the direction of job satisfaction.

The Admission Process

The process of applying to college should begin in the fall of your high school senior year. If you are applying to more than one college, the process can become overwhelming. It is important that you are organized and have your career development portfolio up to date.

The following steps outline the major tasks involved in the admission process:

1. Gather applications from the colleges you are considering.

2. Know the application deadlines for each college.

3. Complete and mail each admission application.

4. Apply for financial aid (keep in mind application deadlines).

5. Applying for **scholarships** (keep in mind application deadlines)

6. Apply for campus housing if you are not living at home while you attend college.

7. Make your college choice, enroll, and register for classes.

General Admission or Entrance Requirements

Admission or entrance requirements can differ from one college to another, however there are basic criteria that are required for the majority of colleges.

One of the basic admission requirements is that you must have graduated from an accredited high school or have earned a GED (General Equivalency Diploma). Many colleges require specific coursework or curricula from high school. For example, a college could require that you have four years of English, three years of Math, two years of History and Science, as well as a required number of course electives. Some colleges look at your grade point average; your rank-in-class (this is usually found on your school **transcripts**), and/or standardized test scores such as ACT (American College Test), or SAT (Scholastic **Aptitude Test**).

Ways to Finance College

You have your list of colleges that you would like to attend. Everything is perfect, from the exact major you want, to the size of the campus, to a picture perfect location. Your next step is to look at the costs and figure out which ones you can afford. For most students, the tuition and other higher education expenses require seeking funding from someplace other than parents. There are two forms of financial aid funding for college; "gift aid" and "self help aid."

Gift Aid

Gift aid does not have to be paid back. It can come from a variety of sources, businesses and foundations, community groups, and the colleges and universities you apply to. There are two forms of gift aid:

- *Grants* are awarded based on your financial need

- *Scholarship*s are awarded based on your academic merit

Self-Help Aid

You or your parents may need to borrow money for your college education. Loans are normally repaid with interest. Some loans do not need to be repaid until you have graduated or left college for some other reason. The U.S. Department of Education offers a variety of student financial aid programs. To apply for federal student financial aid, and to apply for many state student aid programs, students must complete a Free Application for Federal Student Aid (FAFSA). The information you provide on your FAFSA determines if you are eligible for financial aid. This whole process can be done on the web.

Student employment is another form of self-help aid. There are three common forms of student employment:

- Federal and state work-study programs

- Teaching Assistantships and Research Assistantships

- Regular part-time employment during the academic year or the summer months

Finding College Funding

Finding college funding can be a complicated and confusing process. Following a few ground rules will give you an advantage in navigating the process.

1. Make contact with your college's financial aid office early.

2. Have all of the verification information you need by submittal deadlines.

3. Organize your information and keep your portfolio files updated.

Choosing an Educational Institution that Fits Your Needs

Choosing a college is probably one of the first major decisions you will make in your life.

This is where the work that you put into your career development strategy begins to pay off. You have a plan and it will help you make the best possible decision as to which college to attend.

The following tips will help you choose the right college:

- You will most likely receive brochures from colleges through the mail. Read them and if you are interested, request more information.

- Talk to your parents, friends, and other family members about college, the colleges they attended, and their personal experience with college.

- Write down what you are looking for in a college.

- Make a "wish list" of colleges you would like to attend.

- Complete the process by narrowing down the list to three to six schools.

- Apply to each of these colleges.

Conclusion

After you have gone through the process of picking a major, applying for financial aid, choosing and applying to a college, you now wait to be accepted. Once you are accepted, you will need to contact your chosen school to find out its **registration** procedures. There are no guarantees in this process, but you can be assured that if you followed the suggestions in this lesson and committed to the process, you will reach your career goals. ❖

Behavior in the Workplace

PURPOSE

*This lesson will explain acceptable **behavior** in the workplace. How you dress, act, and carry yourself can make a difference in your career and career goals. Upon completion of this lesson, cadets will have an understanding of acceptable behavior in the workplace.*

Introduction

Your behavior in the workplace can make a big difference in your career. Others will form opinions of you based on your behavior. You must be aware of your dress, your conversation, and your work ethic. All of these areas affect how others judge you.

Behavior

What is behavior? Behavior as defined by Webster's as "the manner of conducting oneself." In the workplace, you are expected to conduct yourself in a **professional** manner. Professional is "exhibiting a courteous, conscientious, and generally businesslike manner in the workplace." So your professional behavior would be conducting yourself in a businesslike manner in the workplace setting.

Dress to Impress

Is it true that clothes make the man or woman? People do form an opinion about you by the way you dress and your general appearance. What do clothes say? As you have learned as a cadet, taking pride in how you look in your uniform reflects on you as a person and can

project a positive image about who you are. Does this mean we should avoid any sense of individuality in the workplace? Of course not, but some types of clothing are inappropriate for certain environment. Using good judgment on your part can avoid unpleasant situations. Sometimes you will not find these dress codes in writing; but if you look around you will find that all employees are dressed in a similar way.

Using the Right Words

What is more important? Our deeds or our words? Does the fact that someone does great things outweigh the fact that he or she may be offending those around him or her? Well, if your language puts just one co-worker off, it's probably a good idea to shape up. In social situations, one can choose to stay away from someone who uses foul language. While you may be protected by freedom of speech laws, that doesn't make it okay to irritate those around you. Let's not forget sexual harassment. Can your words be misconstrued as sexual harassment? It all depends on who is the recipient of your

comments and how far they plan to take it. Even jokes you may think are innocent in nature can be taken as harassment.

Sexual Harassment

In legal terms, sexual harassment is any unwelcome sexual advance or conduct on the job that creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment. In real life, sexually harassing behavior ranges from repeating offensive or belittling jokes, to a workplace full of offensive pornography, to an outright sexual assault.

Too Loud

Being outspoken is a good thing, as long as you know when to draw the line and shut up. However, being a loud mouth is not. It's true that the "squeaky wheel gets the oil." But how squeaky should you be? Again, look at your work environment. Is this type of behavior encouraged or discouraged? Having opinions is a good thing,

being opinionated is not.

New Job

Starting a new job can be very stressful. You'll have to form new relationships, learn where everything is, and whom you can trust, in addition to learning how to do your new job. It can be pretty overwhelming, but following these simple rules will help.

- *Listen and Observe* - By listening and observing, you will gain a lot. You will learn about the environment of which you are now a part. You will find out about the people you are working with. You may save yourself from making a major, public mistake -- you are the new kid on the block while your co-workers have been around longer. Learn from their collective experience.

- *Beware of the Office Troublemaker* - Every office has one. Once I describe him or her you will know just whom I mean. The office troublemaker is the one who comes up to you on your first day and says something like this: "The boss is always nice to *new employees*. Wait until you've been here a while." The office troublemaker is the one who tends to stir up trouble and then pretends to have nothing to do with it. Listen to what this person tells you, but do not comment. There may be truth to what he or she says, but it may be greatly exaggerated. Keep in mind; the person who talks about others will soon get around to talking about you.

- *Mind Your Manners* – It is always important to use good manners and proper etiquette in the workplace. People may not remember your politeness, but they certainly will remember rude behavior.

Conclusion

Remember, your behavior is very important and can make a difference in your future. As a MCJROTC cadet, start preparing for your future now. ❖

Community Service Careers

PURPOSE

This lesson is about community service career opportunities. It provides cadets with an insight about community service and makes them aware that there are many employment opportunities available in community service.

Introduction

Selecting a career may be one of the most important decisions that you make. Since much of your adult life will be spent working, it is important to start as early as possible in selecting a career.

Community service occupations offer a broad field of career opportunities. Communities and the people who live, work, and play in them depend on the services performed by individuals in community service careers.

What Is Community Service?

In order to understand what is meant by community service, you will need to know what it means. Webster defines community service as "The business or activity of providing the public with essential goods or services such as electric power." It is also "a service that is run for the benefit of the general public," for example, the utilities, emergency services and public transportation.

Community Service Opportunities

There are many kinds of opportunities for employment in community service. The Department of Labor lists over 2,000 different jobs performed in the United States in its publication "The Dictionary of Occupational Titles." Many of these jobs are also in the community service arena. Your particular career choices will be based on many different factors. Some of the factors include: geographical location, population, and diversity of community to name a few. Community service career opportunities are available at the local, state, and national levels. Career service opportunities can also be found in the private sector. Were you aware that volunteer community service could be used on a resume when applying for employment?

Do you know at this time in your life what career or job you would like to pursue after graduating from high school? Some community service career opportunities include: doctor, plumber, fire fighter, recreation specialist, teacher, public health worker, instructional designer, policeman, librarian, and many other **occupations**

serving your community. There are so many from which to choose.

When thinking about your future and possibly a career in some area of community service, you should first consider all the jobs that interest you the most and determine why they interest you. You need to understand what draws you to those professions. Identify your qualities and traits, and then compare your qualities and traits to the requirements of the jobs that interest you.

Some community service occupations may require **state licensure** or certification, while others may require a college degree or on-the-job training. Some local governments sponsor police and fire fighting academies where you can be trained and paid at the same time.

Maybe you do not have any idea what you would like to do. Well, now is the time to start researching your options. You can never start planning too early for your career. Don't allow negative thinking to eliminate possible career choices.

Determining What You Are Best Suited to Become

Although you may believe that discovering your **aptitudes** for certain jobs or careers may seem like a difficult task, it can actually be easier than identifying careers that interest you. Your guidance counselor (career counselor, occupational specialist) has career tests that can match your skills, abilities, and interests with specific job titles. The results of these tests allow you to eliminate jobs that may not be suited for you so that you can concentrate your time and research on those jobs that better match your skills, abilities, and interests.

Career Versus a Job

Though they are often used interchangeably, the words "career" and "job" have different meanings. Jobs can be both the individual pieces of a career or random, isolated events in a person's work history. Careers are formed over time; they consist of related jobs that build upon one another. One job does not make a career; several jobs do.

Working behind the counter at a fast food restaurant until you can do something else is a job. If, however, your goal is to become a manager and invest in franchises someday, it is the first step in a career. The knowledge and skills gained from working behind the counter are a foundation on which you can continue to build as you move up in the fast food industry.

Identifying Community Service Careers for the Future

With the rapid growth in population over the past few years and the resulting **urbanization**, many communities have had to expand their services to support this growth. The computer and health fields have felt the biggest push. The number of jobs in these areas is projected to grow very quickly within the next few years. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, the 10 occupations with the fastest projected employment growth for 1996 through 2006 are the following:

- Database administrators, computer support specialists, and other computer scientists (118%)

- Computer engineers (109%)

- Systems analysts (103%)

- Personal and home care aides (85%)

- Physical and corrective therapy assistants and aides (79%)

- Home health aides (76%)

- Medical assistants (74%)

- Desktop publishing specialists (74%)

- Physical therapists (71%)

- Occupational therapy assistants and aides (69%)

As you can see, understanding and using technology is a key element in qualifying and functioning in today's job market.

Conclusion

Many people never work at jobs or careers that use their full talents and abilities or that interest them. You do not have to work at a boring job. You can do something that interests you and still make a decent salary. Community service occupations offer many possibilities for those who prepare and have an interest in serving their community. ❖

State and Federal Careers

PURPOSE

This lesson is about state and federal career opportunities. It provides cadets with an insight about state and federal career opportunities and makes them aware that there are many employment opportunities available.

Introduction

State and federal agencies offer a large selection of career fields that cover a wide range of occupations and geographical locations. If you work for a state government, chances are great that you will be located within that state. Working at the federal level, career opportunities exist throughout the United States and overseas. When applying for a job or thinking about a career field, it is important that you understand all the requirements. You must spend time gathering information, understanding what alternatives you have, and thinking about your personal preferences in regard to your career.

State and Federal Career Opportunities

What do we mean when we talk about state and federal career opportunities? For the purpose of this lesson, state career opportunities are opportunities for employment within a state. Federal career opportunities are opportunities for employment within the federal government.

There are many kinds of career opportunities at the state and federal level. The Department of Labor lists over 2,000 different jobs performed in the United States in its publication "The Dictionary of **Occupational** Titles."

Employment Exploration Strategy

The career decisions that you make in the next few months or years will not be the only career decisions that you will make. You could have many careers over the course of your lifetime, but the decisions you make soon will be key ones. Therefore, you need to develop a strategy to help you make those important career decisions. Your strategy should focus on three tasks:

- Discovering what your **aptitude**, interests, abilities, and personal preferences are and how a career with a state or federal agency could match these criteria.

- Matching your aptitude, interests, abilities, and preferences with occupations.

- Learning where and how to get information on different careers.

An effective career exploration strategy can help you decide whether you select a career with a state government or a federal agency. When thinking about your future and possibly a career in some area of state or federal service, you should first consider all the jobs that interest you the most and why.

Federal Careers

The Federal Government is the largest employer in the United States, with employees in every state and country around the world. When you consider the sheer size of the U.S. Government and the agencies it supports, it can be mind-boggling to someone looking for a career. It can also be a gold mine because of the enormous selection of occupations and the competitive **compensation** packages that can grow as you gain experience and responsibility. To understand the size of many of the federal agencies you may consider for a career, look at the following example of the Department of Veterans Affairs.

> The Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) has one of the most diverse, challenging, and rewarding missions in the United States Government. VA manages one of the largest health care systems in the United States and conducts medical research and education. VA provides veterans and their dependents with compensation and pension, education, loan guaranty, and insurance benefits. VA provide burial benefits to veterans and eligible dependents. VA is also key employer in the Federal Government, with a workforce of over 200,000 employees.

When you look at the Department of Agriculture, Department of Commerce, Department of Defense, Department of Transportation, and the other Federal Departments, with thousands of jobs, the opportunities seem endless for starting a career. Remember, all of the military services are located under the Department of Defense and offer opportunities for federal service.

Federal Employment Benefits

The Federal Government recognizes many people are interested in the many benefits available to permanent Federal employees. Each Federal agency has a unique mission and requirements, and they each offer unique benefits packages. The following is a sampling of the benefits that may be available to you as a permanent Federal employee.

- Retirement System (FERS): Benefits based on amount of service and salary history.

- Thrift Savings Plan (TSP): Multiple investment options similar to a 401(k) plan.

- Social Security: Credit earned while working with the Government. Retirement benefits, disability protection, and survivor protection.

- Medicare - Part A: available to you at no cost at age 65.

- Federal Employees Health Benefits Program (FEHB): No waiting periods, required medical exam, or age/physical condition restrictions.

- Federal Employees Group Life Insurance (FEGLI): Group term life insurance - Basic life insurance and three options (Standard, Additional, and Family).

- Leave and Holidays: 13 days sick leave each year; 13, 20, or 26 days of vacation leave each year, depending on years of service; 10 paid holidays each year.

- Family Friendly Flexibilities: Flexible Work Schedules; **Telecommuting**; Family Friendly Leave Policies; Employee Assistance

- Program (EAP); Part-Time & Job Sharing Positions; Child & Elder Care Resources Adoption Information/Incentives; Child Support Services.

State Careers

States career opportunities vary from state to state. There are no set standards. However, many career opportunities mirror those at the federal level. State career opportunities have to be researched individually. The Internet provides a great starting point for this research. Information may also be obtained through the local Chamber of Commerce of the particular area in which you are interested.

Typical State Employment Benefits

Every state has its own unique benefits package. However, many offer benefits similar to the federal government. Just as each state agency has a unique mission and requirements, benefits may vary with requirements of the job. The

following is a sampling of the benefits that may be available to you:

- *Retirement System:* Benefits based on amount of service and salary history.

- *Savings Plan:* Multiple investment options similar to a 401(k) plan.

- *Telecommuting:* This allows agencies to designate employees to work in their homes or other alternate work locations.

- *Health Benefits Program:* A variety of health plan options are offered to full-time classified employees and their families.

- *Group Life Insurance:* Group term life insurance - Basic life insurance

- *Annual Leave:* 12 days depending on years of service.

- *Wellness Program:* Employee wellness program.

Conclusion

As you can see, there are many career opportunities available to you at the state and federal level. Therefore, you need to research and focus on those that meet your career objectives. ❖

Military Service Benefits

PURPOSE

This lesson provides information on military service benefits to the men and women who are members of the armed services. Upon completion of this lesson, you will know the basic benefits provided to armed forces personnel.

Introduction

Military service can be an exciting and rewarding career. Take time to research the military career options that may be available to you. Joining the military service obligates a person to serve his or her country for a specified amount of time. However, during and after your time of service, there are many benefits provided and available to you.

Compensation

The military compensation system is made up of over 70 separate pays, allowances, and benefits. It applies to the officers, **warrant officers**, and enlisted members of the Uniformed Services. Examples of some of the main elements of military compensation include basic pay, basic allowance for housing (BAH), basic allowance for **subsistence** (BAS), and a number of special and incentive pays -- flight pay, sea pay, hazardous duty pay, **proficiency** pay, overseas cost of living allowance (COLA), and bonuses.

Non-quantifiable instances of the compensation package include: the tax advantages stemming from the tax-free status of BAH and BAS; commissary and exchange facility privileges; member and dependent medical care; receipt of retired pay potential; death **gratuity** payments; dependency and **indemnity** compensation; survivor benefits; life insurance plans; and more.

Still other factors of military compensation consist of professional education and training, veterans' education assistance, reimbursable items such as clothing issues and maintenance, family separation allowances, overseas housing allowance (OHA), overseas COLA, travel and transportation allowances, and dislocation allowances.

Medical, Dental, and Eye Care

Full health, medical, hospitalization, dental, and eye care services for enlistees and most health care cost for family members are available. In remote sites, this care is available from civilian sources (dental care, especially for family members, is with civilian care under a dental plan).

Vacation

Every active duty service member accrues leave at the rate of 30 days a year. That is 2 ½ days per month.

Continuing Education

Some of the most important benefits you receive as a service member are loans, tuition assistance and credits for education. Some of these benefits also extend to your spouse. In addition, many universities have special programs with the military in which up to 100 percent of your tuition is paid for.

The centerpiece of the active duty education benefit program is the Montgomery GI Bill (MGIB). This program provides up to 36 months of education benefits, and may be used for:

- Degree and certificate programs

- Flight training

- Apprenticeship/on-the-job training and correspondence courses

Generally, benefits under the Montgomery GI Bill (Active Duty) program amount to a specified amount a month **for 36 months** of full-time training. Remedial,

deficiency, and refresher courses may be approved under certain circumstances. Generally, benefits are payable for 10 years following your release from active duty. This program is also commonly known as Chapter 30.

Recreational Programs

The military offers numerous recreational programs, depending on where you are stationed during your career. Programs include athletics, entertainment, and hobbies:

- Softball, tennis, basketball, football, swimming, golf, weight training, and other sports

- Parties, dances, and entertainment

- Club facilities, snack bars, game rooms, movie theaters, and lounges

- Active hobby and craft clubs, and book and music libraries

Exchanges and Commissary Privileges

The military equivalent of the supermarket is the commissary, where prices are lower than charged by grocers in the civilian community.

A military exchange, also known as a PX, is similar to a general store. On large stations, it approximates a small department store, but the size of an exchange depends on the size of the post and the accessibility of civilian shopping centers.

Conclusion

Active duty service members have a wide variety of benefits and legal services from which to choose. These benefits range from on-base rest and relaxation facilities to travel discounts, legal protection, death and burial services, life insurance options, and GI bills for education. The extent of the various benefits will depend on many factors such as geographical location, occupation, and rank. Once your obligated service time is complete, there are some veteran benefits available. The basic benefits covered in this lesson are open for all enlistees in the military. ❖

Marine Enlisted Career Progression

Introduction

The military is the largest employer of high school graduates in fulltime positions. The U.S. armed forces hires over 300,000 young men and women each year into the enlisted specialties.

Enlistment

Thousands of young men and women enlist each year in the Marine Corps and other branches of the armed forces. By enlisting in the Marine Corps, or any other branch of the armed forces, these young men and women have committed themselves to serve in the defense of our nation. Military service offers a wide variety of training and experience in a great number of **occupational fields**. Loyal and dedicated work

will open more opportunities and responsibilities, as well as promotion in rank.

Marine Corps Enlisted Occupational Fields

FIELD 01	PERSONNEL AND ADMINISTRATION
FIELD 02	INTELLIGENCE
FIELD 03	INFANTRY
FIELD 04	LOGISTICS
FIELD 05	MARINE AIR GROUND TASK FORCE (MAGTF) PLANS
FIELD 06	COMMANDS AND CONTROL SYSTEMS
FIELD 08	FIELD ARTILLERY
FIELD 11	UTILITIES
FIELD 13	ENGINEER, CONSTRUCTION, FACILITIES, AND EQUIPMENT
FIELD 18	TANK AND ASSAULT AMPHIBIOUS VEHICLE
FIELD 21	ORDNANCE
FIELD 23	AMMUNITION AND EXPLOSIVE ORDNANCE DISPOSAL
FIELD 25	OPERATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS
FIELD 26	SIGNALS INTELLIGENCE/ GROUND ELECTRONIC WARFARE
FIELD 28	GROUND ELECTRONICS MAINTENANCE
FIELD 30	SUPPLY ADMINISTRATION AND OPERATIONS
FIELD 31	TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT
FIELD 33	FOOD SERVICE
FIELD 34	FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT
FIELD 35	MOTOR TRANSPORT
FIELD 40	DATA SYSTEMS
FIELD 41	MARINE CORPS EXCHANGE
FIELD 43	PUBLIC AFFAIRS
FIELD 44	LEGAL SERVICES
FIELD 46	VISUAL INFORMATION
FIELD 55	MUSIC
FIELD 57	NUCLEAR, BIOLOGICAL, AND CHEMICAL
FIELD 58	MILITARY POLICE AND

	CORRECTIONS
FIELD 59	ELECTRONICS MAINTENANCE
FIELD 60/61/62	AIRCRAFT MAINTENANCE
FIELD 63/64	AVIONICS
FIELD 65	AVIATION ORDNANCE
FIELD 66	AVIATION LOGISTICS
FIELD 68	METEOROLOGICAL AND OCEANOGRAPHIC (METOC) SERVICES
FIELD 70	AIRFIELD SERVICES
FIELD 72	AIR CONTROL/AIR SUPPORT/ ANTIAIR WARFARE/AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL
FIELD 73	NAVIGATION OFFICER/ ENLISTED FLIGHT CREWS
FIELD 8000 TO 9599	CATEGORY B MOSs
FIELD 9800 – 9999	IDENTIFYING AND REPORTING

Noncommissioned Officers Career Path

Corporal

Noncommissioned officers (NCOs) are enlisted Marines who have demonstrated their ability to follow the orders of their leader in a dependable and responsible manner. As a result of their excellent performance, these young men and women have been promoted to the rank of corporal and become noncommissioned officers (NCOs), which requires them to demonstrate their own leadership abilities. Marine NCOs are referred to as the backbone of the Corps. They are the first line of leadership and directly

supervise the accomplishment of the mission. As NCOs, Marine corporals are encouraged to further their professional training and education by attending various NCO schools available.

Other branches of the armed forces also depend on their noncommissioned officers for leadership of their junior enlisted men and women. The Army also looks upon its NCOs as the backbone of the Army, and promotes good soldiers to corporal to begin executing their leadership responsibilities. The Navy and Coast Guard entrust their sailors with leadership responsibilities when they promote them to the rank of petty officer third class. The Air Force does not have the rank of corporal, but promotes those deserving airmen to sergeant as the first line of leadership in the Air Force.

Sergeant

Proven performance and dedication at the rank of corporal will find the junior NCO being promoted to the rank of sergeant. As a senior NCO, sergeants will again learn the importance of continuing their professional education. Whenever possible, attendance at the Sergeant's Course is highly encouraged. At the rank of sergeant, a Marine is tasked to be a squad leader, and will begin to receive his or her first official performance evaluations.

If it did not happen as a corporal, sergeants can expect an assignment to a "B" billet, which is a job not in the Marines primary occupational field. Many of these billets are critical to the success of the Marine Corps, and excellent performance in these jobs can be a very big plus in a Marine's record. Two of the more visible and demanding "B" billets are the Marine Drill Instructor and the Marine Recruiter.

Staff Non-Commissioned Officers

Staff Sergeant

Success at the rank of sergeant will enable a Marine to be promoted to the rank of Staff Sergeant. Promotion to the ranks of the Staff Non-Commissioned Officer is a glorious day for any Marine. Marine staff sergeants have proven their mettle and declared their intentions of a career serving their country and Corps. Staff Sergeants are assigned the responsibility of leading a platoon of younger Marines. However, one may never rest on their past accomplishments, and Marine Staff Sergeants will be encouraged to attend a Staff NCO Academy when the time permits.

Gunnery Sergeant

Many consider the "Gunny" to be the best troop-leading job a Marine can have. Gunnery Sergeants are the enlisted troop leaders of a Marine rifle company. They are expected to embody the spirit of the company and the Marine Corps, and the gunny will be quick to shake your hand for a good job, or chew you out for the stupid mistake you know you should never make.

Senior Staff Non-Commissioned Officers

First Sergeant or Master Sergeant

Success at the rank of gunnery sergeant requires the gunny to make a decision. He or she must chose whether or not they wish to be promoted to the rank of first sergeant and potentially to sergeant major; or they can be promoted to master sergeant and potentially to master gunnery sergeant. The difference in the two promotion paths lies in the nature of the expertise required. Both serve primarily in advisery billets, but a first sergeant advises at the company commander level on administrative, personnel and UCMJ matters, while the master sergeant advises more with operational, training and technical matters at the battalion level.

Sergeant Major or Master Gunnery Sergeant

The **pinnacle** of one's career as an enlisted Marine is to attain the rank of sergeant major or master gunnery sergeant. As previously indicated, the master gunnery sergeant is the senior enlisted technical/operational adviser on matters of his or her expertise at the battalion or higher level. The sergeant major deals, at the battalion or higher level, mainly with personnel matters, which includes everything from morale to training of the units Staff NCOs.

Enlisted Commissioning Opportunities

Many enlisted Marines display outstanding skill, knowledge and leadership in their occupational field during their careers. As a result, some are offered an opportunity to apply for the rank of **Warrant Officer**. The Warrant Officer is entrusted to be the "duty expert" in his or her field, as a result of the great amount of time and experience in the field which he or she receives the warrant of authority and responsibility. The warrant officer ranks fall between the enlisted Marines and commissioned officers.

Also available to aspiring and qualified young Marines are opportunities for them to attend college and go through various officer-training programs in order to become a commissioned officer. After successful completion of the program, and passing a rigorous medical examination, the Marine will be

commissioned as a second lieutenant upon receiving his or her bachelor's degree.

Selected enlisted personnel from each service may qualify for appointment to one of the four service academies or may be eligible to attend an ROTC program. Other enlisted commissioning education programs include:

- The Marine Corps Enlisted Commissioning Education Program

- The Navy's BOOST (Broadened Opportunity for Officer Selection and Training) program

- The Army's Green to Gold program

- The Army Medical Department's Enlisted Commissioning Program

- The Navy Enlisted Commissioning Program

- The Airman Education and Commissioning Program

- The Coast Guard's Pre-commissioning Program for Enlisted Personnel

In the last five programs of the above list, qualified enlisted personnel may collect full pay and allowances while attending college full time.

Those who graduate and finish an officer candidate program receive their commissions.

An enlisted person may also receive a direct appointment as an officer if that person demonstrates performance far above the standards called for in his or her occupational field and does not have a disciplinary record. (Note: Appointments of this nature are extremely rare.)

Remember, to join the military as an officer, you must have a Bachelor's Degree. Certain scientific and technical fields, such as medicine or law, require advanced degrees.

Conclusion

If you are interested in any of the options discussed in this lesson, your MCJROTC instructors, the school guidance or career counselors, and/or service recruiters will be able to give you the information you need. ❖

Marine Officer Career Progression

PURPOSE

This lesson will inform you of requirements and ways to become an officer, and explain some of the typical duties expected of an officer during his or her career. Education requirements for various officer ranks are also briefly discussed.

Introduction

Commissioned officers are the senior leaders of the military. The President of the United States appoints them and the Senate confirms them to hold positions of authority in the armed forces. To be eligible for a commission in the Marine Corps, you must be a U.S. citizen, morally, mentally, and physically qualified, and your application must be approved by Marine Corps Headquarters. If you are already a veteran, you must have an honorable discharge, and if you are a member of the reserve component of any other service, you must obtain a conditional release from that organization. Under certain limited conditions, officer transfers are authorized from other services into the Marine Corps; for such transactions special regulations and procedures apply which are beyond the scope of this lesson.

> "There are few honors that this country can bestow that are higher than the trust we place in military officers"
>
> James Webb Secretary of the Navy
> June 1987

Roads to Officer Commission

To obtain a commission in the Marine Corps, you may follow any one of the several pathways:

U.S. Naval Academy

The U.S. Naval Academy is open to civilian preparatory school, high school graduates, and qualified enlisted personnel from the Marine Corps and Marine Reserve. At present, up to 16 2/3 percent of each graduating class of midshipmen may be commissioned in the Marine Corps.

U.S. Military and Air Force Academies

Limited numbers of graduates of West Point and of the Air Force Academy are also eligible for regular commissions in the Marine Corps, with preference going to former Marines or children of Marines. Admission to a service academy is primarily through a special appointment. Competition for these limited number of appointments is very keen and interested cadets should begin the application process very early.

Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps (NROTC)

Any college student enrolled either as a scholarship midshipman in the Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps (NROTC) or as a "College Program Student, NROTC," can, if selected for the Marine Corps, obtain a commission.

Platoon Leaders Class (PLC)

The Platoon Leaders Class is a summer officer-candidate program designed to train college men and women either as ground officers or as prospective pilots or naval flight officers (NFO) in Marine aviation. PLC training is limited to two summer periods of six weeks or one summer period of ten weeks at Quantico, Virginia. PLC candidates are recruited and processed by an Officer Selection Officer who routinely visits the college campus. PLC candidates may be eligible to receive a monthly financial stipend while in college, and their pay entry base date begins before they even go on active duty. Over the years this amounts to a substantial increase in money earned.

Officer Candidate Course (OCC)

The Officer Candidate Course is conducted for college graduates who are over twenty years of age and less than twenty-eight on 1 July of the year in which commissioned.

The course provides the practical military training needed to qualify for the specialized training to be received as a second lieutenant. It consists of ten weeks of intensive training at Quantico, Virginia.

The Basic School (TBS)

All Marines officers must attend The Basic School (TBS) at Quantico, Virginia. It is at TBS where the newly commissioned officer undergoes six months of intensive training to convert the Marine lieutenant into a professional military officer. As part of their professional leadership training, all Marine lieutenants are trained to be capable of serving as a rifle platoon commander. An officer receives his or her MOS at TBS, except for those who may be pre-designated for flight school or already attended law or medical school. The MOS a lieutenant is assigned is determined by class standing and the needs of the Marine Corps.
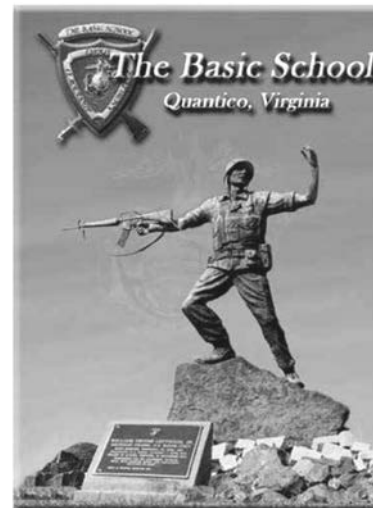
MECEP

Marines commissioned through the MECEP program incur a four year obligation.

Marine Corps Officer Occupational Fields

FIELD 02	INTELLIGENCE
FIELD 03	INFANTRY
FIELD 04	LOGISTICS
FIELD O5	MARINE AIR GROUND TASK FORCE (MAGTF) PLANS
FIELD 06	COMMAND AND CONTROL SYSTEMS
FIELD O8	FIELD ARTILLERY
FIELD 11	UTILITIES
FIELD 13	ENGINEER, CONSTRUCTION, FACILITIES, AND EQUIPMENT
FIELD 18	TANK AND ASSAULT AMPHIBIOUS VEHICLE
FIELD 21	ORDNANCE
FIELD 23	AMMUNITION AND EXPLOSIVE ORDNANCE DISPOSAL
FIELD 25	OPERATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS
FIELD 26	SIGNALS INTELLIGENCE/GROUND ELECTRONIC WARFARE
FIELD 28	GROUND ELECTRONICS MAINTENANCE
FIELD 30	SUPPLY ADMINISTRATION AND OPERATIONS
FIELD 31	TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT
FIELD 33	FOOD SERVICE
FIELD 34	ANAGEMENT
FIELD 35	MOTOR TRANSPORT
FIELD 40	DATA SYSTE
FIELD 41	MARINE CORPS EXCHANGE
FIELD 43	PUBLIC AFFAIRS
FIELD 44	LEGAL SERVICES
FIELD 46	VISUAL INFORMATION
FIELD 55	MUSIC
FIELD 57	NUCLEAR, BIOLOGICAL, AND CHEMICAL
FIELD 58	MILITARY POLICE AND CORRECTIONS
FIELD 59	ELECTRON I CS MAINTENANCE
FIELD 60	AIRCRAFT MAINTENANCE
FIELD 63	AVIONICS
FIELD 65	AVIATION ORDNANCE
FIELD 66	AVIATION LOGISTICS
FIELD 68	METEOROLOGICAL AND OCEANOGRAPHIC SERVICES
FIELD 70	AIRFIELD SERVICES
FIELD 72	AIR: CONTROL/SUPPORT/ WARFARE/ TRAFFIC CONTROL
FIELD 73	NAVIGATION OFFICER AND ENLISTED FLIGHT CREWS
FIELD 75	PILOTS/NAVAL FLIGHT OFFICERS
FIELD 96	SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM
FIELD 9700 & 9000	IDENTIFYING AND REPORTING MOSs

From the Ranks

The Marine Corps pioneered the award of officer commissioned to meritorious enlistees long before the practice was accepted among the other three services. In the Marine Corps, the door remains open through several programs.

Marine Enlisted Commissioning Education Program (MECEP)

Under this program, qualified enlisted Marines are assigned to a special preparatory course and then to college, during which they remain on active duty. On successful completion of college, preceded by summer officer candidate training, they receive commissions as second lieutenants in the Marine Corps Reserve.

Limited Duty Officer (LDO)

Warrant officers of the Marine Corps may apply for LDO commissions in specialized fields, such as administration, intelligence, infantry, logistics, artillery, engineers, tanks, amphibian tractors, ordnance, communications, supply, food, motor transport, and aviation.

Warrant Officer

Senior sergeants and staff non-commissioned officers may obtain appointment as

warrant officers (WOs) in specialized fields. Because qualifications for LDO and WO vary appreciably from time to time, the requirements for such appointments are not summarized here.

Temporary Officer

In addition to the established programs discussed so far, authority exists in law to issue temporary commissions as second lieutenant and above to selected warrant officers and enlisted men in order to meet pressing or particular needs.

Commissioned Officer's Rank Structure

The officer's rank structure is divided into: Warrant Officers, Company Grade Officers, Field Grade Officers, and General Officers. The company grade is made up of captains and lieutenants. The field grade ranks consists of majors, lieutenant colonels, and colonels. At the top of the officer rank structure are the four general ranks. These ranks include brigadier generals, major generals, lieutenant generals, and generals.

Warrant Officer

There are four levels of the warrant officer ranks. These levels are warrant officer (WO-1) and chief warrant officer (CWO-2 through CWO-5). Marine Corps warrant officers are normally appointed from the NCO ranks. Though warrant officers "come up through the ranks," it should be understood that they are not enlisted personnel. They are commissioned officers subject to the same special responsibilities as are other officers. A warrant officer is a technical, expert who fulfills billets in highly specialized fields. They are placed at positions where a great amount of expertise and experience is required.

Company Grade

Lieutenants and captains are company grade officers. Lieutenants most often serve as platoon commanders. The platoon commander is responsible for all matters pertaining to the care and growth of the platoon. This includes the well-being of personnel, operational training, and the maintenance of any organic equipment. Lieutenants serve in different billets such as company executive officer, staff positions, and as platoon commanders. This is based on their areas of experience.

The captain is the highest level of the company grade officer ranks. They primarily serve in two billet areas. Captains usually serve either as a company commander or as a staff officer on a battalion or regimental staff. At the headquarters level, there are five staff sections. These sections are administration (S-1), intelligence (S-2), operations (S-3), logistics (S-4), and civil affairs (S-5). Staff officers perform two functions: direct their assigned sections and perform as advisor for their area to the commander. The Captain as a commander is responsible for the personnel, equipment, and operational commitments of a company-sized unit.

As a senior company grade officer, the captain will want to attend a "Career Level School" to further his or her professional military education. A few such schools are: Amphibious Warfare School, Advanced Artillery School, Advanced Communications Information Systems Course, and many more.

Field Grade

As officers are promoted, they serve in a great variety of billets depending on their experience and military occupational specialty. There are two chief billets occupied by majors: the executive officer at the battalion level and staff officers at the regiment or battalion level.

Lieutenant colonels serve as battalion commanders and as staff officers at higher headquarters. The highest rank of field grade is the colonel. Colonels command regiments or their equivalent and serve on division, group, and wing headquarters staff.

Majors also continue their professional education by completing the resident or correspondence course of an "Intermediate Level School." The Marine Corps Command and Staff College, The Army Command and General Staff College and The Navy's Naval War College are just a few of the military school's a major may attend. Even Lieutenant Colonels are expected to continue their education. At this stage in his or her career the officer attends a "Top Level School" such as the Marine Corps War College, The Army War College, or The Air War College. While colonels seldom attend a formal school, they may fulfill a fellowship or special assignment to enhance their professional knowledge.

General Grade
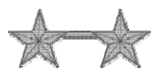
As previously mentioned, there are four ranks of the general grade. Marine generals command Fleet Marine Force (FMF) units such as infantry divisions, aircraft wings, and force service support groups. They also command non-FMF units. An example of a non-FMF billet would be commander of Marine Corps Base Camp Lejeune. General grade officers also command higher-level organizations as with Marine Forces Atlantic (MARFORLANT) and Marine Forces Pacific (MARFORPAC). General ranking officers also serve in staff billets on the commandant's staff. Brigadier, major, and lieutenant generals occupy all of the previous billets mentioned. However, there are only two Marines who hold the rank of general. The commandant who is in charge of the Marine Corps and the assistant commandant who is the "right hand man."

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned about officer commissioning programs, the different rank structures in the Marine Corps, and officer education. This information provides you with a better understanding of the rigorous process involved in becoming a Marine Corps officer. ❖

Army Rank Structure

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces the Army rank structure. It provides information on officer and enlisted rank, grades, and insignia. Upon completion of this lesson, you will be able to identify Army rank structure by rank, grade, and insignia and in order of seniority.

Introduction

Army soldiers, just like other military personnel, are classified by rank and grade. These terms have been explained to you in previous lessons. As a refresher, rank is the actual title, while grade is the corresponding pay level for that rank. This lesson will provide you with the rank, grade and insignia of Army soldiers.

History

Congress adopted an American Continental Army on June 14, 1775. The next day, Congress unanimously chose George Washington as Commander in Chief of the Continental Army and gave him the rank of General. The Continental Army consisted of ten rifle companies. Each company's rank structure consisted of a captain, three lieutenants, four sergeants, four corporals, a drummer (or horn player), and 68 privates. In addition to the ranks previously mentioned, the Continental Army also included colonels, generals, and several now-obsolete ranks like **coronet**, **subaltern** and **ensign**. On July 23, 1775, General Washington wrote:

> As the Continental Army has unfortunately no uniforms, and consequently many inconveniences must arise from not being able to distinguish the commissioned officers from the privates, it is desired that some badge of distinction be immediately provided; for instance that the field officers may have red or pink colored **cockades** in their hats, the captains yellow or buff, and the subalterns green.

From that point on, the Army rank structure and insignia evolved. This was the start of the Marine Corps' present system as well.

Army Rank Structure

The Army rank structure consists of officers, warrant officers, and enlisted personnel. Army officer and warrant officer ranks and grades are the same as the Marine Corps' ranks and grades. The enlisted grades are the E-1 through E-9, but the rank titles and insignia are different.

Officer Rank Structure

Rank	Grade
• General	0-10
• Lieutenant General	0-9
• Major General	0-8
• Brigadier General	0-7
• Colonel	0-6
• Lieutenant Colonel	0-5
• Major	0-4
• Captain	0-3
• First Lieutenant	0-2
• Second Lieutenant	0-1

Warrant Officer Rank Structure

Rank	Grade
• Chief Warrant Officer, CW05	W-5
• Chief Warrant Officer, CW04	W-4
• Chief Warrant Officer, CW03	W-3
• Chief Warrant Officer, CW02	W-2
• Warrant Officer, W01	W-1

Enlisted Rank Structure

Rate	Grade
• Sergeant Major of the Army	E-9
• Command Sergeant Major	E-9
• Sergeant Major	E-9
• First Sergeant	E-8
• Master Sergeant	E-8
• Sergeant First Class	E-7
• Staff Sergeant	E-6
• Sergeant	E-5
• Corporal	E-4
• Specialist	E-4
• Private First Class	E-3
• Private	E-2
• Private	E-1

Conclusion

There may be opportunities for you to come in contact with Army soldiers. With your knowledge of the Army rank structure, you will be able to identify them by rank and pay grade. It will also enhance your knowledge as a cadet and as a leader. ❖

Army JROTC Rank Structure

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces the Army JROTC Rank Structure. It provides information on cadet officer and cadet enlisted ranks and insignia.

Introduction

The Army JROTC rank structure is modeled after the Army, very similar to the MCJROTC and the Marines. The cadet officers have the same rank. The enlisted insignia has some similarity, but the ranks are different. During this lesson, you will be able to compare and learn Army JROTC ranks and insignia.

ARMY JROTC Rank Structure

The Army JROTC Cadet Corp also comprises cadet officer and cadet enlisted personnel.

Cadet Officer Rank Structure

The cadet officers in the Army JROTC in order of highest to lowest seniority are as follows:

Cadet Rank

- Cadet Colonel
- Cadet Lieutenant Colonel
- Cadet Major
- Cadet Captain
- Cadet First Lieutenant
- Cadet Second Lieutenant

The cadet officer insignia is shown below:
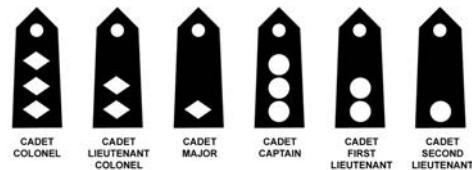
Cadet Enlisted Rank Structure

The cadet enlisted members in the Army JROTC in order of seniority from highest to lowest, are as follows:

Cadet Rank

- Cadet Command Sergeant Major
- Cadet Sergeant Major
- Cadet First Sergeant
- Cadet Master Sergeant
- Cadet Sergeant First Class
- Cadet Staff Sergeant

- Cadet Sergeant

- Cadet Corporal

- Cadet Private First Class

- Cadet Private

The cadet enlisted insignia as shown:
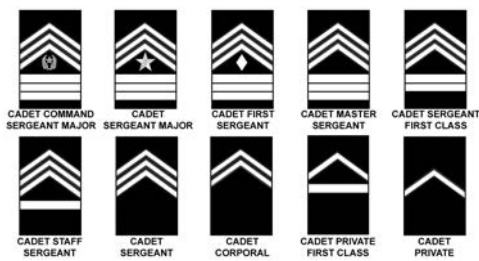
A Comparison Chart

A comparison chart showing the MCJROTC rank structure and ARMY JROTC rank structure is provided.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned the rank structure of the Army JROTC. You now can compare its rank structure to MJROTC and will be able to identify Army JROTC cadets by rank. This knowledge can make you a better cadet and leader in MCJROTC.❖
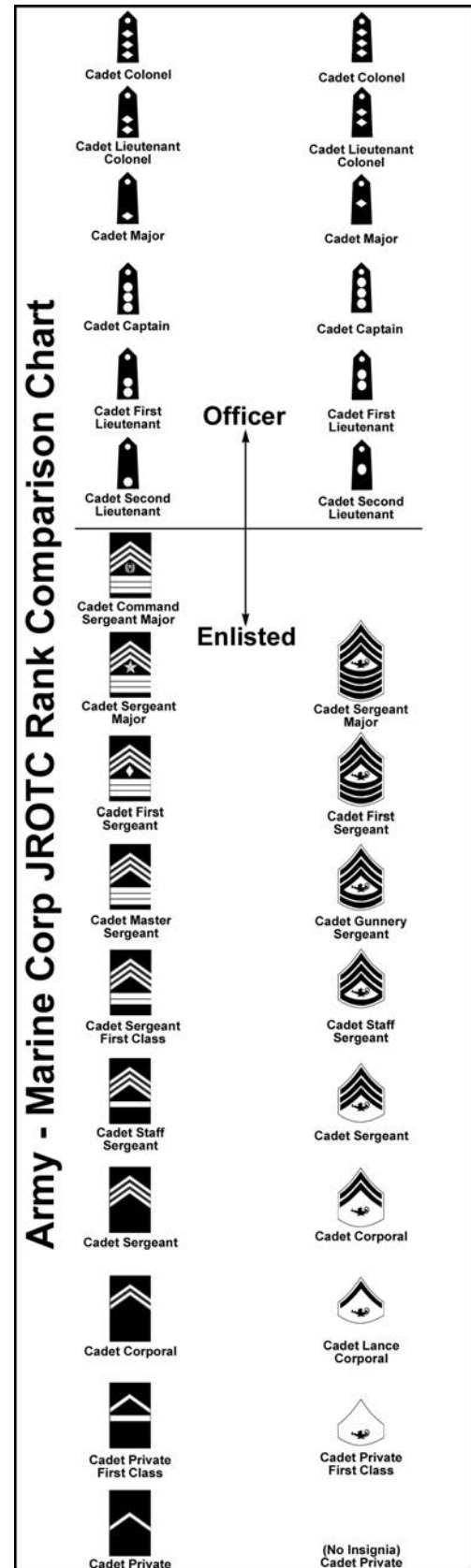
Air Force Rank Structure

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces the Air Force rank structure. It provides information on officer and enlisted ranks, grades, and insignia. Upon completion of this lesson, you will be able to identify Air Force rank structure by rank, grade, and insignia and in order of seniority.

Introduction

The Air Force, like the other services, has distinctive insignia to identify its military members. It has officers and enlisted personnel in the same pay grades as the other services. Unlike the other services however, it does not have Warrant Officers.

Background

The National Security Act of 1947 established the United States Air Force. Prior to that time, the Air Force was an organization within a branch of the United States Army. Its official **lineage** began August 1, 1907, when the U.S. **Army Signal Corps** formed an **Aeronautical** Division. The unit was upgraded to an Aviation Section (air section) from the Signal Corps, making it a distinctive branch of service called the Army Air Service. In 1926, the branch became the Army Air Corps. Finally, in 1947, it became what is currently the U.S. Air Force.

History

Since the Air Force was a part of the Army, the rank structure evolution was the same beginning October 13, 1775. The present system of officers' grade insignia began on June 18, 1780, when it was prescribed that Major Generals would wear two stars and Brigadier Generals one star on each epaulette. In 1832, the Colonel's eagle was initiated. In 1836, leaves were adopted for Lieutenant Colonels and Majors, while Captains received two bars and one bar was prescribed for First Lieutenant. Second Lieutenants received the gold bar in December 1917.

U.S. Air Force chevrons trace their origin from 1864 when a request was made for a distinctive rank insignia. With the creation of the Army Air Service, their device became a winged propeller design in its chevron. After the Air Force became a separate branch of the military, there was a time of transition. The chevrons retained the "Army look." Enlisted personnel were still "soldiers" until 1950, when they became "airmen" to distinguish them from "soldiers" or "sailors."

No documented rationale exists for the design of the present Air Force enlisted chevrons, except the minutes from a March 9, 1948

Pentagon meeting, which states that chevron designs were circulated at Bolling Air Force Base, Washington, D.C.   A group of 150 soldiers (airmen) was polled and 55 percent selected the design used today. The Air Force Chief of Staff approved the choice of the enlisted majority.

The inverted and curved chevron of today's Air Force distinguishes them from the noncommissioned and petty officers of other branches of the U.S. Armed Forces.

Air Force Rank Structure

The Air Force rank structure consists of officers and enlisted personnel. The enlisted personnel are subdivided into two categories, just as the other services. These two categories are noncommissioned officers and airman personnel. The pay grades are the same as the other services.

Officer Rank Structure

Rank	Grade
• General	0-10
• Lieutenant General	0-9
• Major General	0-8
• Brigadier General	0-7
• Colonel	0-6
• Lieutenant Colonel	0-5
• Major	0-4
• Captain	0-3
• First Lieutenant	0-2
• Second Lieutenant	0-1

The officer insignia is shown below.

Enlisted Rank Structure

Rank	Grade
• Master Chief Petty Officer of the Air Force	E-9
• Command Chief Master Sergeant	E-9
• First Sergeant	E-9
• Chief Master Sergeant	E-8
• First Sergeant	E-8
• Senior Master Sergeant	E-8
• First Sergeant	E-7
• Master Sergeant	E-7
• Technical Sergeant	E-6
• Staff Sergeant	E-5
• Senior Airman	E-4
• Airman First Class	E-3
• Airman	E-2
• Airman Basic	E-1

	E-1	E-2	E-3	E-4	E-5	E-6	E-7	
ENLISTED	Airman Basic	Airman	Airman First Class	Senior Airman	Staff Sergeant	Technical Sergeant	Master Sergeant	First Sergeant

	E-8		E-9			
	Senior Master Sergeant	First Sergeant	Chief Master Sergeant	First Sergeant	Command Chief Master Sergeant	Chief Master Sergeant of the Air Force

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned about the U.S. Air Force rank structure. The Armed Forces Rank Structure Chart provides a refresher and comparison of all branches of the Armed Forces.❖

Insignia of the U. S. Marine Corps

CATEGORY	E-1	E-2	E-3	E-4	E-5	E-6
ENLISTED		Private First Class	Lance Corporal	Corporal	Sergeant	Staff Sergeant
	E-7	E-8		E-9		
	Gunnery Sergeant	Master Sergeant	First Sergeant	Master Gunnery Sergeant	Sergeant Major	Sergeant Major of the Marine Corps
	W-1	W-2	W-3	W-4	W-5	
WARRANT OFFICER	Warrant Officer	Chief Warrant Officer 2	Chief Warrant Officer 3	Chief Warrant Officer 4	Chief Warrant Officer 5	
	O-1	O-2	O-3	O-4	O-5	O-6
COMPANY AND FIELD GRADE OFFICER	(gold) 2nd Lieutenant	(silver) 1st Lieutenant	(silver) Captain	(gold) Major	(silver) Lieutenant Colonel	(silver) Colonel
	O-7	O-8	O-9	O-10		
GENERAL OFFICER	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General		

Insignia of the U. S. Army

CATEGORY	E-1	E-2	E-3	E-4		E-5	E-6
ENLISTED (Green and Gold)	no insignia Private	Private	Private 1st Class	Corporal	Specialist	Sergeant	Staff Sergeant
	E-7	E-8		E-9			
	Sergeant 1st Class	Master Sergeant	1st Sergeant	Sergeant Major	Command Sergeant Major	Sergeant Major of the Army	
	W-1	W-2	W-3	W-4	W-5		
WARRANT OFFICER (Silver and Black)	Warrant Officer	Chief Warrant Officer	Chief Warrant Officer	Chief Warrant Officer	Master Warrant Officer		
	O-1	O-2	O-3	O-4	O-5	O-6	
COMPANY AND FIELD GRADE OFFICER (Gold and Silver)	(gold) 2nd Lieutenant	(silver) 1st Lieutenant	(silver) Captain	(gold) Major	(silver) Lieutenant Colonel	(silver) Colonel	
	O-7	O-8	O-9	O-10	O-11		
GENERAL OFFICER (Silver)	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General	General of the Army		

Insignia of the U. S. Navy

Ensign	Lieutenant Junior Grade	Lieutenant	Lieutenant Commander	Commander	Captain
Rear Admiral (Lower Half)	Rear Admiral (Upper Half)	Vice Admiral	Admiral	Fleet Admiral	
Chief Warrant Officer 2 (CWO2)	Chief Warrant Officer 3 (CWO3)	Chief Warrant Officer 4 (CWO3)			
Seaman Apprentice	Seaman	Petty Officer 3rd Class	Petty Officer 2nd Class	Petty Officer 3rd Class	Chief Petty Officer
Senior Chief Petty Officer	Master Chief Petty Officer	Fleet Chief Petty Officer	Master Chief Petty Officer of the Navy		

Insignia of the U. S. Air Force

	E-1	E-2	E-3	E-4	E-5	E-6	E-7
ENLISTED	Airman Basic	Airman	Airman First Class	Senior Airman	Staff Sergeant	Technical Sergeant	Master Sergeant	First Sergeant
	E-8		E-9				
	Senior Master Sergeant	First Sergeant	Chief Master Sergeant	First Sergeant	Command Chief Master Sergeant	Chief Master Sergeant of the Air Force	
	O-1	O-2	O-3	O-4	O-5	O-6	
COMPANY AND FIELD GRADE OFFICER (Gold and Silver)	(gold) 2nd Lieutenant	(silver) 1st Lieutenant	(silver) Captain	(gold) Major	(silver) Lieutenant Colonel	(silver) Colonel	
	O-7	O-8	O-9	O-10	O-11		
GENERAL OFFICER (Silver)	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General	General of the Air Force		

Air Force JROTC Rank Structure

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces the Air Force JROTC Rank Structure. It provides information on cadet officer and cadet enlisted ranks and insignia.

Introduction

The Air Force JROTC insignia is distinctive of its organization. The cadet enlisted insignia is modeled after the active duty enlisted rank insignia. The cadet officer rank insignia has stripes, unlike the other JROTC rank insignia. During this lesson, you will learn Air Force JROTC ranks and insignia.

Air Force JROTC Rank Structure

Just like the other JROTC programs, the Air Force JROTC Cadet Corp comprises cadet officer and cadet enlisted personnel as shown in the following sections.

Cadet Officer Rank Structure

Listed below is the cadet officer rank structure with descriptions of the insignia. The Air Force JROTC rank and insignia is in order of seniority from highest to lowest.

- Cadet Colonel — **Chevron** of 3 **inverted** stripes, 1 double-wide, 2 regular

- Cadet Lieutenant Colonel — Chevron of 2 inverted stripes, 1 double-wide, 1 regular

- Cadet Major — Chevron of 1 double-wide inverted stripe

- Cadet Captain — Chevron of 3 inverted stripes

- Cadet First Lieutenant — Chevron of 2 inverted stripes

- Cadet Second Lieutenant — Chevron of 1 inverted stripe

The cadet officer insignia is shown below:

Air Force JROTC Cadet Officer Insignia

Cadet Colonel

Cadet Lieutenant Colonel

Cadet Major

Cadet Captain

Cadet 1st Lieutenant

Cadet 2nd Lieutenant
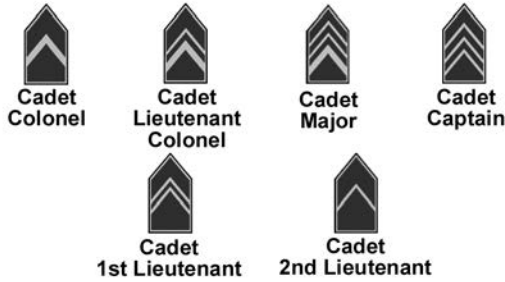
Cadet Enlisted Rank Structure

The cadet enlisted members in the Air Force JROTC in order of seniority from highest to lowest are as follows:

- Cadet Chief Master Sergeant — Chevron of 5 stripes with 3 stripes in inverted position above the torch

- Cadet Senior Master Sergeant — Chevron of 5 stripes with 2 stripes in inverted position above the torch

- Cadet Master Sergeant — Chevron of 5 stripes with 1 stripe in inverted position above the torch

- Cadet Technical Sergeant — Chevron of 5 stripes

- Cadet Staff Sergeant — Chevron of 4 stripes

- Cadet Senior Airman — Chevron of 3 stripes

- Cadet Airman First Class — Chevron of 2 stripes

- Cadet Airman — Chevron of 1 stripe

The cadet enlisted insignia is shown below:

Air Force JROTC Enlisted Rank Insignia

Cadet Chief Master Sergeant

Cadet Senior Master Sergeant

Cadet Master Sergeant

Cadet Technical Sergeant

Cadet Staff Sergeant

Cadet Senior Airman

Cadet Airman 1st Class

Cadet Airman

(No Insignia)
Cadet Airman Basic
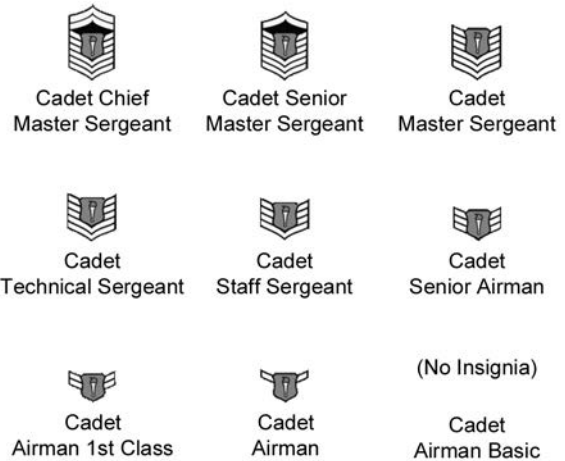
A Comparison Chart

A comparison chart showing the MCJROTC rank structure and Air Force JROTC rank structure is provided.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned the rank structure of the Air Force JROTC. You now know the similarities and the differences in the rank structure between MCJROTC and Air Force JROTC. You have also been able to compare the rank and insignia of all JROTC programs.❖

Air Force - Marine Corp JROTC Rank Comparison Chart

Cadet Colonel

Cadet Lieutenant Colonel

Cadet Major

Cadet Captain

Cadet First Lieutenant

Cadet Second Lieutenant

Officer

Enlisted

Cadet Command Sergeant Major

Cadet Sergeant Major

Cadet First Sergeant

Cadet Master Sergeant

Cadet Sergeant First Class

Cadet Staff Sergeant

Cadet Sergeant

Cadet Corporal

Cadet Private First Class

Cadet Private

Cadet Colonel

Cadet Lieutenant Colonel

Cadet Major

Cadet Captain

Cadet First Lieutenant

Cadet Second Lieutenant

Cadet Sergeant Major

Cadet First Sergeant

Cadet Gunnery Sergeant

Cadet Staff Sergeant

Cadet Sergeant

Cadet Corporal

Cadet Lance Corporal

Cadet Private First Class

(No Insignia) Cadet Private

U. S. Marine Corps JROTC Insignia

INSIGNIA OF GRADE FOR CADET OFFICERS

CADET COLONEL | CADET LIEUTENANT COLONEL | CADET MAJOR | CADET CAPTAIN | CADET FIRST LIEUTENANT | CADET SECOND LIEUTENANT

INSIGNIA OF GRADE FOR CADET ENLISTED PERSONNEL

CADET SERGEANT MAJOR | CADET FIRST SERGEANT | CADET GUNNERY SERGEANT | CADET STAFF SERGEANT

CADET SERGEANT | CADET CORPORAL | CADET LANCE CORPORAL | CADET PRIVATE FIRST CLASS

U. S. Army JROTC Insignia

INSIGNIA OF GRADE FOR CADET OFFICERS

CADET COLONEL | CADET LIEUTENANT COLONEL | CADET MAJOR | CADET CAPTAIN | CADET FIRST LIEUTENANT | CADET SECOND LIEUTENANT

INSIGNIA OF GRADE FOR CADET ENLISTED PERSONNEL

CADET COMMAND SERGEANT MAJOR | CADET SERGEANT MAJOR | CADET FIRST SERGEANT | CADET MASTER SERGEANT | CADET SERGEANT FIRST CLASS

CADET STAFF SERGEANT | CADET SERGEANT | CADET CORPORAL | CADET PRIVATE FIRST CLASS | CADET PRIVATE

U. S. Air Force JROTC Insignia

Cadet Colonel | Cadet Lieutenant Colonel | Cadet Major | Cadet Captain

Cadet 1st Lieutenant | Cadet 2nd Lieutenant

Cadet Chief Master Sergeant | Cadet Senior Master Sergeant | Cadet Master Sergeant

Cadet Technical Sergeant | Cadet Staff Sergeant | Cadet Senior Airman (No Insignia)

Cadet Airman 1st Class | Cadet Airman | Cadet Airman Basic

U. S. Navy JROTC Insignia

Cadet Seaman Recruit (no insignia) | Cadet Seaman Apprentice | Cadet Seaman | Cadet Petty Officer 3rd Class | Cadet Petty Officer 2nd Class | Cadet Petty Officer 1st Class

Cadet Chief Petty Officer | Cadet Senior Chief Petty Officer | Cadet Master Chief Petty Officer

Cadet Ensign | Cadet Lieutenant Junior Grade | Cadet Lieutenant | Cadet Lieutenant Commander | Cadet Commander

Marine Corps Rank

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces the different categories of officers and enlisted personnel within the Marine Corps. Upon completion of this lesson, you will be able to categorize Marine Corps officers and enlisted personnel based on rank.

Introduction

In general, Marines promoted into new ranks must accept increasing amounts of responsibility. They must be prepared for future challenges. Doing this effectively guarantees that future generations of Marines benefit from traditionally outstanding leadership.

You have already learned the Marine Corps rank structure based on rank and grade. Remember that rank is the actual title of seniority held, while grade is the letter/number combination representing the pay grade for that rank. This lesson provides the different categories of Marine Corps officers and enlisted personnel based on rank.

Officers

Within the officer ranks, there are four categories. These categories are based on experience and provide different levels of leadership. They are: warrant officer, company grade, field grade, and general officer.

Warrant Officers

Warrant officers are technical officer specialists who perform duties that require extensive knowledge, training and experience with particular systems or equipment. They provide experience and stability in the officer ranks in critical specialty areas. Ranks and grades of warrant officers include:

- Warrant Officer, W-1
- Chief Warrant Officer, CWO-2
- Chief Warrant Officer, CWO-3
- Chief Warrant Officer, CWO-4
- Chief Warrant Officer, CWO-5
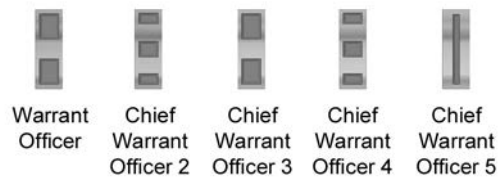
Company Grade Officers

Company grade officers are the junior officers of the Corps. They are generally located at the company level and include:

- Second Lieutenant
- First Lieutenant
- Captain

Field Grade Officers

Field grade officers provide the mid-level leadership of the Corps. Field grade officers fall between general officers and company grade officers and include the following ranks:

- Major
- Lieutenant Colonel
- Colonel

(gold)
Major

(silver)
Lieutenant
Colonel

(silver)
Colonel

General Officers

General officers are the senior leadership of the Corps. The general officer category consists of all general officers listed below:

- Brigadier General
- Major General
- Lieutenant General
- General

General

Lieutenant
General

Major
General

Brigadier
General

Enlisted Personnel

Within the enlisted ranks, there are two categories based on experience and skill. There are entry-level positions and noncommissioned officers.

Entry Level

Marines in entry-level positions are usually in some kind of training status or on their initial assignment in the Corps. The ranks for this level are:

- Private
- Private First Class
- Lance Corporal

Private
First
Class

Lance
Corporal

Noncommissioned Officers

Noncommissioned officers are divided into junior noncommissioned officers and staff noncommissioned officers. Listed below are the noncommissioned officer ranks.

Junior Noncommissioned Officers

- Corporal
- Sergeant

Corporal

Sergeant

Staff Noncommissioned Officers

- Staff Sergeant

- Gunnery Sergeant

- Master Sergeant/First Sergeant

- Sergeant Major/Master Gunnery Sergeant

- Sergeant Major of the Marine Corps

Staff Sergeant   Gunnery Sergeant   Master Sergeant

First Sergeant   Master Gunnery Sergeant   Sergeant Major   Sergeant Major of the Marine Corps

Conclusion

You already knew the Marine Corps Rank Structure. This lesson provided more in-depth information about the officer and enlisted categories within the Marine Corps rank structure.❖

The Organization of the Marine Corps

PURPOSE

This lesson explains the organization of the Marine Corps. You will learn about the overall organization, including the combat organization of the Corps.

Marine Corps Mission

The official mission of the Marine Corps was established in the National Security Act of 1947 and amended in 1952. Marines are trained, organized, and equipped for offensive amphibious employment, and as a "force in readiness." According to the National Security Act, Marines stand prepared to meet mission requirements. There are seven elements of the Marine Corps mission:

- Provide Fleet Marine Forces with combined arms and supporting air components for service with the United States Fleet in the seizure or defense of advanced naval bases and for the conduct of such land operations as may be essential to the execution of a naval campaign.

- Provide detachments and organizations for service on armed vessels of the Navy and security detachments for the protection of naval property at naval stations and bases.

- Develop, in coordination with the Army, Navy, and Air Force, the doctrine, tactics techniques, and equipment employed by landing forces in amphibious operations.

- Provide Marine forces for airborne operations, in coordination with the Army, Navy, and Air Force, according to the doctrine established by the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

- Develop, in coordination with the Army, Navy, and Air Force, the doctrine, procedures, and equipment for airborne operations.

- Expand peacetime components to meet wartime needs according to the joint mobilization plans.

- Perform such other duties as the President may direct.

Marine Corps Organization

In order to accomplish its mission, the Marine Corps is made up of land combat, security, and service forces; Marine Corps aviation; and the Marine Corps Reserve. The Marine Corps is organized into three principal subdivisions:

- Marine Corps Headquarters

- Marine Corps **Operating Forces**

- Marine Corps Supporting Establishment

Throughout these components, Marine Corps aviation is included as necessary to carry out the mission of the Corps.
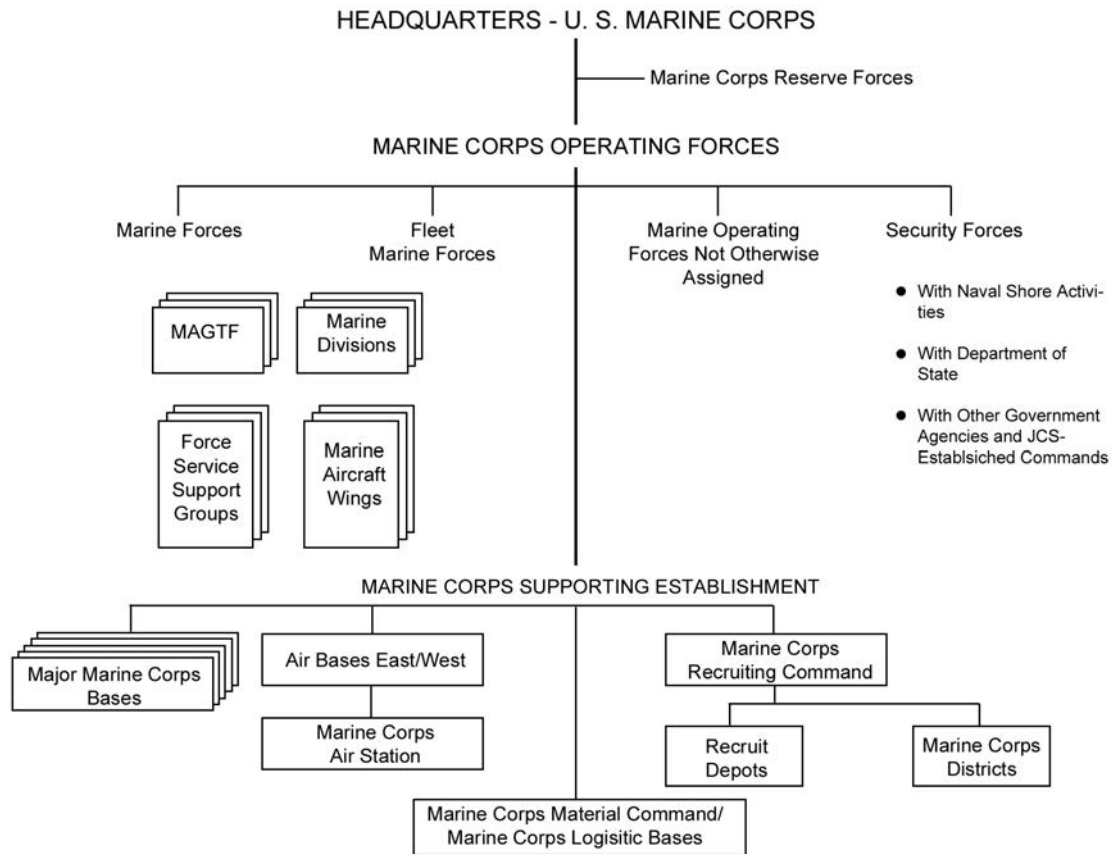
Marine Corps Headquarters

Marine Corps Headquarters is located in Washington, D.C. The Commandant of the Marine Corps Headquarters is directly responsible to the Secretary of the Navy for readiness, total performance and administration of the Marine Corps as a whole. This includes commanding the Reserve in addition to all Marine forces and activities except those assigned to the Naval Operating Forces or elsewhere. The Commandant is also responsible to the Chief of Naval Operations for the readiness and performance of those elements of the Marine Corps operating forces assigned to the Operating Forces of the Navy (i.e., the Fleet Marine Forces).

The President (under advice and consent of the Senate) appoints the Commandant from among the active general officers of the Corps. The Commandant is given a four-year term, and holds the rank of general. The Commandant serves on the Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS) during his/her term; and may be reappointed for more than four years. Archibald Henderson, fifth Commandant, who held office more than 39 years, has the record.
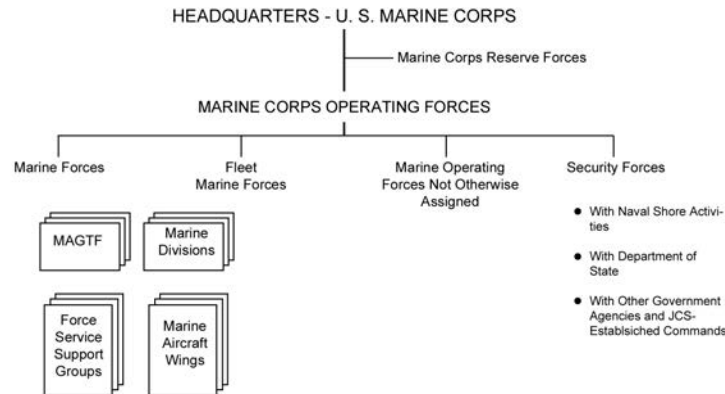
Marine Corps Operating Forces

The Marine Corps Operating Forces fall into three categories: Fleet Marine Forces assigned to the Operating Forces of the Navy; Marine Corps security forces assigned to shore activities of the naval establishment, the State Department, and other activities; and Marine Corps Forces assigned to **unified commands**.

Marine Corps Forces

When Marine Corps units are assigned to the unified commands or to the Operating Forces of the Navy, they report to the senior Marine commander. For the unified command, a Marine Corps Forces component commander (COMMARFOR) exercises operational control. That operational control does not include the administration and training responsibilities, which remain under the Commandant of the Marine Corps. The Commander, Marine Corps Forces Atlantic (headquartered in Norfolk, Virginia), and a similar commander for the Pacific (headquartered in Hawaii), act as component commanders for the U.S. Forces Atlantic and Pacific unified commands. These same commanders serve as Marine Corps Forces component commanders reporting to the other unified commanders, according to operational requirements. Under the unified commanders, the COMMARFOR have important strategic and budgetary planning activities. This contributes substantially to the determination of the size and composition of the Marine Corps Operating Forces in total.

The Commanding Generals, Fleet Marine Force, Atlantic and Pacific, command the Marine Corps units assigned to the **Atlantic and Pacific Fleets**. These are the same officers serving as COMMARFOR above, but exercising command through separate staffs located in the same buildings.

Fleet Marine Forces (FMF)

The FMF once encompassed the bulk of the operating forces of the Marine Corps. Now, only those forces assigned for duty with the Atlantic or Pacific fleets report under the control of their commanding generals, who also command the Marine Corps Forces. In any case, the same generals command the principal combat organizations of the Corps. These are the three divisions, three aircraft wings, and three force service support groups.

The Tables of Organization (T/Os) spell out the organization of every unit, down to the individual Marine and his or her duties, grade, specialist qualifications, and weapons. Tables of Equipment (T/Es) list the equipment required by each unit. Tables of Allowance (T/As) give basic allowances of standard items, such as bunks,

helmets, and cleaning gear, which vary in direct proportion to the number of people in a unit.

The Marine Division is the ground fighting organization of the Marine Corps. The division is a balanced force of combined arms, but it does not include organic aviation or logistic support. The division consists of about 16,000 officers and enlisted. Half serve in the three infantry regiments that are the division's cutting edge. To support these infantry regiments, the Marine division includes an artillery regiment, tanks, amphibian vehicles, engineers, motor transport, and medical, signal, and other troops, normal for a force of combined arms. During World War II, the Corps reached an all-time high of six divisions.

Fleet Marine Forces also include Marine Aviation. The basic tactical and administrative unit of aviation is the squadron. Two or more tactical squadrons plus a headquarters and maintenance squadron constitutes the Marine Aircraft Group (MAG). Two or more groups, with appropriate supporting and service units, make up the Marine aircraft wing. Marine Corps aviation units whose aircraft permit carrier operations, are trained for them; they serve on board aircraft carriers of the fleet.

MARINE DIVISION

Marine Air-Ground Task Forces

Marine Corps doctrine normally dictates the employment of Marine forces as integrated Marine Air-Ground Task Forces (MAGTF). 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 armies for a variety of situations. The next lesson will provide the details of the MAGTF.

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. They typically visit the Caribbean Sea and Indian Ocean and provide a peacetime presence and rapid response capability that contribute to deterrence and forward defense strategy.

Seagoing Marines

Standing Marine detachments aboard carriers (formerly aboard flagships, battleships, and cruisers) have been disestablished as of January 1998. FAST Platoons and detachments now perform, when required, the security mission once accomplished by these "**seagoing** Marines." Shipboard Marines date from earliest antiquity - from the fleets of Hiram of Tyre, and of Greece and Rome.
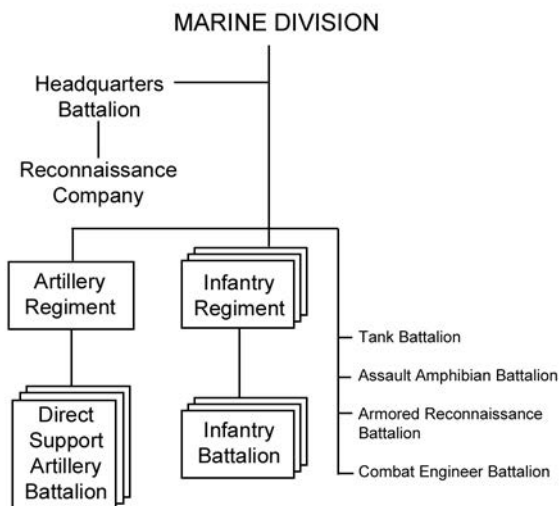
Marine Corps Security Forces with Naval Establishment Shore Activities

Marine forces provide internal security for major shore stations in the naval establishment. At such stations, Marine guards perform the predominantly military activities that directly affect the internal security of the base.

Although Marine security forces are part of the naval stations where they serve, they can also provide cadres to the Fleet Marine Force in a hurry. In fact, until the FMF was established, Marine Barracks were the only source of troops to form expeditionary forces. The Marine security forces therefore conduct training prescribed by Marine Corps Headquarters, in order to keep officers and men at each Marine Barracks or Security Force Company ready for instant field duty.

Marine Corps Operating Forces on Other Assignment

Because the President can assign Marines to any duty ("... such other duty as the President may direct"), Marine Corps Operating Forces can be detached for service outside the naval establishment, under unified commands, independently, or even under other executive departments (such as Marine embassy or mail guards). Command of Marine units not otherwise assigned by the President or the Secretary of the Navy remains with the Commandant of Marine Corps.

The Marine Corps Supporting Establishment

The Marine Corps Supporting Establishment provides, trains, maintains, and supports the Operating Forces. The Supporting Establishment includes: Marine Corps Schools; recruit depots; supply installations; reserve activities; certain Marine Corps bases, barracks, and air stations; Headquarters Battalion, Marine Corps Headquarters; and a number of miscellaneous small activities.

Marine Corps Combat Development Command (MCCDC)

This command carries a long history as the fermenting ground of the Corps' organization and training. Today's Combat Development Command continues to be the intellectual heart of the Corps. Normally commanded by a lieutenant general, the command serves as the central agency responsible for the development of training, concepts, and doctrine necessary for all types of operations conducted by Marine Corps forces.

Marine Corps Recruit Depots

The recruit depots (and, for officers, The Basic School) build the foundation of the Marine Corps. "Boot camp" transforms the average young American into a United States Marine. Picked officers and veteran enlisted drill instructors (DIs) emphasize the elements of obedience, esprit de corps, and the military fundamentals every Marine must master before taking his or her place in the ranks.

MARINE CORPS SUPPORTING ESTABLISHMENT

system, which coordinates and supervises procurement, stock control, and distribution of material.

The supply organization of the Marine Corps is designed to respond to modem logistic requirements. The Marine Corps supply system heads up what is called an inventory control point (ICP) at Marine Corps Logistic Base, Albany, Georgia. The main functions of the ICP are centralized procurement of virtually all material for the Corps, centralized processing of all requisitions, and stores accounting. In addition, however, other vital functions include:

- *Cataloging.* Every item entering the Marine Corps supply system is identified, cataloged, and assigned a national stock number (NSN) in accordance with the Federal Cataloging Program.

- *Provisioning.* All major equipment or "end items" entering the Marine Corps supply system, particularly for support of the FMF, require repair parts support. This function of "provisioning" (which has nothing to do with food) is the selection and procurement of the thousands of new repair parts required each year for the support of new equipment.

- *Technical services.* Users of equipment or maintenance personnel frequently require engineering or technical assistance, which can vary from the relatively minor determination of the exact characteristics of a report part, to the development of a major modification or "engineering change."

- *Publications support.* The publications that are the foundation of the supply system are the Marine Corps Stock Lists.

The principal Marine Corps logistic establishments (those that physically stock the material) are Fleet Support Divisions (FSDs). The

The Marine Corps operates two depots, one at Parris Island, South Carolina, for recruits from the eastern states and the other at San Diego, California, for those from the western states. Presently, all women recruits continue to report to Parris Island. Drill Instructors receive their training at each depot. After boot camp, the new Marines report to advanced individual training in assigned specialties at other Marine Corps schools.

Marine Corps Supply

The Marine supply services provide logistic support for the Corps. Supply, service, transportation, and evacuation comprise logistics.

The supply establishment procures, stores, distributes, maintains, and repairs all materiel that passes through the Marine supply

two principal FSDs of the Marine Corps are the Marine Corps Logistic Bases at Albany, Georgia, and Barstow, California. These FSDs store and issue material in accordance with instruction from the ICP, conduct and supervise stores accounting for post supply outlets, and support the local maintenance centers.

To facilitate distribution and decentralization within the limits of the system and promote responsiveness to supply needs, various smaller supply agencies must support certain major posts. These smaller supply agencies, formerly known as "Stock Accounts," are now also designated as ICPs. Communications and actual processing of transactions between the inventory control point and the user are accomplished through a network of computers providing immediate response to supply needs.

Expeditionary Logistics

In an effort to make Marine Corps logistics more expeditionary in nature, the logisticians have streamlined inventories and reduced echelons of management. The improved responsiveness of the system, made feasible largely through new automated information systems, affords long-term gains in reduced numbers of replacement and overhauling programs.

The new generation of information management systems centers on the Asset Tracking Logistics and Supply System (ATLASS). ATLASS combines the previous separate systems for supply and maintenance management into a fully integrated system made portable with personal computers. ATLASS provides Marines with instantaneous data on the flow of parts and supplies and the status of equipment, including items previously inaccessible, such as ammunition and medical stores. Not only can commanders and their staffs monitor the material flow into and throughout the command, but they can also stipulate priorities of supply by category of supplies and by receiving units. Therefore, units with the greatest need can be supplied first.

The two Marine Corps logistic support bases at Albany and Barstow play key roles in fielding expeditionary logistics as doctrine and practice. Now termed "multicommodity maintenance centers," they have proved highly capable of changing missions and operations to meet the changing demands of the forces. Workflow and planning cycles can be flexed at will to move from overhauling PWR, to servicing an outbound MACTF, to supporting the periodic maintenance of a recently arrived MPS vessel.

Aviation Supply

Marine aviation supply is a little complicated. A Marine in an aviation unit gets his/her clothing, individual equipment, rations weapons, and pay from the Marine Corps. From the Naval Air Systems Command, however, he/she receives vehicles, airplane, its armament, flight gear, and most of the training aids and manuals.

Marine Corps Bases and Air Stations

Several Marine Corps bases camps, barracks, and air stations exist primarily to support other Marine activities. Unlike the Marine Corps Security Forces, these stations come under military command of the Commandant of the Marine Corps. These posts are:

- Marine Barracks, 8th and Eye Streets, S.E., Washington, D.C.

- Henderson Hall, Arlington, Virginia

- Marine Corps Combat Development Command, Quantico, Virginia

- Marine Corps Base, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina

- Marine Corps Base, Camp Pendleton, California

- Marine Corps Air-Ground Combat Center, Twentynine Palms, California

- Camp Allen, Norfolk, Virginia

- Camp Garcia, Vieques, Puerto Rico

- Camp H. M. Smith, Oahu, Hawaii

- Camp S. D. Butler, Okinawa

- Marine Corps Air Station, Quantico, Virginia

- Marine Corps Air Station, Beaufort, South Carolina

- Marine Corps Air Station, Yuma, Arizona

- Marine Corps Air Station, Miramar, California

- Marine Corps Air Station, Cherry Point, North Carolina

- Marine Corps Air Station, Iwakuni, Japan

- Marine Corps Air Station (helicopter), New River, North Carolina

- Marine Corps Air Station (helicopter), Camp Pendleton, California

- Marine Corps Air Station (helicopter), Futenma, Okinawa

In addition to the foregoing major stations, there is also the Marine Corps Mountain Warfare Training Center ("Pickel Meadows") at Bridgeport, California.

Marine Corps Districts

The Marine Corps divides the continental United States into regional Marine Corps districts for local representation, recruiting, and officer procurement. Among a wide range of miscellaneous duties, district directors maintain liaison with corresponding agencies and headquarters of the other three services, state adjutants general, other federal field agencies (particularly offices of the Department of Veterans Affairs), schools and colleges, and veterans' associations and military societies.

The Marine Band

A unique organization in the Supporting Establishment is the U.S. Marine Band, a part of Marine Barracks, 8th and Eye Streets, Washington, D.C.

This 120-piece military band is not only the best, but also the oldest (1798) of the Armed Forces musical organizations. It has the privilege of providing music for all White House and official state functions in Washington D.C., in addition to its normal duties in military parades and ceremonials.
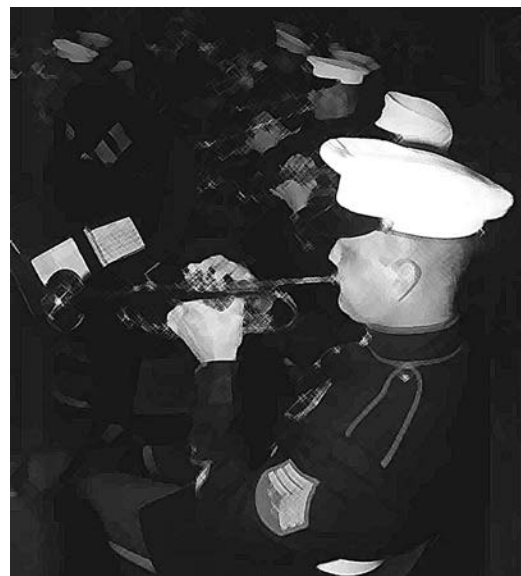
The Marine Corps Reserve

Although separate from the regular establishment, the Marine Corps Reserve forms a vital part of the Supporting Establishment, mobilizes, and trains with the Operating Forces.

Marine Corps Aviation

The role of Marine Corps aviation in the air-ground team is to support Fleet Marine Force operations. Secondarily, Marine aviation may replace or augment squadrons for duty with the fleet air arm.

The noteworthy characteristic of Marine aviation is that it forms an inseparable part of the combined arms team that the Corps operates. Thus, the special role of Marines in the air is to support their teammates on the ground. The kind of close air support to which Marines are accustomed demands complete integration between air and ground. Pilot and platoon leader wear the same color uniform, share the same traditions and a common fund of experience, and go to school side by side in Quantico. Marine pilots accomplish battlefield and beachhead liaison between air and ground. Pilots share frontline foxholes with the riflemen while they direct Marine aircraft onto targets. This allows maximum reliance by ground units on aviation, and maximum desire by aviation to assist the ground units.

Organization of Marine Corps Aviation

Marine aviation is closely related to naval aviation. This relationship results from the long partnership between Marine Corps and Navy, and the preponderance of Marine squadrons, organized and equipped for carrier operations that regularly perform tours of duty afloat. In addition, Marine pilots undergo flight training at Pensacola and win their wings as naval aviators.

The primary function of Marine Corps aviation is to participate as the supporting air component of the Marine Corps Forces in whatever operations they conduct. Marine aviators are integral components of naval aviation in the execution of naval functions directed by the fleet commanders.

The Commandant of the Marine Corps controls the administration, individual training, and organization of Marine aviation. The Chief of Naval operations, however, prescribes (via the Commandant) the aeronautical training programs and standards for Marine aviation units. In addition, the aviation material used by Marine squadrons comes from the same sources in the Navy, as does similar material for Navy squadrons.

The organization of Marine Corps aviation falls into subdivisions that correspond to the organization of the Corps as a whole:

- Office of Deputy Chief of Staff (Aviation), Marine Corps Headquarters

- Aircraft, Marine Corps Forces

- Aviation Supporting Establishment

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned about the mission and organization of the Marine Corps. The Marine Corps organization ensures the accomplishment of its mission as established in by National Security Act.❖

1919 – 1941 In Between Wars

PURPOSE

After World War I, the Marine Corps decreased in size from over 75,000 to the 20,000 officers and men that made up the Corps during the 20s. Despite there not being any major wars for the Marines during the 20s and 30s, the Corps was actively involved around the world in skirmishes in the Dominican Republic until 1924, in Nicaragua from 1927 until 1933, and in Haiti until 1934. In addition, a few Marines landed in Vladivostok, in the eastern part of the Soviet Union, to support an anti-communist group in 1919. The Marines were active in the Pacific/China supporting the fight against the Soviet Union and the Japanese.

During this period, Marine aviation became an important part of the entire process of **amphibious** *landings. These landings required special landing vehicles to bring the Marines to shore in order to establish a beachhead easier.*

The experiences in the 20s and 30s helped prepare the Marines for their greatest challenge – World War II.

Introduction

In 1920, **Major General John A. Lejeune** became Commandant of the Marine Corps and served for most of the next decade. The 20s were a decade of change for the United States. World War I was supposed to be the "war to end all wars." With that in mind, the nation turned inward into a spirit of isolationism. Cultural changes and business development became the order of the day. "The business of America is business," said President Calvin Coolidge on Jan. 17, 1925. New inventions, such as the radio, greater use of the automobile, and shorter workweeks, gave Americans an opportunity to enjoy the peace and prosperity of the decade. At the same time, it became apparent that the U.S. was no longer interested in pursuing foreign entanglements. Nevertheless, the Marines were engaged in a number of activities throughout the world and especially in the Caribbean. The spending for the military, for military personnel and equipment, decreased. Lejeune realized that the Marine Corps could not survive if it was just another Army. The Marines set about developing a mission that was unique to the Corps.

Staff System Development

Prior to WWI, the Marine Corps did not have a staff system comparable to the Army's. Valuable staff experience was gained during the war, as Marines served in that capacity for the Army. By the end of 1918, the Commandant had established a planning section with a mission that included "all matters pertaining to plans for operations and training, intelligence, ordnance, and ordnance supplies and equipment." In 1920, the planning section was expanded into the Division of Operations and Training. This new division was composed of Operations, Training, Military Education, Military Intelligence, and Aviation Sections.

This division also assumed the responsibility for the preparation of war plans. **Major Earl Ellis** was aware of the Japanese activity in the Pacific. The Office of Naval

Intelligence prepared a study concerning a possible war across the Pacific with the Japanese. Major Ellis made a contribution called the "Orange Plan" that pointed out that "it will be necessary for us to project our fleet and landing forces across the Pacific and wage war in Japanese waters. To effect this requires that we have sufficient bases to support the fleet." Ellis was convinced that the Japanese would attack first. Ellis also pointed out that the American forces would have to be carefully trained to effect successful amphibious landings, and that the troops must be skilled watermen and jungle men – Marines with Marine training.

Ellis died mysteriously on the Japanese-held island of Palau in the Pacific in 1922. The official story is that Ellis took a leave of absence from the Corps, went traveling, became ill in the islands, and died. In truth, Ellis was on a secret military intelligence mission. It is thought that the Japanese knew what Ellis was doing and may have poisoned him. The mystery has never been fully resolved. Fortunately, Ellis' contribution was a necessary ingredient in the effort to establish American power in the Pacific.

Lejeune wrote that it was important to create a "mobile Marine Corps force adequate to conduct offensive land operations against hostile Naval bases…" By 1923, the term "advanced base force" was dropped and replaced with "Marine Corps Expeditionary Forces." To prepare for future amphibious missions, the Marine Corps conducted several landing exercises with the Fleet during the 20 years between wars. By 1933, based on a suggestion from Gen. John Russell, a general order was issued that created the **Fleet Marine Force**, a permanent Marine strike force, to be kept in a state of readiness for operations with the fleet. During those exercises, heavy equipment was tested for possible use in ship to shore operations, the training of artillery gun teams was

emphasized, and other equipment needed for an expeditionary force was tested.

An expeditionary landing force needed boats that were light enough to drop troops in shallow water. One such boat was based on the Japanese model that had a retractable bow ramp. By the late 30s, the Marines had successfully tested equipment such as the Roebling Alligator. This type of amphibious landing craft made a huge difference in the ability of the Marines to land expeditionary forces on the Pacific islands during WWII.

China

While European powers were engaged in World War I, Japan took advantage of the situation to assume control of the islands maintained by Germany in the Central Pacific. In addition, Japan took over the German economic

monopoly in the Shantung Province of China, and forced China to bow to Japan's will.

China in the 20s was a country in turmoil. There were fights between northern warlords and southern revolutionaries. The Nationalist Party, headed by Chiang Kai-shek, fought communists and other nationalist groups. It was during this timeframe when China was in chaos that the Marines came to China. The Marines were not there to solve China's internal problems but to help the British and other foreign powers keep China out of the International Settlement in Shanghai. The International Settlement was a part of the city restricted to Western people only, and the Chinese resented this foreign control. By May of 1927, more than 4,000 Marines under the leadership of General Smedley Butler were on hand. The most action the Marines saw in this duty was putting out a major gasoline fire at the Standard Oil Plant at Tientsin. It took 2000 Marines four days to put out the flames.

In 1931, the Japanese marched into and took over the Chinese territory called Manchuria. The **League of Nations** condemned the action, but no one, including the United States, was willing to take steps to recover the territory. Shortly thereafter, the Japanese walked out of the League of Nations, and signed a treaty with Nazi Germany. When the war between China and Japan escalated in 1937, the Marines were caught in the middle. They continued to protect the International Settlement, but it soon became apparent that the war would put U.S. interests at risk. Two Marines, Major Merritt Edson and Captain Evans Carlson studied the tactics of each side. Edson focused on the Japanese amphibious tactics. Carlson stayed with Chinese troops and learned about their **guerilla warfare** tactics. The information would prove useful soon enough. In fact, Carlson also studied British commando tactics and helped originate the Marine Raiders.

By 1940, the U.S. not only stopped its trade of war materials with Japan, but engaged in tactics designed to limit petroleum exports to Japan. They even told Japan to get out of China. Ultimately, the effect was to ensure that the Japanese would see the U.S. as an enemy and resulted in the attack on Pearl Harbor.

Marines in Latin America
Dominican Republic

The role of the Marines in the Dominican Republic included training the national police called the Guardia (Policia Nacional Dominica). They also helped control bandits and engaged in 200 firefights between 1919 and 1924 when they left the island. At one point, 2000 Marines were garrisoned in the Dominican Republic. As the strength of the occupying force of Marines decreased, opposition to their presence increased. Gen. Logan Feland developed a cordon system that allowed Marines to cordon off an area and arrest every suspicious looking adult male. At trials, 500 convictions were obtained. These tactics aroused such opposition that they had to be stopped. As the Dominican occupation entered its final years, the Marines were ordered to win the people's friendship and deal with Dominicans fairly. **Amnesty** was offered to those who had not committed serious crimes. Opposition lessened, and a number of rebel leaders who surrendered were given suspended sentences. In 1924, the Marines left the Dominican Republic. In 1930, Rafael Trujillo became dictator, and at first he was well received by the United States. However, his 30-years of tyrannical rule eventually lead to the call for his removal. In 1961, he was assassinated.

Haiti

In Haiti, the Marines fought the Cacos. The Cacos were revolutionaries, **mercenaries**, or bandits, depending on who was describing them. Marine officers led the Gendarmerie, or national police of Haiti. Charlemagne Peralte, the Cacos leader escaped imprisonment and hid out in the hills. Using guerilla tactics, the Cacos were able to ambush gendarmerie patrols, seize rifles and ammunition, and kill gendarmes. In one attack, Captain Patrick Kelly, the gendarmerie commander who had once killed 35 Cacos during an attack, was saved from death when one of his Haitian men shielded him. The Haitian lost an arm and a leg. As the Cacos became stronger, the Marines engaged in trickery to eliminate their leader. Disguised as Cacos, Marine Sgt. Herman Hanneken and Marine Cpl. William Button were able to pass into their camp and kill Peralte. Hanneken later lead an attack on a Cacos fort and captured more than 300 rebels. For their efforts, Hanneken and Button received the Medal of Honor. When Benoit Batraville was killed after he tried to replace Peralte as leader, the Cacos movement died with him.

While not all of the activities of the Marines met applause (there were examples of Marine misuse of power), the local gendarmes were trained well, and the 20s were relatively peaceful.

In 1929, the Marines helped stop economic and political riots. The refusal of the Haitian president to accept a free election resulted in strikes of students and government workers. Marines handled the mobs, sometimes with gunfire, and the riots ended. Eventually, it became clear that the Haitian people must own responsibility for their country, and the Marines left Haiti in 1934.

Nicaragua

During World War I, the Marine Legation Guard stayed in Managua and was resented as a symbol of American **imperialism**. The Marines left after a relatively free and open election, but returned in 1925 when anti-American Emiliano Chamorro replaced the **coalition** government. President Coolidge sent weapons to fight rebels to Adolfo Diaz who replaced Chamorro in 1926. Marines went ashore in January of 1927 and garrisoned fourteen towns along the railroad. The new rebel leader was Augusto Sandino. For the next five years, he became the symbol of Nicaraguan nationalism. In July of 1927, with five DeHavillands, a type of plane in use at the time, the Marines dive-bombed a town where the Sandinista rebels were holed up. Marines dropped bombs from 600 feet and then **strafed** the rebels on the ground. This marked the first time the Marines used dive-bombing and low altitude support. Major Ross Rowell became the first Marine to win a Distinguished Flying Cross for his efforts.

Later Sandino attacked the town of Quilali. Even though there was no airfield, **Lt. Christian Schilt** flew in medicines and evacuated the wounded. Because of the conditions, Schilt flew without weapons. He had to make his engine stall to land, and took off with the enemy firing at his plane. Schilt made 10 flights into and out of Quilali. He brought in 1,400 pounds of medicine and supplies, and flew out 18 seriously wounded Marines. For his heroism, he was awarded the Medal of Honor.

The Marines knew that for Nicaragua to remain able to withstand rebel attacks, the Guardia must be properly trained. As in Haiti, officers in the Guardia were Marines. **Lt. Lewis (Chesty) Puller** was one of the Marine leaders. He led many patrols into the jungle area in the

north of Nicaragua. His aggressiveness got him the nickname "Tiger of the Mountains" and won him two of his eventual five Navy Crosses. Eventually, the Marines relied more and more on the Guardia to eliminate the rebels. By 1933, the Marines were able to leave the troubled country. The experience of jungle warfare in Nicaragua would prove valuable to Puller and others in World War II.

Marine Captain Alton Parker became the first pilot to fly over parts of Antarctica in 1929 as part of the Byrd Antarctic Expedition.

Marine Corps Aviation

Between World War I and World War II, the Marines comprised the only American ground and aviation units actually engaged in combat. Aviation organizations served in the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and/or Nicaragua between 1919 and 1934.

An important aspect of Marine aviation development was "**close air support**." During the 30s, Marines aviators learned air support techniques in Nicaragua. As the Marines were in the process of landing and establishing a beachhead, the support of the planes in bombing and strafing the enemy helped to secure those positions. Faster planes required greater communication between air and ground. It also required accuracy to ensure that the enemy and not the Marines were hit by bombs and strafing. Near the end of the decade in 1939, it was established that the Marine aviator's primary role was to be the support of FMF landing and field operations.

Pearl Harbor

At nearly 8:00 a.m. on Sunday, December 7, 1941, Japanese Zeroes strafed the 47 planes of Marine Aircraft Group 21, parked wing tip to wing tip at Mooring Mast Field, the Marines' airfield. The Japanese made a number of passes, and each one of the planes was either destroyed or damaged. The stacking of the planes so close to each other made them easy targets. Marines fired back with rifles and pistols. There were no antiaircraft guns available at this location.

When the Japanese turned toward Pearl Harbor, Col. Harry Pickett ordered the antiaircraft guns out of storage, but the ammunition was 27 miles away. The Japanese now attacked the fleet in Pearl Harbor. The attack caught the Americans totally unprepared. The intent of the Japanese was to get the U.S. and the western powers out of the war in the Pacific.

Fortunately for the U.S., two aircraft carriers and a number of cruisers were at sea. The attack in Hawaii lasted less than two hours. The Japanese sank or damaged seven battleships and three cruisers. In all, more than 2,000 Americans were killed and another 1,100 wounded. The Japanese lost 29 planes and fewer than 100 men. President Roosevelt called the result of the sneak attack of December 7, "a day that will live in infamy."

Wake Island

Troops in China and Guam surrendered to the Japanese the next day. At Wake Island, U.S. resistance was stronger. On December 11, the Japanese opened fire on the island from the sea. However, the Marine gunners were able to sink the lead destroyer of the Japanese and drive off the invasion force. Marine planes chased after the retreating ships sinking another destroyer and damaging two warships and a transport. They had also been able to shoot down three Japanese bombers. On this day, Wake was defended. This was the last time that a coast defense would prevent an amphibious landing.

Wake actually consists of three islands and sits in the Pacific 450 miles from the nearest land. Its location made it strategically important for both Japan and the United States. On December 7, 1941, 36 Japanese bombers attacked Wake and within 10 minutes, destroyed seven of the eight planes on the ground. For the next two days, the Japanese bombarded Wake; they hit guns, ammunition, barracks, the radio station, and the machine shop. On the third night, the invasion attempt was made and turned back. The bombing continued daily and by December 20, Japanese dive bombers joined in. A promised relief effort never came to the rescue. On December 23, the Japanese returned to invade Wake. This time there were 1,500 men.

At one point, 85 Marines were stationed on the beach and did their best to keep the enemy out; but six hours later all but one of the defenders were dead or wounded. The final battle took place on one of the smaller islands, Wilkes Island. There, 70 Marines were able to hold off the Japanese until the defenders were told that the island had been surrendered. The Japanese made prisoners of the 470 officers and men that remained. Marines had lost 49, and the Japanese

had 820 killed. The prisoners kept hoping for a counterattack, but there were to be no Christmas presents this year. On January 12, they were taken to Shanghai where they remained as prisoners.

Conclusion

Even though the period of 1919 to 1941 was one of relative peace for the United States, there were enough engagements for the Marines to learn something about their next major war. They learned about jungle warfare by their experiences in the Caribbean and China. They learned amphibious landing techniques by watching the Japanese. They learned how to use planes more effectively in landing preparation. They studied the Japanese, and learned that they were going to be the major concern of the Pacific and likely to strike first. In spite of this knowledge, the U.S. was unprepared for the beginning of the war. The sneak attack at Pearl Harbor severely crippled the U.S. Pacific fleet. Losing Wake Island, despite the gallant efforts of the Marines stationed there, provided the first hint that the war in the Pacific would require great sacrifice and greater courage.❖

1942

PURPOSE

In Washington, the Joint Chiefs of Staff decided that the Pacific was the place for the Marines. Army amphibious operations in Europe would be followed by a lengthy land activity. Whereas, because the battle in the Pacific would result in a series of amphibious landings from ship to each new island shore, it made sense to focus the activity of the Marines in that part of the world. That, after all, is what Marines are trained to do.

Beginning with the defense of Wake Island and ending with the preparations for a land invasion of Japan, the next four years repeatedly demonstrated the courage and the commitment of the Marines. Each scrap of land was fought for with "blood and guts."

Introduction

The story of the attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, is well known to most Americans. **Midway**, Johnson and the Palmyra Islands were also attacked on that day. On December 8, the Japanese attacked Guam. On December 10, the Japanese invaded the island, defended by 233 men (including 153 Marines with 6,000 troops). American troops were on the defensive and did what they could to reinforce and retain whatever footholds they had in the Pacific. The Japanese attacked the Philippines on December 8, 1941. By December 25, Marines had burned down Olongapo Naval Station on Subic Bay. Troops had moved to the tip of the Bataan

Peninsula, on their way to the "Rock" as Corregidor was known. The Japanese were overwhelming in both troop strength and firepower. U.S. troops finally surrendered to the Japanese in the first week of May 1942. Col. Howard burned the regimental colors and wept, "My God, and I had to be the first Marine officer ever to surrender a regiment." Thousands of Americans and Filipinos participated in the Death March and became prisoners of war from which many of them died. The war in the Pacific had reached its lowest point with the loss of the Philippines.

Midway

On December 7, the Japanese shelled Midway's airbase in an effort to provide cover for their return from Pearl Harbor. First Lt. George Cannon, who refused to be evacuated despite being severely wounded, was the first Marine in World War II to be awarded the Medal of Honor. During the next three weeks, Midway was reinforced in anticipation of a Japanese return. In May of 1942, because the U.S. had broken the Japanese code, the attempt to capture Midway and destroy the American fleet was known to Adm. Chester Nimitiz. More than 100 Marine, Army, and Navy planes were in place by the end of May. Some of these planes were already **obsolete**.

The Battle of Midway began on June 4, 1942. Early that morning, word was received that the Japanese planes were approaching the island. At 6:30 a.m., the American planes engaged 108 Japanese aircraft. Japanese carrier planes struck the island and left the island heavily damaged; fuel tanks were set on fire, a hanger destroyed, and the powerhouse hit. The planes from Midway were unable to inflict any damage on the Japanese

carriers despite three attempts. Nearly all of these planes were out of commission.

However, by 8:30 a.m. the U.S. fleet had arrived. The carriers *Enterprise* and *Yorktown* took advantage of the Japanese carrier planes' refueling and rearming activity and sent three of their carriers to the bottom of the Pacific. That evening a fourth joined them. The U.S. lost the *Yorktown* and 98 carrier planes. Forty-nine Marines were killed. The Battle of Midway became the first major victory against the Japanese and ended their last offensive in the Pacific. The Japanese lost 322 planes. Marine Captain Richard Fleming was awarded the Medal of Honor after he dove his flaming bomber into a Japanese cruiser to cripple it enough to be easily finished off by U.S. Navy planes. The Japanese suffered enough damage that the U.S. was now able to go on the offensive.

Carlson's Raiders

President Roosevelt authorized the formation of two raider battalions, one under the leadership of Lt. Col. Merritt Edson and one headed by **Lt. Col. Evans Carlson**. The purpose of these groups was to lead amphibious landings, practice guerilla warfare tactics, and make hit-and-run raids on the enemy. The Raiders were specially selected and highly skilled. About half of Carlson's battalion was sent to Guadalcanal. The other half was sent to make a raid on Makin Atoll to divert attention from Guadalcanal.

The Raiders were brought to Makin by submarine and rubber boat. The Japanese garrison was small, but they spread out their machine guns and sniped at the Marines from trees. **Sgt. Clyde Thomason** became one of the first enlisted Marines and only man on Makin to be awarded a Medal of Honor for single-handedly wiping out a Japanese attack before being killed by a sniper. While the Japanese were forced off the atoll temporarily, it was obvious that the raid did not go smoothly. There were 21 Marine dead and nine Raiders were left behind because of the confusion. When the Japanese returned, they eventually captured and beheaded the nine Raiders. On the other hand, 86 of the enemy were killed. Enemy weapons and installations were captured and destroyed. Realizing their vulnerability, the Japanese more heavily fortified their garrisons in the Gilbert Islands.
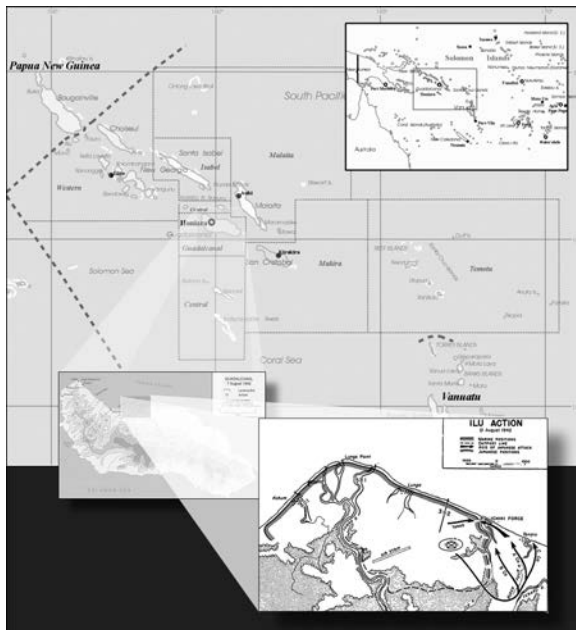
Guadalcanal

Invasion

A sixth-month battle that was rich in heroes, **Guadalcanal** was the first offensive battle against the Japanese. The invasion of Guadalcanal, a volcanic island covered with hot, steamy jungles, was also an invasion of Sealark Channel, Florida Island, and Tulagi. Guadalcanal was the biggest of the islands at 90 miles long and 25 miles wide.

The first issue facing the planning of this battle was who was to be in charge. The Army wanted Gen. Douglas MacArthur to handle the operations because Guadalcanal was in his theater of activity, but the Navy insisted on Admiral Chester Nimitz. Because the Navy would supply the men, ships, and planes, the Joint Chiefs of Staff rearranged MacArthur's area of authority and gave responsibility for the attack to Nimitz.

The attack date was first set for August 1, 1942, and then pushed back a week. Maj. Gen. Alexander Vandergrift wanted more time, but it was discovered that the Japanese were building an airport. The airport was important because whoever controlled it would be better able to repel an invader. An additional problem was that

no one in the armed forces was familiar with Guadalcanal. The information about the island came from colonial officials, traders, planters, missionaries, and anyone else who knew anything about Guadalcanal or Tulagi. Based on reports from the Australians, the Marines expected to find 1,500 Japanese on Tulagi and 2,300 on Guadalcanal.

By around 9:00 a.m. 11,000 Marines had made it safely to the beach at Guadalcanal on August 7, 1942. The landing area was three miles east of Lunga Point just south of the airfield. While the landing went smoothly, the distribution and collection of supplies did not. That same morning four other landing parties met varying degrees of opposition at Sealark Channel, Tulagi, Florida Island, and two islets named Gavutu-Tanambogo.

Henderson Airfield

The Guadalcanal troops headed for the airfield. The Marines were able to force the enemy out of their strong point at Lunga Point and take over the airport by late afternoon. They renamed the airfield Henderson Field after the Marine Major killed at Midway. Using Japanese equipment, they finished the airstrip by August 12. On August 20, the first American planes arrived.

Because the Japanese controlled the air and sea in the area, Vice Adm. Fletcher withdrew his carriers and started south. The Marines on Guadalcanal were left with no carrier support, 37 days of food supplies, and 4 days worth of ammunition. The Japanese began a steady attack on the island and airfield using highflying bombers out of reach of Marine weapons.

On August 21, the Japanese landed a counter attack to try to regain the airfield. Called the Battle of Tenaru, the Marines fired their machine guns at the attacking Japanese who

fought with knives, bayonets, and rifle butts. By morning of the next day, there were 800 dead Japanese and 15 prisoners. Their commander burned his flag and committed suicide by putting a bullet into his head.

> On September 3, Brig. Gen. Roy Geiger became the ComAirCactus flying out of Henderson Field. Cactus was the code name for Guadalcanal. Among his flyers was Capt. Joe Foss. Foss brought down his first Japanese plane at Guadalcanal and ended the war with the second most kills with 26 to his credit. Marine fighter tactics called for them to come down from 25-30,000 feet onto the backs of the Japanese planes and to take them out. The **Cactus Air Force** shot down 268 Japanese aircraft between September 3 and November 4. Geiger was awarded his 2nd Navy Cross.

Edson's Ridge

To strengthen the area around the airstrip, before dawn on September 8, **Lt. Col. Merritt Edson** and 700 of his Raiders made an amphibious raid 18 miles east of Lunga Point. The Raiders attacked and the Japanese ran. Edson destroyed their supply dump and threw their weapons into the sea. Edson estimated that 4,000 Japanese had been in the area planning to recapture the airstrip. Edson was convinced that the Japanese would attack from the highest ground, so he ordered his men to dig in at what became known as **Edson's Ridge**. And, attack they did, over and over again. The Japanese moved forward and were pushed back. At one point, it looked like they were going to break through and take over the airport, but the Marines held. By morning, the Cactus Air Force rose to

bomb and strafe the Japanese as they retreated. At the battle of Edson's Ridge, 40 Marines died and 108 were wounded.

> On October 24 during a heavy rainstorm, the Japanese attacked a spot called Coffin Corner. Lt. Col. Puller ordered the Marines to hold the area with bayonets if they ran out of ammunition. The enemy charged, fell back, and charged again, repeatedly. **Sgt. John Basilone** shot so many of the Japanese with his machine gun, that piled up bodies had to be pushed aside to open his line of fire. When a group of Japanese seized a mortar position, Basilone single-handedly snuck up on the Japanese and fired on the enemy. When ammunition ran low, he fought through the Japanese to get more. In recommending Basilone for a Medal of Honor, Puller said he had, "contributed materially to the defeat and virtually annihilation of a Japanese regiment."

Reinforcements

The Japanese were as committed to retaking Henderson Airfield as the U.S. was to keeping it in American hands. By mid-October, both the Japanese and the Americans had nearly 20,000 men on the island. Casualties included 800 wounded whom they evacuated, and more than 1,900 hospitalized with **malaria**. The Japanese continued to bomb the airfield, destroying planes and blowing up fuel supplies. While more than 3,000 U.S. reinforcements showed up on October 13, the Japanese also landed 3,000 more troops on October 14. The Japanese bombing was so effective that the Navy was asked to take control of the sea around Guadalcanal.

Winning Guadalcanal

Guadalcanal was so important that in spite of the difficulty in fighting the Germans in Europe, President Roosevelt sent a message to the Joint Chiefs of Staff saying to send every possible weapon to the tiny island. Troop strength increased to 50,000 and the number of planes at Henderson was greatly increased.

The reinforcements of men and material prevented the Japanese from adding to their troops. In fact, the Japanese pulled a remarkable feat by evacuating 12,000 wounded and sick soldiers on February 7, 1943. The battle for Guadalcanal took six months to win. Roosevelt called it the turning point of the war. However, it was not won without a price.

Guadalcanal's Grim Statistics

Japanese

- 25,000 dead
- 1,000 prisoners
- 600 planes lost
- 24 fighting ships lost

United States

- 24 fighting ships lost
- 1,598 U.S. killed/4,709 wounded
- 1,152 Marines dead/2,799 wounded
- 8,580 cases of malaria
- 55 Marine air planes lost/85 missing

## Conclusion

The year 1942 ended with the victory at Guadalcanal. That victory could not have been predicted at the start of the year with the losses at Pearl Harbor, Guam, and the Philippines. But Midway established a solid defense, and Guadalcanal was a turning point. The United States was now on the offensive. The next three years would be costly, but filled with acts of courage and heroism.❖

1943

PURPOSE

In 1943, the Allied strategy experts decided that the defeat of Japan would require a two-pronged attack. One force, lead by General Douglas MacArthur, would go through New Guinea and the Philippines. The other, lead by Admiral Chester Nimitz, would skip through the Central Pacific islands by way of the Marshall and Marianas Islands. The Marines would be involved in both efforts. This lesson explores the first part of that plan – the taking of the rest of the Solomon Islands and the first attack in the Central Pacific.
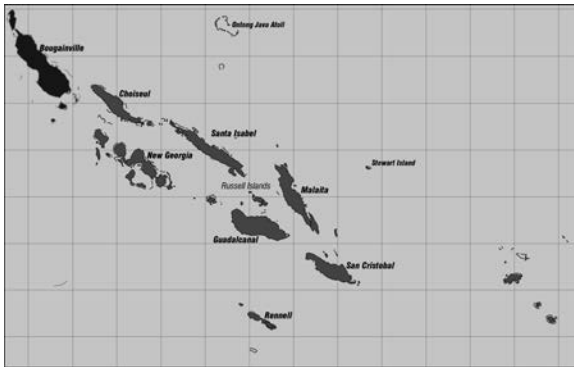
Introduction

The two-pronged attack was to begin at Henderson Airfield in Guadalcanal – 565 air miles from **Rabaul** – and at Port Moresby in New Guinea – 445 miles from Rabaul. Rabaul was the huge Japanese base on the eastern end of New Britain Island that provided them with planes and ships. Neutralizing Rabaul would allow the two-pronged attack to move forward. The hard fought success at Guadalcanal was the first step in capturing the Solomon Islands chain. In February of 1943, the Russell Islands were captured without much opposition. The rest of the campaign in the Solomon Islands and in the Gilbert Islands would prove more costly.

New Georgia

The next step in the continuation of the Solomon Islands campaign was the capture of the Japanese airbase at Munda Point at the northern end of New Georgia Island. The strategy called for several complicated amphibious landings. It would require 30,000 troops and several weeks of fighting. One landing took place at the southern end of the island where after four days of fighting in the swamps and rivers the Japanese were finally defeated.

The main landings took place on June 30. Colonel "Harry the Horse" Liversedge, a former Olympic shot-putter, led 2,600 men southwest from his base across the lagoon from Munda Point. The battles were nip and tuck as first the Marines pushed forward, and then were driven back. One of the objectives on the way to Munda was Bairoko Harbor, the main route to Munda. Liversedge used up all but 933 of his troops in his effort to capture it. With the help of the Army, Munda Point was finally secured on August 5.

A good part of the credit to the ultimate success of the work at New Guinea must go to the arrival of the VMF-124 and the Vought Corsair F4Us. These planes had twice the range and much greater speed than the Japanese fighters. American planes shot down 101 Japanese aircraft of the 130 encountered on June 30. In total, the Japanese lost 358 planes trying to hold Munda.

By the last quarter of 1943, Marines were involved in three important campaigns, **Cape Gloucester** on New Britain, **Tarawa** in the Gilbert Islands, and **Bougainville**, the final objective in the Solomons.

A hero of the air campaign to capture Rabaul, **Major Gregory Boyington** was called Pappy because at 31, he was considered an old-timer. Beginning in September, Boyington lead a squadron known as the Black Sheep. His squad downed 57 planes in one month. Boyington earned a Medal of Honor for his 28 kills over Rabaul and China before Japanese shot him down and captured him on January 3, 1944.

NATIONAL ARCHIVES

Bougainville

Bougainville was the last stop in the effort to bring Rabaul into fighter range. The strategists determined that the way to capture Bougainville was by deceiving the Japanese into thinking that the attack was really going to be focused on **Choiseul** Island. When the Japanese committed reinforcements to Choiseul, the attack on Bougainville would begin. D-Day was set for November 1.

Choiseul

Lt. Col. Victor "Brute" Krulak and his 656 men led the attack on Choiseul on October 28. Krulak landed and then marched toward the enemy's base. When they encountered a Japanese patrol, they allowed three soldiers to escape and carry the word back to the enemy commanders. They then proceeded to attack the enemy base. The **ruse** worked as the Japanese poured in reinforcements from Bougainville. Krulak was wounded in the skirmish that followed, and on November 4, PT boats withdrew him and his men from the island. Lt. John Kennedy, who later became President of the United States, commanded one of the boats.

Cape Torokina

Intelligence indicated that the area near Bougainville with the fewest number of Japanese defenders was **Cape Torokina**. The strategy to attack at that point involved landing troops at a very difficult location. The beaches were narrow and swamps, lagoons, and deep jungle bordered them. On November 1, Marines landed on 12 beaches from Cape Torokina north. Enemy fire and rough surf wrecked or sank nearly 90 landing craft. When the Marines reached the beach, they found that the Japanese had set up a defense perimeter of solid log and sand bunkers. Enemy planes strafed the narrow beaches. In spite of machine gun, mortar, and rifle fire, the Marines knocked out 25 of these bunkers and got 14,000 men ashore.

The Marines established a beachhead with the idea in mind of building their own airstrip and expanding the **perimeter**. The Japanese counterattacked over and over again. Because of superior firepower, the Marines were able to hold off these attacks and by November 9, the area was secure. When the Army's troops arrived to take

over the northern half of the perimeter, there were nearly 34,000 Americans on the island. However, the Japanese had been able to secure the site selected for the airfield. The Marines set about to capture several high ground areas including what came to be called Cibik Ridge, Grenade Hill, and Hellzapoppin Ridge. More than 400 Marines were killed in the effort to take Bougainville. The airbase provided the air power to fly the 210 miles to Rabaul. By the end of January 1944, the Japanese had lost nearly 400 planes and moved the rest of their planes out of Rabaul.

Tarawa

The plan to retake the Central Pacific began in the Gilbert Islands, moved on to the Marshalls, the Marianas, and the Carolinas. The Gilbert Islands were important to the approach the Marshall Islands and Truk where the Japanese were firmly in control. Truk (now called Chuuk) is one of the states in a country that is today known as the Federated States of Micronesia. The first objective in the Central Pacific was the **atoll** in the Gilbert Islands known as Tarawa. An atoll is a ring-like coral island that almost completely surrounds a lagoon. Tarawa included many small islands defended by the Japanese.

The first step in capturing Tarawa was taking the heavily fortified island of Betio. Betio was only two miles long and a half-mile wide. It mainly consisted of a three-strip airfield. Betio was defended by 5,000 Japanese naval troops who fired hundreds of guns at the attacking Marines. The landing was made more difficult by man-made fortifications built by the Japanese and the natural coral reef that encircled the island.

The invasion of Betio began on November 20. Even though American warships bombarded the island and American planes strafed the beaches, the shelling had little effect. Japanese shore batteries fired at the Marines attempting to land. Moreover, the Landing Craft Vehicle Personnel (**LCVP**) that carried the Marines could not get closer than a few hundred yards from the beach. The Marines were easy targets as they waded ashore. Some drowned attempting to make it to the beach. Despite heavy casualties, the island was secured by November 23. **Colonel David Shoup**, who commanded the 2nd Marines, sent a message on the second day, "Casualties: many. Percentage dead: unknown. Combat efficiency: we are winning."

Once Betio Island was captured, the rest of the islands in the Tarawa atoll were more easily taken. Betio Island has been so heavily fortified that the Japanese commander boasted that it would take a million Americans 100 years to conquer it. It took the Marines slightly longer than three days. The cost, however, included 1,100 dead and 2,300 wounded. The Japanese lost about 4,500 of their troops, including many who refused to surrender and either fought to the death or committed suicide. Colonel Shoup, who later became a Commandant of the Marines, was wounded and won the Medal of Honor, as did three others.

The battle of Tarawa was unique; for the first time in history, an assault from the sea was launched against a heavily defended atoll, and

assault amphibious vehicles had been used to make the assault landing. Coral was difficult to cross. Landing craft could not make it, but amphibian tractors could. The operation demonstrated the soundness of the existing Marine Corps practices, but it also brought to light other areas that required improvement for future operations. More Marines were needed to take the island; using land artillery from the adjoining island may have saved Marine lives; and the water was too shallow for LCVPs; more tractors were needed. Because of these lessons learned, Tarawa was probably more important than other operations for which it paved the way.

Cape Gloucester

As General MacArthur planned his moves along the New Guinea coast, he felt taking Cape Gloucester was necessary to protect his troops from the rear. Located on the western end of New Britain Island, Cape Gloucester was 350 miles away from Rabaul through the jungle.

On the morning of December 26, 1943, the Marines landed at Cape Gloucester. The Marines landed unopposed, but soon were engaged by the Japanese. After a week of hard fighting, the Cape Gloucester airfield was taken. It took another four months of hard fighting to secure a third of New Britain. By that time, MacArthur's flank was secure, and he could proceed toward the Philippines.

Conclusion

By the end of 1943, the Marines had accomplished a great deal at a great cost. They had neutralized Rabaul, the important supply post for the Japanese. They had established air superiority. They improved on their amphibious landing techniques. They had also learned that victories over the Japanese would be hard fought and would come at great costs. The suicidal **banzai charge** demonstrated that the Japanese would not quit fighting easily. The trek through the Central Pacific to the mainland of Japan would prove to be extremely demanding on both skill and will.❖

1944

PURPOSE

With the capture of Tarawa, the Gilbert Islands were soon under control. Securing the Gilbert Islands meant that the Marines could focus on the Marshalls, the Marianas, and the Palau Islands. These island groups were important; they paved the way for the bombing and invasion of Japan.

Introduction

After the success in the Gilbert Islands, the Navy next turned its attention to the **Marshalls**. The Japanese first seized the Marshall Islands in 1914. While the Marshalls cover 700 square miles of ocean, there are only 70 square miles of land. Most of the land is in the form of 34 **atolls**, of which the largest in the world is Kwajalein. The next action would take place in the **Marianas**, only 1,500 miles from Japan. The Marianas were important as air bases to attack mainland Japan with bombing raids by B-29s, and as a launching point for the move toward the Philippines and eventually Japan itself. In the Marianas, there were three main islands, **Saipan**, **Tinian**, and **Guam**. The **Palau Islands** would be the next island chain to receive U.S. attention. Located halfway between the Marianas and the Philippines, controlling Pelau would mean having excellent bomber range for attacking the Philippines.

Map of Marshall Islands
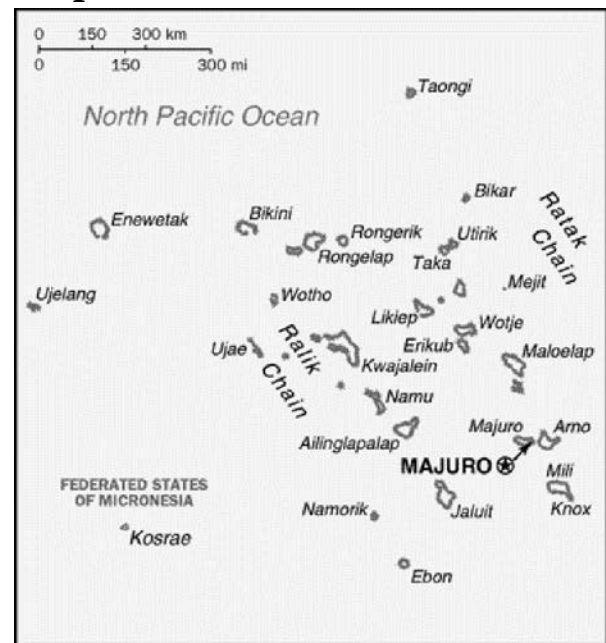
Source: The World Factbook 1998

The Marshalls

Roi and Namur

Kwajalein atoll was the Army's responsibility. At the northern end of the Kwajalein atoll were the twin islands of Roi and Namur; these were for the Marines to take. A causeway connected Roi and Namur. Roi served primarily as an airbase. There was little, if any vegetation. Namur had most of the supply installations and a great deal more vegetation.

Intelligence indicated that more than 3,000 Japanese defended Roi-Namur. An atoll, or ring-shaped coral island surrounding a **lagoon**, allowed landings to take place from the ocean or the lagoon. As in Tarawa, the Marines landed from the lagoon. This time, the lessons of Tarawa

were used. Naval gunfire was used to bombard the islands. Smaller, less defended islands nearby, were taken first so that they could be used as artillery sites. Navy Underwater Demolition Teams swam in and checked the beaches before the attack. Heavily armed armored vehicles escorted LVTs that carried troops.

Roi was taken easily on February 1, 1944. The bombing had been very effective and resistance was light. Namur required more of an effort. The Japanese had dug anti-tank ditches that prevented the Marines' amtracs from moving in. By nightfall, the Marines had secured about 2/3 of Namur. That night the Japanese attacked, but they were easily held off. The next day, the Marines moved forward supported by tanks. By nightfall on February 2, Roi and Namur were both under control. Naval gunfire and the Marines killed more than 3,500 Japanese. The Marines lost 313.

> On February 17, the Fifth Fleet sent a swarm of warplanes against the Japanese base of Truk. Truk was considered so well defended that it was called the Gibraltar of the Pacific. In two days, Navy pilots hit more than 200 of 365 planes and destroyed 40 naval and merchant ships. The successful attack prevented the Japanese from offering effective air opposition in the Central Pacific.

Eniwetok

Eniwetok atoll, the next objective, was a joint effort between the Army and the Marines. It included 40 islands with a lagoon that was 21 miles by 17 miles. The Marines, under Brig. Gen. Thomas (Terrible Tommy) Watson, were to take Engebi, one of three islands in the atoll. Engebi

contained the airfield; the other two islands were Eniwetok Island and Parry Island. The procedure was the same. Under naval gunfire, amphibian tractors made it ashore to small islands near Engebi where they put artillery in place. By 9 o'clock on the morning of February 18, the Marines landed and within 24 hours, secured the island. During the night, the Japanese used a new strategy and hid in tunnels made of buried oil drums laid end to end.

February 19 marked the day that the Army was to land on Eniwetok Island. They found the going a bit tougher, and the Marines were brought in to help secure the island. It took two days of heavy fighting. On February 22, the Marines went on to capture Parry Island.

Even though there were four more large Japanese bases in the Marshalls, they were now cut off from reinforcement and could be made useless to the Japanese by constant air attacks flying out of Roi and Majuro, also under U.S. control. The effect of the bombing and isolation was brought to light after the war, when it was discovered that 7,400 Japanese had died on the four atolls before the war was over. The Japanese had expected to delay American progress in the Pacific, but the swiftness of the taking of the Marshalls allowed the U.S. to move into the Marianas sooner than expected.

> June 6, 1944, was D-Day for the invasion of Europe. Allied forces landed on the beaches of Normandy. Lead by General Dwight D. Eisenhower, the Allies began to take back France, Belgium, and other countries from Germany. A year later, the war in Europe was over.

The Marianas

The Joint Chiefs of Staff now determined that bombing Japan from China was no longer an option. MacArthur was ordered to invade the Philippines by mid-November. Admiral Nimitz was expected to invade the Marianas by June 15 and then move on to the Palau Islands to protect MacArthur's flank. The invasion of the Marianas was important because these islands were not to be used as support for the fleet or as advanced naval bases. They were to be used to begin offensive bombing of Japan itself. Saipan, Tinian, and Guam were the next three sites for the Marines. The Emperor of Japan sent the following message: "Although the frontline officers and troops are fighting splendidly, if Saipan is lost, air raids on Tokyo will take place often; therefore, you will hold Saipan." It was clear to both sides that the stakes were high. The Japanese had 32,000 troops to defend the island, more than U.S. intelligence anticipated.

The Marine invasion force, under the leadership of **Lt. Gen. Holland Smith**, now reached a total of 136,000 men, the greatest number to operate in the field under Marine command up to that date.

Saipan

On June 15, eight veteran battalions of Marines invaded a beach on the southern half of Saipan's west coast. The front was almost four miles long. However, the Naval gunfire and carrier plane strafing of the beaches was not effective. In 20 minutes, 8,000 Marines landed on the beach and came in under heavy fire. Casualties were great. By sunset, 20,000 Marines were on Saipan, but they had only gathered half of the territory planned. In addition, 2,000 men were dead or wounded.

The Japanese counterattacked during the first night. The Marines were able to hold the ground that they had taken, but gaining territory was difficult. The Japanese continued to hold the high ground. By June 18, 78,000 Americans were on shore.

At this point, the U.S. Navy entered into the Battle of the Philippine Sea. Vice Admiral Marc Mitscher's **Task Force 58** destroyed enemy planes on Guam early on June 19. A bit later, Japanese carriers made four air attacks against the American fleet just west of the Marianas. In two days, American fliers shot down 476 Japanese planes and wiped out three carriers in "the Great Marianas Turkey Shoot." The U.S. lost 50 planes. Task Force 58 did not destroy the Japanese fleet, but it demonstrated that the U.S. had mastery of both the air and the sea making victory in the Marianas foreseeable.

The Japanese were sealed off, but they refused to quit. It was now time to begin phase two of the Saipan invasion. On one side, the Marines took the 1,000+ foot high Mt. Tipo Pale.

In the center of the island, Marines moved on Mt. Tapotchau, an extinct volcano. On the right, Marines fought along Magicienne Bay. The line of resistance consisted of 1,500 Japanese. On June 25, Mt. Tapotchau was taken. The fighting was intense and often hand-to-hand. By June 30, the central part of Saipan was under U.S. control.

Lt. Gen. Saito, the Japanese army commander, seeing the way the battle was going, ordered a final banzai attack and committed **hara-kiri** (suicide). Vice Adm. Nagumo, who led the raid on Pearl Harbor, also killed himself. On July 7, approximately 3,000 Japanese carried out a suicidal mission. The Japanese successfully pushed back the Marines, but a counterattack retook the lost ground. The Marines had suffered nearly 1,000 casualties.

On July 9, the northern coast of Saipan had been reached, and the island was secure. Many Japanese civilians on the island leaped to their deaths off the cliffs. Nine thousand others were detained. The 3½-week fight for control of Saipan cost the Americans 3,426 dead and 13,099 wounded. For the Japanese the numbers were an astounding 32,800 dead. General Holland Smith felt that the battle for Saipan was the decisive battle of the Pacific offensive. When the loss was announced in Japan, the premier, Gen. Hideki Tojo, resigned. Later that fall, B-29s rose from Saipan to bomb Tokyo.

Tinian

Saipan is north of Tinian and only about 2½ miles away. Tinian is much flatter than Saipan. It was primarily used to grow sugar cane. Tinian would be a perfect place to develop the long runways needed for B-29 bombers. The problem with Tinian was that there were nearly 9,000 Japanese defenders on it.

By July 15, all of the artillery on Saipan had been moved to the south of the island where it could support the invasion of Tinian. Naval gunfire and air support would also be available. On the morning of July 24, the Marines landed in two northern locations. Initial opposition was fairly light. The Japanese began their counterattack that afternoon, but the Marines had developed a solid position. The fighting continued into the next week with the Marines gaining more and more ground. Finally on August 1, Americans reached the southern coast, and it was announced that organized resistance had ceased. Again, many of the Japanese committed suicide. The total Japanese dead reached 6,000 in their defense of Tinian. The Marines had approximately 300 dead.

Guam

Guam is 225 square miles of rugged, volcanic terrain fringed with coral. The landing date was set for July 21, 1944. For 13 days prior to the invasion, Guam was bombed repeatedly from the air and from the sea. As a result, the enemy's defenses were considerably weakened, and the ability of the Japanese to strike back at the Marines was greatly reduced.

Nevertheless, the enemy was still capable of massive resistance because the Japanese were defensively well placed. It took five days of hard fighting before the Marines were able to gain the high ground overlooking the beaches. In the southern part of the island, the Marines were able to secure a foothold on D-Day. The Army took over on July 25. The next day, both northern and southern American forces were counterattacked. It is believed that Japanese soldiers, under the influence of sake, charged the Americans at Orote Point in a deliberate suicide attack. Farther inland, at Fonte Hill, Company F under the command of **Captain Louis Wilson** were hardest hit by the enemy's attack. Even though he was wounded

three times, Captain Wilson refused to be evacuated until he toured his perimeter to ensure that it was solidified for the company defense. A future Commandant, Wilson received the Congressional Medal of Honor for his heroism.

After three weeks of almost nonstop fighting, the Japanese were pushed to the northern cliffs. On August 10, 1944, Guam was secure. More than 17,300 Japanese were killed. Interestingly, some of the Japanese were so well hidden in the caves on the island, that they were not found until years after the war had ended. In fact, the last to surrender was in 1972, nearly 30 years after the war's end. The securing of Guam completed the conquest of the Marianas.

Palau Islands

Plans to capture and occupy the Palaus were made in March of 1944 with a September 15, 1944, implementation date. The Palau Islands were an important part of the Japanese defense line. General Douglas MacArthur felt they were important to the retaking of the Philippines as well. Capturing Palau would protect the army's flank.

The main objective was **Pelieliu**. The island was considered a fortress and was defended by 10,000 Japanese. In the center of Pelieliu there was a long steep ridge that was filled with caves. A new defensive strategy followed Saipan and replaced the idea of attacking the landing force on the beaches. It allowed the Japanese a great deal of time to inflict serious damage to U.S. troops. Part of the new strategy included mined beaches, underwater obstacles, antitank ditches, and a well-stocked network of caves and tunnels. The Japanese used the caves very effectively as defensive positions. They intended to fight to the death.

There were eight Medals of Honor earned by Marines on Pelieliu. Six of them were awarded to men who covered grenades with their bodies to save their fellow soldiers.

Major General William Rupertus developed the strategy for taking Pelieliu. The first step was to establish a beachhead in the southern part of the island. It took five days of heavy fighting to capture all of the southern part of Pelieliu. Since the Japanese were concentrated in the heavily fortified center, a second beachhead was established in the northern part of the island. In this way, the enemy was choked off without support or reinforcements. By October 16 the Army replaced the Marines.

Conclusion

Once the Central Pacific islands were secure, the retaking of the Philippines became the focus of the U.S. Army under General Douglas MacArthur. Moreover, once the Philippines appeared secure, planning could begin for the next big push to invade the mainland of the Empire of Japan. Each step pushed the Japanese farther back, demonstrated they were not invulnerable and were becoming weaker and weaker. Each step provided the U.S. with more confidence. Each step proved that the victory for the U.S. over Japan was inevitable. Three giant steps along the way were the Marshalls, the Marianas, and the Palau Islands. ❖

1945

PURPOSE

*After the Philippine campaign was underway, and the Japanese lost the Battle of Leyte Gulf, the Allies felt it was time to move another step toward the Japanese homeland. Two islands of importance stood between Allied territory and Japan – **Iwo Jima** and **Okinawa**. Capturing these islands was the next strategic step for the United States. This lesson explores the battles for these two vital islands and the decision to drop the atomic bomb on Japan.*

Introduction

In addition to moving the U.S. 600 miles closer to Japan, capturing Iwo Jima and Okinawa would permit fighter escorts to accompany bombers over targets in Japan. Another important gain would be the elimination of Japanese bomber attacks against the Marianas that began at the airbase on Iwo Jima.

Iwo Jima

Iwo Jima means Sulfur Island, and the place literally stinks of sulfur, it smells like rotten eggs. The island itself is shaped like a pork chop. It is five miles long and two miles wide. To the south is Mt. Suribachi, an extinct volcano that has an elevation of 556 feet. In the center of the island is flat land on which the Japanese constructed two airfields. To the north, Iwo Jima has gorges and ravines that end in long drops to the coast. The cliffs and ridges were filled with caves in which the Japanese had placed guns and 11 miles of tunnels. Everyone expected Iwo Jima to be the toughest island to take so far; they were right.

Lt. General Tadamichi Kuribayashi was the Japanese commander at Iwo Jima. He posted a set of "Courageous Battle Vows" in the **pillboxes** set up to defend the island against invasion. One of the vows stated, "Each man will make it his duty to kill ten of the enemy before dying." There were 23,000 defenders on Iwo Jima.

Iwo Jima is 700 miles from the Marianas and a little more than 650 miles from Tokyo. It could provide an emergency landing field for B-29s firebombing Tokyo and a base for shorter-range fighters serving as escorts for the bombers

Major General Harry Schmidt commanded the 3rd, 4th, and 5th Marine Divisions who were given the assignment of taking Iwo Jima. Schmidt's plan was to land on the southeastern beaches where two divisions would attack, with one held in floating reserve. Schmidt's plan was simple. Take the airfields as quickly as

possible; take Mt. Suribachi to the south; and then combine all of the forces and march north. The invasion began on February 19, 1945, after three days of pre-invasion gunfire instead of the requested ten.

D-Day was not what was expected. The Marines landed 30,000 troops but saw few of the enemy. The Japanese had learned a lesson from the landings at Saipan and Peleliu. There were no banzai attacks against the Marines. Instead, Kuribayashi used artillery and mortar shells to create chaos on the beachhead. They hid gun placements in the northern caves and strategically placed pillboxes. Pillboxes were low roofed concrete emplacements specially designed for machine guns or anti-tank weapons. They enabled the Japanese to kill many Marines with few casualties to themselves.

Two days later, the Marines managed to reach the base of Mt. Suribachi. Slowly the Marines were able to move to the summit, only yards at a time. By evening of that day, the Marines were able to form a semicircle around Suribachi and by the third day, the little mountain was surrounded. When they finally reached the summit, they found it deserted. They were able to plant a small U.S. flag at the top. The next day the small flag was replaced by a much larger one. The photograph of the Marines raising the flag became the inspiration for the fighting spirit that symbolized the Marines. After the war, the famous Iwo Jima Memorial at Arlington Cemetery was constructed based on this flag. Of the six men who planted the flag, three were killed at Iwo Jima and two others wounded.

Meanwhile, in spite of heavy artillery fire from the north, the Marines were able to take the first airfield by February 20. One third of the island was now under control. The next day the second airfield was taken. Each night mortar and artillery fire continued to hit the Marines. In the Battle of Leyte Gulf, Japanese planes deliberately crashed into the American fleet. Fifty of these flyers, called **kamikazes**, now attacked the ships in the waters of Iwo Jima damaging an aircraft carrier and sinking an escort carrier. After six days of battle, the Marines had nearly 8,000 casualties.

The second phase of the battle to capture Iwo Jima began with Marines who had taken Suribachi joining the effort to reach the northeastern coast of the island. The Japanese defenses were centered in this area and the going became extremely difficult. Using flamethrowers and explosives, one by one the caves were cleaned out. It took until the end of March to completely secure the island when the last of the caves was sealed. General Kuribayashi's body was never found. When all was said and done, the Marines had suffered 25,000 casualties, nearly 6,000 killed.

Admiral Chester Nimitz was quoted as saying that on Iwo Jima, "Uncommon valor was a common virtue." The two examples that follow are only representative of the many heroic acts on the island.

Pfc. Jacklyn Lucas and three other Marines were ambushed in a ravine. Two grenades

landed among them. Lucas, jumped over the other men, landed on one grenade and pulled the other one under him. He protected his comrades from injury at the cost of his life. At 17 years and 6 days of age, Lucas became the youngest Marine to ever be awarded a Medal of Honor.

Lt. Jack Lummus, an All-America football player, led E Company's assault on a final jumble of rocks on the northeastern section of the island. A grenade explosion knocked him down. He got to his feet and rushed the gun placement. A second grenade shattered his shoulder, but he continued his attack on the pillbox and killed all inside. He then gathered his platoon and "wiped out" another position. A land mine blew off both of his legs, but he still urged his men to attack. Later that day, Lummus died from his injuries and was awarded the Medal of Honor.

Okinawa

Okinawa Island is about sixty miles long and two to eighteen miles wide. The northern part of the island is mountainous and the southern part is more open, but hilly with several ridges cutting from west to east. Unlike the other islands in the South and Central Pacific, Okinawa had 500,000 native Okinawans living mostly on the southern part of the island. Many were farmers. Japan had ruled the island for nearly 70 years.

At the time, no one knew that the battle for Okinawa would be the last big Marine battle of the war. At the time, it was expected that Okinawa, just 350 miles from the heart of Japan, would be defended to the last man. The island was considered important as a final step in the campaign to invade Japan. The engagement joined both MacArthur's and Nimitz's campaigns, and at one point, totaled 548,000 American servicemen. The battle lasted 82 days, and surprisingly more members of the U.S. Navy died than soldiers or

Marines. This was because 1,900 kamikaze suicide planes sank 36 ships including 12 destroyers. Unbelievably, another 368 ships were damaged.

Unlike Iwo Jima, the battle to take Okinawa was assigned to the Tenth Army under the command of Lt. Gen. Simon Buckner, Jr. The assault forces included two divisions of Marines with another division held in reserve. Of the 182,000 men assigned to the 10th Army, 81,000 were Marines. Because of the destruction of so much of the Japanese air power in the Battle of Leyte Gulf, there was little resistance to the invasion. The Japanese had decided on a strategy to prolong the war. **Lt. Gen. Ushijima** commanded 100,000 troops. His plan was to concentrate his troops at the rocky southern end of the island and wait. He hoped to drag out the war and hinder the invasion of Japan. He hoped that the kamikazes would greatly damage or eliminate the U.S. Navy's ability to continue the invasion. Ushijima used the ridges effectively as defensive placements for mortars. The Japanese dug caves and tunnels to further strengthen their defense.

Because allies planned Iwo Jima at the same time and gave it the designation D-Day, the invasion of Okinawa was launched on L-Day, April 1, 1945. Kamikazes started hitting the invasion fleet on March 26. It took intense fighting for a month to capture the mountainous northern part of the island.

> On Okinawa, as they had throughout the war, Marines used Navajo Indians to talk over the telephone in their native language so the enemy could not intercept messages.

The fighting to the south was subject to great criticism because Gen. Buckner insisted on

attacking in a frontal assault against the strongest defensive areas of the Japanese. The result was little progress and many casualties. **Maj. Gen. Geiger** tried to persuade him to land the Marines behind the enemy, but Buckner would not allow it. The battle continued into May with both sides taking many casualties. The U.S. forces celebrated the end of the war in Europe on May 8 by having all ships and artillery fire at the enemy at noon.

On June 18, as Gen. Buckner watched the advance of Marine troops, he was mortally wounded by a Japanese shell. Admiral Nimitz immediately made Maj. Gen. Roy Geiger commander of the 10th Army. Geiger became the first Marine officer to command a field army. He was shortly replaced by Gen. Joseph Stillwell who led the 10th Army in its final days of the battle for Okinawa. Before Stillwell arrived, the Japanese were pushed into three small areas. June 21 was the final organized day of the campaign. Geiger, now a lieutenant general, announced Okinawa secured. The next day, Gen. Ushijima committed hara-kiri on a cliff.

By any standards, the cost in lives to secure Okinawa was great. The Americans counted 107,539 enemy dead. The 10th Army lost 7,613 killed or missing, and 31,807 wounded. The Marines counted 20,020 casualties of which 3,561 were battle deaths. It was clear that the Japanese had no intention of surrendering easily.

The End of the War

By the spring of 1945, American submarines were sinking most of Japan's merchant shipping and cutting off its essential supplies. U.S. bombers were striking Japan's cities daily, causing heavy destruction and great loss of life.

By April 7, the prime minister resigned. Adm. Kantaro Suzuki was his replacement. Suzuki wanted to find a way out of the war. Historian Samuel Eliot Morison said that Okinawa and all that followed until August 16 was unnecessary. The war continued because the military leaders who started it were looking for a way to save face.

Allies were making plans to invade the Japanese homeland. Expectations were that they would fight even more fiercely on their homeland than at Iwo Jima or Okinawa. The Japanese still had 11,000 planes, 5,000 of which were kamikazes. American Intelligence estimated that there were 1.5 millions soldiers prepared to defend Japan. They suspected that at the vary least, 100,000 Americans would be killed or wounded in an invasion of Japan. The invasion plans called for more than 850,000 American participants. The invasion was set for November 1.

President Harry S. Truman knew the price in lives of an invasion. He also knew that the **Manhattan Project** had developed a weapon so devastating that it could single-handedly end the war with no further loss of U.S. lives. The U.S. had secretly developed the atomic bomb. The effect of dropping the bomb would be horrendous, but no one really knew how terrible it would be. The first detonation of the bomb called Trinity took place on July 16, 1945, in New Mexico. Scientists were given no time to study the long-term effects of an atom bomb.

At the same time, the naval members of the Joint Chiefs of Staff predicted that sea and air

power would force Japan to surrender eventually. A blockaded Japan, they felt, would have to surrender to survive. An invasion was not necessary. That July, B-29s flew 1,200 bombing runs per week. B-24s also attacked from Okinawa.

At the Potsdam Conference, the U.S. the United Kingdom, and the Republic of China promised not to enslave the Japanese people if they surrendered, but Japan would have to disarm, agree to occupation, and give up its war-making power. Japan vowed to continue fighting. Truman also knew that the Soviet Union was going to join in the war against Japan.

On August 5, 1945, Truman made the decision to drop the atomic bomb on Hiroshima. On August 6, Col. Paul Tibbets piloted the B-29 Superfortress, Enola Gay, named for his mother. The atomic bomb, nicknamed Little Boy, which Tibbets and his crew carried, was dropped at 8:16 AM.

On August 9, the U.S. dropped a second bomb on Nagasaki. On August 10, the Japanese asked for peace on the same terms of the Potsdam declaration with the exception that Emperor Hirohito could stay on his throne. Truman agreed that Hirohito could stay but that he would be under the control of the Allies. On September 2 the formal surrender took place on board the battleship *Missouri.* Lt. Gen. Roy Geiger represented the Marines.

Conclusion

What were the effects of dropping the atomic bomb other than ending the war? Immediately after the atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima, 70,000 Japanese were instantly killed. In Nagasaki, 40,000 Japanese were instantly killed. Another 130,000 people were wounded. Thousands more died as a result of being exposed

to the radiation from the bomb. The bombs destroyed four square miles of Hiroshima and three square miles of Nagasaki. Thousands of buildings were completely destroyed.

Years later, many question the decision made by President Truman to drop the bomb. Did President Truman have other options? Was his decision in the best interests of American servicemen and women? Would Japan have continued to fight? What impact did the decision of the Soviet Union to join in the war against Japan have on Truman's decision? Did the dropping of the atomic bomb force the United States into the Cold War with the Soviet Union?

These are the questions that make the argument for and against dropping the atomic bomb. What is known about World War II is that this truly global conflict cost the U.S. the lives of 500,00 members of the armed forces of whom 24,000 were Marines. Japan lost 2,000,000 people to the war. ❖

Medals and Ribbons

PURPOSE

From its inception until the Marines departed from Vietnam in 1973, 293 Marines have received 300 Medals of Honor. Two Marines, Daniel J. Daly and Smedley D. Butler have earned the Medal of Honor for two separate acts of courage. During World War I, five Marines received both the Navy and Army Medals of Honor. Of the 293 Marines, 70 were officers and 223 enlisted men. Of this total, 120 died as a direct result of the action for which they were honored.

Marine Reservists have played an important part in our history. Three of the six Iwo Jima flag raisers were in the reserves. Of the 90 Marines that received the Medal of Honor during World War II, 50 were Marine Reservists. During the Korean War, reservists received 13 Medals of Honor, 50 Navy Crosses, and more than 400 Silver Stars.

This lesson explains the criteria for awarding the highest level of medals bestowed upon our "heroes," from the Bronze Star through the Medal of Honor. You will learn which medals are awarded for combat and which ones are for non-combat actions. You will learn how to distinguish one medal from another, and the order of **precedence** for these medals.

Why Medals and Ribbons?

Humans are competitive. Whether we are involved in **sibling** rivalries, individual or team sports, studying for a test, applying for a college, or a member of our nation's military service, we are constantly trying to outdo someone or something.

Why do we do this? What is in it for me? What do I get if we win? The reward can be as insignificant as getting to eat the last dinner roll, or as worthwhile as winning the Nobel Peace Prize. Athletes compete to win trophies, Olympic medals, large diamond-encrusted rings, lots of money, and instant recognition. Cadets may compete to see who can earn the highest grade on a test, to be the class valedictorian, or to be noticed by that special someone.

Military recognition comes in the form of a medal or ribbon. Marines may be awarded:

- Personal or unit decorations

- Commemorative, campaign, and service medals

- Markmanship badges and trophies

Introduction

The number of medals on an officer's breast varies in inverse proportion to the square of the distance of his duties from the front line.

Charles Edward Montague

We have all seen them, the enlisted men and women or officers in dress uniform with an impressive array of medals and ribbons. What did these individuals do to win their medals?

The medals you will learn about in this lesson can only be won for uncommon acts of valor or for significant service to our country's defense (personal decorations).

The Medal of Honor

The Medal of Honor, also referred to as the Congressional Medal of Honor, is the highest award that a Marine can receive. Legislation was introduced and approved by the Senate in December of 1861 to honor noncommissioned officers and privates that distinguish themselves during the Civil War. On March 3, 1863, an Act of Congress amended the law to include officers. In 1862, Marine **Corporal John F. Mackie** was aboard the *USS Galena* when Confederate shore batteries heavily damaged it as it approached Drewry's Bluff. Corporal Mackie rallied the survivors, carried off the dead and wounded, and got three of the *USS Galena's* guns back into action. For his actions, he became the first Marine to receive the Medal of Honor.

Criteria

The President, in the name of Congress, awards the Medal of Honor. A medal recipient must distinguish himself or herself conspicuously by gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his or her life above and beyond the call of duty while engaged in action against an enemy of the U.S.; while engaged in military operations involving conflict with an opposing foreign force; or while serving with friendly foreign forces engaged in an armed conflict against an opposing armed force in which the U.S. is not a belligerent party. The deed performed must have demonstrated personal bravery or self-sacrifice so conspicuous it clearly distinguishes the individual above his or her comrades and must have involved risk of life. Incontestable proof of the performance of the

service is exacted and each recommendation for the award of this decoration is considered on the standard of extraordinary merit.

Ribbon

The blue service ribbon is 1 3/8 inches wide with five white stars in the form of an "M."

Medal

The medal hangs by a neck ribbon 1 3/8 inches wide. A shield of the same blue color ribbon with thirteen white stars, arranged in the form of three chevrons, is above the medal. The current Navy Medal of Honor is a five-point bronze star, tipped with **trefoils** containing a crown of laurel and oak. In the center is Minerva, standing with left hand resting on **fasces** and right hand holding a shield from the United States coat of arms. The medal suspends from the flukes of an anchor.

The Navy Cross

An Act of Congress established the Navy Cross on February 4, 1919. The Navy Cross has been in effect since April 6, 1917. **Lieutenant General Lewis Burwell (Chesty) Puller** was the

only Marine to win the Navy Cross five times for heroism and gallantry in combat.

Criteria

The Navy Cross may be awarded to any person who, while serving with the Navy or Marine Corps, distinguishes himself or herself in action by extraordinary heroism not justifying an award of the Medal of Honor. The action must take place under one of three circumstances:

- While engaged in action against an enemy of the United States.

- While engaged in military operations involving conflict with an opposing foreign force.

- While serving with friendly foreign forces engaged in an armed conflict in which the United States is not a belligerent party.

To earn a Navy Cross, the individual must perform an act in the presence of great danger or at great personal risk. It must render the individual highly conspicuous among others of equal grade, rate, experience, or position of responsibility. Accumulating minor acts of heroism does not justify an award of the Navy Cross.

Ribbon

The ribbon is navy blue with a center stripe of white.

Medal

The medal is a modified cross **patée** 1 ½ inches wide (the ends of its arms are rounded, whereas a conventional cross patée has arms that are straight on the end). There are four laurel leaves with berries in each of the re-entrant arms of the cross. In the center of the cross, a sailing vessel, of the type used between 1480 and 1500, rests on waves.

The Defense Distinguished Service Medal

This is the highest peacetime Defense award. It is normally awarded to a most senior Marine officer, serving as Chairman or Vice Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, as a Chief or Vice Chief of the Services, or as a Commander or Deputy Commander of the Unified Commands. Recipients' duties bring them into direct contact with the Secretary of Defense and other senior officials.

Criteria

The Defense Distinguished Service Medal (DDSM) is awarded for exceptionally distinguished performance of duty contributing to national security or defense at the highest levels while assigned to a joint activity. Other senior officers, whereby their direct and individual contributions to national security or defense are exceptional in scope and value as to be equivalent to contributions normally associated with positions encompassing broader responsibilities, may also receive the award.

Ribbon

The ribbon is 1 3/8 inches wide with a narrow red center strip, flanked by equal width columns of gold and medium blue.

Medal

The medal is gold in color and on the **obverse** it features a medium blue enameled pentagon (point up). **Superimposed** on this, is an American bald eagle with outspread wings facing left and grasping three crossed arrows in its talons with a shield of the United States on its breast. The pentagon and eagle are enclosed within a gold pieced circle consisting, in the upper half of 13 five-point stars and in the lower half, a wreath of laurel on the left and olive on the right. At the top is a suspender of five graduated gold rays. The reverse of the medal has the inscription "For Distinguished Service" at the top in raised letters, and within the pentagon the inscription "From The Secretary of Defense To," all in raised letters. This decoration takes precedence over the Distinguished Service Medals of the separate services and is not to be awarded to any individual for a period of service for which a Navy Distinguished Service Medal is awarded.

The Navy Distinguished Service Medal

An Act of Congress established the Navy Distinguished Service Medal on February 4, 1919. The Navy Distinguished Service Medal has been in effect since April 6, 1917. The first person awarded the Navy Distinguished Service Medal, on March 13, 1919, was Brigadier General Charles A. Doyen, USMC, who received the medal after his death.

Criteria

Service members who, while serving in any capacity with the Navy or Marine Corps, distinguish themselves by exceptionally **meritorious** service to the Government in a duty of great responsibility are eligible for the Navy Distinguished Service Medal.

Ribbon

The ribbon to the Navy Distinguished Service Medal is a field of navy blue with a center stripe of gold.

Medal

The central feature of the Navy Distinguished Service Medal is an American bald eagle with displayed wings in the center of a gilt-

bronze medallion 1 ¼ inches in diameter. The eagle holds an olive branch and arrows in its right and left talons, respectively. A blue enameled ring that contains the words, "UNITED STATES NAVY," with "NAVY" centered at the bottom, surrounds the eagle. Outside the blue enamel ring is a gold border consisting of scroll waves moving in a clockwise direction. The medal is suspended from its ribbon by a five-point star (point up) tipped with gold balls. In the center of the star is an anchor, and gold rays emanate from the re-entrant angles of the star.

On the reverse side, the center of a gilt-bronze medallion one and a quarter inches in diameter, a trident surrounded by a wreath of laurel. A blue enamel ring, containing the inscription, "FOR DISTINGUISHED SERVICE," surrounds the wreath. The blue enamel ring is surrounded by scroll waves of the same type found on the obverse of the medal.

The Silver Star

The Citation Star was established as a result of an Act of Congress on July 9, 1918. It was **retroactive** to include those cited for gallantry in action in previous campaigns back to the Spanish-American War.

On July 19, 1932, the Secretary of War approved the Silver Star medal to replace the Citation Star. An Act of Congress placed authorization for the Silver Star into law on August 7, 1942. The primary reason for congressional authorization was the desire to award the medal to civilians as well.

Criteria

The Silver Star is awarded to a person who, while serving in any capacity with the U.S.

Marines, is cited for gallantry in action against an enemy of the United States:

- While engaged in military operations involving conflict with an opposing foreign force.

- While serving with friendly foreign forces engaged in armed conflict against an opposing armed force in which the United States is not a belligerent party.

The required gallantry, while of a lesser degree than that required for award of the Navy Cross, requires a performance of marked distinction.

Ribbon

The ribbon is 1 3/8 inches wide and consists of the following stripes: ultramarine blue, white, ultramarine blue, white, old glory red (center stripe), white, ultramarine blue, white, and ultramarine blue.

Medal

The medal consists of a gold star, one and a half inches in circumscribing diameter with a laurel wreath encircling rays from the center and a

3/16-inch diameter silver star superimposed in the center. The pendant hangs from a rectangular-shaped metal loop with rounded corners. The reverse has the inscription "FOR GALLANTRY IN ACTION."

The Defense Superior Service Medal

This award was established by Executive Order 11904 on February 6, 1976 by President Gerald R. Ford.

Criteria

The Secretary of Defense awards this medal to military officers who perform exceptionally with the Office of the Secretary of Defense, The Joint Chiefs of Staff, special or outstanding command in a defense agency, or any other joint activity designated by the Secretary. The service rendered will be similar to that required for award of the Legion of Merit.

Ribbon

The ribbon has a narrow center stripe of red; flanked on either side by equal stripes of white, light blue, and gold.

Medal

A silver-rimmed, light blue enameled pentagon is in the center of the medal. Surrounding the pentagon, at the top, are thirteen five-point stars, and at the base is a wreath of laurel and olive leaves. Superimposed on the pentagon and wreath, is an American eagle facing left with wings outstretched, holding three arrows in its talons. The reverse is inscribed at the top "For Superior Service" and on the pentagon, "From The Secretary of Defense To."

The Legion of Merit

Although recommendations for creation of a Meritorious Service Medal were initiated as early as September 1937, no formal action was taken toward approval. In a letter to the Quartermaster General (QMG) dated December 24, 1941, The Adjutant General formally requested action be initiated to create a Meritorious Service Medal and provide designs for the decoration.

An Act of Congress on July 20, 1942, established the Legion of Merit (change of name) and provided that the medal:

> …shall have suitable **appurtenances** and devices and not more than four degrees, and which the President, under such rules and regulations as he shall prescribe, may award to personnel of the Armed Forces of the United States and of the Government of the Commonwealth Philippines and personnel of the armed forces of friendly foreign nations who,

since the proclamation of an emergency by the President on 8 September 1939, shall have distinguished themselves by exceptionally meritorious conduct in the performance of outstanding services.

The reverse of the medal has the motto taken from the Great Seal of the United States "ANNUIT COEPTIS" (He [God] has favored our undertakings) and the date "MDCCLXXXII" (1782) which is the date of America's first decoration, the Badge of Military Merit, now known as the Purple Heart. The ribbon design also follows the pattern of the Purple Heart ribbon.

The Legion of Merit was the first American decoration awarded to citizens of other nations. Awardees included:

- *Chief Commander* - China's Generalissimo Chiang Kaishek was a first recipient.

- *Commander* - Brazil's Brigadier General Amaro Soares Bittencourt was first to receive this or any of the degrees.

- *Officer* - first to receive the Officer degree were Colonel Johanes K. Meijer of the Royal Netherlands Army, Major Herbert J. Thompson of the British Army, and Major Stephan M. Dobrowalski of the Polish Army.

- *Legionnaire/Legion of Merit* - First award to Lieutenant Anna A. Bernatitus, heroic Navy Nurse who served at Bataan and Corregidor.

Criteria

The degrees of Chief Commander, Commander, Officer, and Legionnaire are awarded only to members of armed forces of foreign nations under the criteria outlined in Army Regulation 672-7 and is based on the relative rank or position of the recipient as follows:

- *Chief Commander* - Chief of State or Head of Government.

- *Commander* - Equivalent of an U.S. military Chief of Staff or higher position but not to Chief of State.

- *Officer* - General of Flag Officer below the equivalent of a U.S. military Chief of Staff; Colonel or equivalent rank for service in assignments equivalent to those normally held by a General or Flag Officer in U.S. military service; or Military Attaches

- *Legionnaire* - All recipients not included above.

The Legion of Merit is awarded to all members of the Armed Forces of the United States without reference to degree for exceptionally meritorious conduct, in the performance of outstanding services and achievements. The performance must merit recognition of key individuals for service rendered in a clearly exceptional manner. Performance of duties normal to the grade, branch, specialty, or assignment and experience of an individual is not an adequate basis for this award. For service not related to actual war the term "key individual" applies to a narrower range of positions than in time of war and requires evidence of significant achievement. In peacetime, service should be in the nature of a special requirement or of an extremely difficult duty performed in an unprecedented and clearly exceptional manner. However, justification of the award may accrue by virtue of exceptionally meritorious service in a succession of important positions.

Ribbon

The ribbon for the decorations is 1 3/8 inches wide and consists of the following stripes: white, crimson center stripe, and white.

Medal

Described below are the degrees of the Legion of Merit and components for each:

- *Chief Commander* – On a wreath of green laurel joined at the bottom by a gold bow-knot (rosette), a domed five-pointed white star bordered crimson, points reversed with v-shaped extremities tipped with a gold ball. In the center, a blue disk encircled by gold clouds, with 13 white stars arranged in the pattern that appears on the United States Coat of Arms. Between each point, within the wreath are crossed arrows pointing outwards. The overall width is 2 15/16 inches. The words "UNITED STATES OF AMERICA" are engraved in the center of the reverse. A miniature of the decoration in gold on a horizontal gold bar is worn on the service ribbon.

- *Commander* – On a wreath of green laurel joined at the bottom by a gold bow-knot (rosette), a five-point white star bordered crimson, points reversed with v-shaped

extremities tipped with a gold ball. In the center, a blue disk encircled by gold clouds, with 13 white stars arranged in the pattern that appears on the United States Coat of Arms. Between each star point, within the wreath are crossed arrows pointing outwards. The overall width is 2 1/4 inches. A gold laurel wreath in the v-shaped angle at the top connects an oval suspension ring to the neck ribbon that is 1 15/16 inches in width. The reverse of the five-pointed star is enameled in white, and the border is crimson. In the center, a disk for engraving the name of the recipient surrounded by the words "ANNUIT COEPTIS MDCCLXXXII." An outer scroll contains the words "UNITED STATES OF AMERICA." The service ribbon is the same as the ribbon for the degree of Commander, except the ribbon attachment is silver.

- *Officer* – The design is the same as the degree of Commander except overall width is 1 7/8 inches and the pendant has a suspension ring instead of the wreath for attaching the ribbon. A gold replica of the medal, 3/4 inch wide, is centered on the suspension ribbon.

- *Legionnaire/Legion of Merit* – The design is the same as the degree of Officer, except the suspension ribbon does not have the medal replica.

The Distinguished Flying Cross

The Distinguished Flying Cross was established in the Air Corps Act on July 2, 1926. This act provided for award:

> …to any person, while serving in any capacity with the United States Navy, since the 6th day of April 1917, has distinguished, or who, after the approval

of this Act, distinguishes himself by heroism or extraordinary achievement while participating in an aerial flight.

Initially, persons who made record-breaking long distance and endurance flights and who set altitude records received the Distinguished Flying Cross. The Secretary of War authorized the first Distinguished Flying Cross to Army Captain Charles A. Lindbergh in a letter dated May 31, 1927, for his solo trans-Atlantic flight from New York to Paris. With the support of the Secretary of War, the Wright Brothers retroactively received the Distinguished Flying Cross. This required a special Act of Congress, since the law precluded award to civilians. **Major Ross E. Rowell** was the first Marine awarded the Distinguished Flying Cross for his efforts in Nicaragua in 1927. Sandinista rebels attacked 37 Marines at the Ocotal garrison, 125 miles from Manaagua. Maj. Rowell led five Marine DeHavilland to bomb rebels. This was the Marine's first use of dive-bombing and low-altitude support of ground troups.

Criteria

The Distinguished Flying Cross is awarded to any person who, while serving in any capacity with the Armed Forces of the United States, distinguishes himself by heroism or extraordinary achievement while participating in aerial flight. The act of heroism must be voluntary and beyond the call of duty. The extraordinary achievement must result in an accomplishment so exceptional and outstanding that it sets the individual apart from his/her comrades or from other persons in similar circumstances. Awards recognize single acts of heroism or extraordinary achievement and not sustained operational activities against an armed enemy.

Ribbon

The ribbon is 1 3/8 inches wide and consists of the following stripes: ultramarine blue, white, ultramarine blue, white, old glory red center stripe, white, ultramarine blue, white, and ultramarine blue.

Medal

The medal consists of a bronze cross patee on which is superimposed a four-bladed propeller, 1 11/16 inches in width. Five rays extended from the reentrant angles, forming a one-inch square. The medal hangs from a rectangular shaped bar.

The Navy/Marine Corps Medal

This award was authorized on August 7, 1942, the day the Marines landed on Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands. Anyone serving with the Navy or Marine Corps, including Reserves, who since December 6, 1941 distinguish themselves by heroism not involving actual conflict with the enemy, may receive the medal. President John F. Kennedy was awarded the Navy and Marine Corps Medal for heroism while serving as a junior Naval officer in the Pacific during World War II.

While attempting a torpedo attack on a Japanese destroyer in the Solomon Islands, Japanese rammed and sunk Lieutenant Kennedy's motor torpedo boat. He then directed the rescue of the crew and personally rescued three men, one of whom was seriously injured. During the following six days, Kennedy succeeded in getting his crew ashore. After swimming many hours attempting to secure aid and food, he completely rescued the men.

Criteria

The Navy and Marine Corps Medal may be awarded to service members who, while serving in any capacity with the Navy or Marine Corps, distinguish themselves by heroism not involving actual conflict with an enemy. For acts of lifesaving, or attempted lifesaving, the action must be performed at the risk of one's own life.

Ribbon

The ribbon to the Navy and Marine Corps Medal consists of three equal stripes of navy blue, old gold, and scarlet, in that order. The blue and gold are the Navy's colors and the scarlet and gold are the colors of the Marine Corps.

Medal

In the center of a bronze octagon 1 1/4 inches wide, an eagle faces to its right with upraised wings truncated by the edge of the medal. The eagle is perched upon a **fouled** anchor with the flukes beneath the eagle's right wing. Beneath the anchor is a globe. The inscription, "HEROISM" appears in raised letters at the base of the medal. The reverse of the Navy and Marine Corps Medal is blank, that space being used for inscribing the recipient's name.

The Bronze Star

General George C. Marshall, in a memorandum to President Roosevelt dated February 3, 1944, wrote:

> The fact that the ground troops, Infantry in particular, lead miserable lives of extreme discomfort and are the ones in close personal combat with the enemy, makes the maintenance of their morale of great importance. The award of the Air Medal have had an adverse reaction on the ground troops, particularly the Infantry Riflemen who are now suffering the heaviest losses, air or ground, in the Army, and enduring the greatest hardships.

The Air Medal was adopted two years earlier to raise airmen's morale.

President Roosevelt authorized the Bronze Star Medal by Executive Order 9419 dated February 4, 1944, retroactive to December 7, 1941. President Kennedy amended the Executive Order, per Executive Order 11046 dated August 24, 1962, to expand the authorization to include those serving with friendly forces.

Due to a study conducted in 1947, a new policy authorized the retroactive award of the Bronze Star Medal to Marines who had received the Combat Infantryman Badge or the Combat Medical Badge during World War II. The basis for doing this was that the badges were awarded only to Marines who had borne the hardships, which resulted in General Marshall's support of the Bronze Star Medal. Both badges required a recommendation by the commander and a citation in orders.

Criteria

The Bronze Star Medal is awarded to any person who, while serving in any capacity in or with the military of the United States after 6 December 1941, distinguished himself or herself by heroic or meritorious achievement or service, not involving participation in aerial flight:

- While engaged in an action against an enemy of the United States.

- While engaged in military operations involving conflict with an opposing foreign force.

- While serving with friendly foreign forces engaged in an armed conflict against an opposing armed force in which the United States is not a belligerent party.

Acts of heroism, performed under circumstances described above, which are of lesser degree than required for the award of the Silver Star, may justify the Bronze Star Medal. Awards can recognize single acts of merit or meritorious service. The required achievement or service, while of lesser degree than that required for the award of the Legion of Merit, must nevertheless been meritorious and accomplished with distinction.

Ribbon

The ribbon is 1 3/8 inches wide and consists of the following stripes: white, scarlet; white, ultramarine blue center stripe, white, scarlet, and white.

Medal

The bronze star is 1 1/2 inches in circumscribing diameter. In the center, there is a 3/16-inch diameter superimposed bronze star, the centerline of all rays of both stars coinciding. The reverse has the inscription "HEROIC OR MERITORIOUS ACHIEVEMENT" and a space for the name of the recipient to be engraved. The star suspends from the ribbon by a rectangular shaped metal loop with the corners rounded.

# Correct Order of Ribbon Wear

A corresponding ribbon exists for each of the medals described in this lesson and each ribbon must be worn following the correct order of ribbon wear. Although many rules exist for ribbon wear, one important fact overrides all – the correct order of ribbon wear follows the medals precedence order. That is, the higher the award, the more prominent the ribbon placement.

Personal decorations always precede unit decorations, which always precede campaign or service awards. Details pertaining to the order of precedence for all awards can be found in The Navy and Marine Corps Awards Manual.

Conclusion

Medals and ribbons are awarded to members of the Armed Forces and civilians for acts of courage or for continuous service to the country. These awards are the Government's way of publicly thanking the recipient and as a means to improve morale.❖
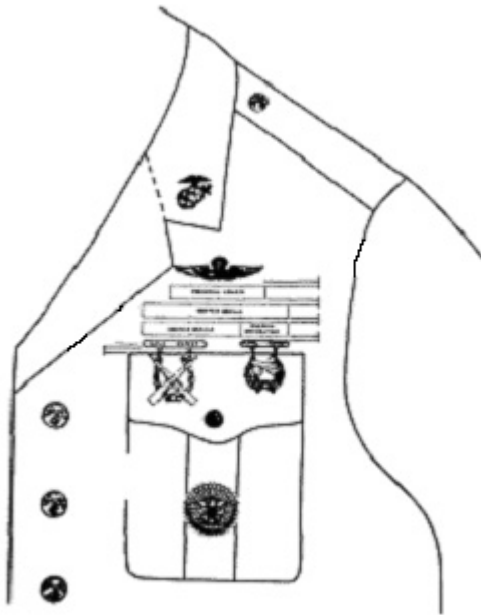
Ribbons for ribbon bars are of the same material as the medal's suspension ribbon. Each U.S. ribbon bar is 3/8 inch high and 1 3/8 inch wide (same as the width of the medal's suspension ribbon). Marines wear all ribbons to which they are entitled on service and dress "B" coats.
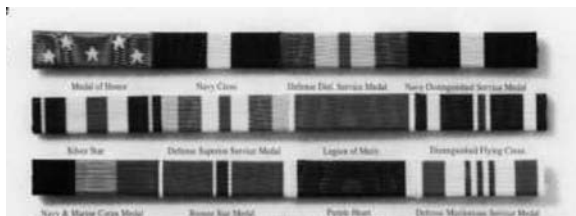
The Lensatic Compass

PURPOSE

During this lesson, you will learn about the lensatic compass and how to shoot azimuths using the centerhold technique and the compass-to-cheek method.

Introduction

The lensatic compass is one of the tools you need during land navigation. This tool will increase your accuracy and make navigation easier and faster. Always use a compass when available. This lesson will focus on techniques used when navigating with a lensatic compass. For this chapter, you will need to refer to Handout 1, which you should receive in class.

Description

The primary instrument you need to determine and maintain direction during land navigation is the **lensatic compass**. It is called a "lensatic" compass due to the uniqueness of the **lens** in this type of compass. This compass provides you with the most reliable means of maintaining direction while navigating from one point to another.

The lensatic compass consists of three major parts (See Figure A of Handout 1):

- Cover
- Base
- Rear sight

Cover

The cover protects the floating dial and the glass encasement. It contains the sighting wire and two **luminous** sighting dots for night navigation.

Base

1. *Floating dial* - mounted on a pivot so that it rotates freely when the compass is level. It contains the magnetic needle. Printed on the dial include a luminous arrow and the letters "E" and "W". The arrow points to magnetic north. Letters fall at the east (E) 90 degrees (°) and (W) 270°. There are two scales: outer - denotes MILS (black); inner - denotes DEGREES (red).

2. *Glass encasement* - houses the floating dial and contains a fixed black index line.

3. **Bezel ring** - device that clicks when turned. It contains 120 clicks when rotated fully. Each click equals 3°. A short luminous line is used in conjunction with the north-seeking arrow during night navigation.

4. *Thumb loop* - is attached to the base.

Rear Sight

The rear sight locks the floating dial. Open the rear sight more than 45° to allow the floating dial to float freely.

1. *Lens* - used to read the floating dial.

2. *Rear sight slot* - used in conjunction with the front sighting wire when aiming at objects.

Handling the Compass

Inspection

Compasses are delicate instruments and should be cared for accordingly. Conduct a detailed inspection before you use your compass. The most important part is the floating dial. It must float freely. You must also ensure the sighting wire is straight, the glass encasement is not broken, and the numbers on the dial are readable.

Effects of Metal and Electricity

Metal objects and electrical sources can affect the performance of a compass (nonmagnetic metals and alloys do not affect compass readings). To ensure the proper functioning of your compass, keep a safe distance from the following metal objects:

- High-tension power lines   55 meters
- Field gun, truck, or tank   10 meters
- Telegraph or telephone   10 meters
  wires and barbed wire
- Machine gun   2 meters
- Rifle   1/2 meter
- Steel rim glasses   1/3 meter

Accuracy

A compass in good working condition is very accurate. However, you must periodically check your compass on a known line of direction, such as a surveyed azimuth using a declination station. If your compass has more than 3 degrees ± variation, do not use it.

Protection

When traveling with the compass unfolded, make sure the rear sight is folded down onto the bezel ring. This will lock the floating dial and prevent vibration, as well as protect the crystal and rear sight from damage.

Techniques for Using the Compass

Use the lensatic compass to determine or follow magnetic azimuths during both the day and night. To use it with the maximum degree of accuracy, it is important to understand and properly apply certain techniques. Like developing techniques for shooting a rifle, you must develop the proper holding position and practice until you master the techniques for accurately "shooting" an azimuth.

Using the Centerhold Technique

This technique is faster and easier to use than the other techniques. (See Handout 1.)

Step 1: Open the compass cover so that the cover forms a straightedge with the base.

Step 2: Move the rear sight to the rearmost position to allow the dial to float freely.

Step 3: Place your thumb through the thumb loop and form a steady base with your third and fourth fingers. Extend both index fingers along the sides of the compass.

Step 4: Place the thumb of the other hand between the lens (rear sight) and the bezel ring; place the remaining fingers around the fingers of the other hand.

Step 5: Pull your elbows firmly into your sides.

Step 6: Turn your entire body until the desired magnetic azimuth is under the fixed black index line.

Presetting a Compass

When following an azimuth using the centerhold technique, you may save some time by presetting the compass. To preset a compass during daylight hours perform the following steps:

Step 1: Hold the compass level in the palm of your hand.

Step 2: Rotate your body until the desired azimuth falls under the fixed black index line (See Handout 1).

Step 3: Turn the bezel ring until the short luminous line aligns with the north-seeking arrow. Once you obtain alignment, the compass is preset.

While on the move, make sure the short luminous line and the north-seeking arrow align. This ensures you maintain the proper azimuth.

Using the Compass-to-Cheek Technique

Use the compass-to-cheek technique when you want to be more accurate. (See Handout 1.) Follow these steps.

Step 1: Open the compass so that the cover is vertical, forming a 90° angle with the base.

Step 2: Move the rear sight to the rearmost position to release the dial, and then fold it slightly forward.

Step 3: Turn the thumb loop all the way down and insert your thumb. Form a loose fist under the compass, steady it with your other hand, and raise it to eye level.

Step 4: Look through the rear sight notch and center the front sighting wire in the rear sight notch.

Step 5: Keeping the compass level and the sights aligned, rotate your entire body until the sighting wire lines up on a distant object.

Step 6: Glance down through the lens and read the azimuth directly under the black index line. The azimuth you read is the magnetic azimuth from your position to the distant object.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you learned about the lensatic compass and how to shoot azimuths using the centerhold technique and the compass-to-cheek method. During the next lesson, you will learn how to determine your location.❖

Determining Your Location

PURPOSE

"Where am I?" This is the question most often asked during land navigation. Before you can accurately plan routes, you must know where you are on your map.

Introduction

A further refinement of the inspection technique is to locate a distant object, determine the direction to it, and estimate the distance to the object. The accuracy of this technique depends on your ability to estimate distance. If you are located along a linear feature, you can determine your map location accurately by using a one-point resection. You can use a two-point resection to locate yourself when you are not on a linear feature.

Orient Your Map

Your first step when navigating in the field is to **orient** your map. A map is orientated when its north and south correspond to the north and south on the ground. There are two ways of orientating your map – using a compass and by **terrain association**.

Using a Compass

When orientating a map with a compass, remember that compasses measure magnetic azimuths. Since the north-seeking arrow of the compass points to magnetic north, pay special attention to the declination diagram. Use the following technique to orient your map:

Step 1: With the map flat on the ground, place the straightedge (on the left side of the compass) along the *magnetic north arrow on the declination* diagram so that the cover of the compass points toward the top of the map. This puts the fixed black index line of the compass parallel to the magnetic north arrow of the declination diagram (See Figure 1 of Handout 1).

Step 2: Keeping the compass aligned as directed above, rotate the map and compass simultaneously until the north-seeking arrow is below the fixed black index line on the compass. Your map is now oriented.

Using Terrain Association

You can orient your map using terrain association when a compass is not available or when you have to make quick references as you move across country. This technique requires careful examination of the map and the features on the ground (See Figure 2 of Handout 1).

Step 1: Identify terrain features. Identify prominent terrain features on the map that you can find on the ground.

Step 2: Align terrain features with the map. If there is a tower to your right front, then orient the map so that the tower is to your right front. If there is a road off to your left, then ensure the road on the map is parallel to the road on the ground. Once all of the features line up, your map is oriented.

Determining Your Position

Now that you can orient your map, find your location on a map. If you know your approximate location on a map, studying nearby terrain features can help you determine your position.

Determining Your Location by Inspection

Use **inspection** when you are standing near several prominent features, which can easily be located on the map (See Figure 3 of Handout 1). Inspection involves orientating the map and estimating your relation to these features, in order to determine your location.

Determining Your Location by One-Point Resection

One-point **resection** is an accurate technique of determining your location when you are on or near a linear feature that you can identify both on the ground and on the map. You must also be able to identify another prominent feature, both on ground and on the map. To determine your location by one-point resection follow these steps:

Step 1: Identify the linear terrain feature that you are located on or near in respect to the ground on your map.

Step 2: Identify a prominent feature on the ground and locate that feature on your map.

Step 3: Using the compass-to-cheek technique, sight in on the feature and read the magnetic azimuth.

Step 4: Convert the magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth.

Step 5: Convert this grid azimuth to a grid back azimuth.

Step 6: With your protractor, plot this grid back azimuth from the feature on the map and extend it until it crosses the linear feature.

Step 7: Conduct a map inspection to verify your resection.

Look at your Margarita Peak map and follow this example: You know you are located somewhere along the road in the southern part of grid square 5993, but you don't know your exact grid coordinate. To the north, you spot an observation tower that is on a magnetic azimuth of 16 degrees (°). Your declination diagram tells you that the G-M angle is 14° and that you should add the G-M angle when converting a magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth. This gives you a grid azimuth of 30°. Convert this grid azimuth to a grid back azimuth by adding 180°. Thus, the grid back azimuth is 210°. Plot this azimuth on your map from the observation tower. The point on your map where this line intersects your road is your location. Your location is 591934.

When selecting a terrain feature, choose one that is perpendicular to the axis of the linear terrain feature so that when you plot the back azimuth on the map, the line will cross the linear feature more or less at a right angle. Figure 4 on Handout 1 illustrates the result of a good selection and a poor selection.

Example: (Follow this example step-by-step on your Margarita Peak map): You know that you are located somewhere along an intermittent stream that flows southwesterly in grid square 5595, but you do not know exactly where. Looking to the west from your location, you see two large towers in the distance. You select the tower on the left (because it seems more perpendicular to your stream) and shoot a magnetic azimuth of 266° to it. What is your location? If you said that it is 559954, then you are correct. If not, this is what you should have

done. First, convert the magnetic azimuth of 266° to a grid azimuth of 280°. Then figure out the grid back azimuth of 280°, which is 100°. Plot 100° on your map from the tower to the stream. Where this azimuth crosses the stream, is your location.

Note: A one-point resection can also work if you are not along a linear feature. Merely estimate the distance between you and your prominent terrain feature. Plot this distance along the back azimuth to get an approximate location.

Determining Your Location by Two-Point Resection

Usually you will find that you are not located on or near a prominent linear feature.

Since the accuracy of a one-point resection under these conditions depends on your ability to accurately estimate distance, it is better to use a two-point resection. The procedures for two-point resections are similar to one-point resections except you must select two features instead of one. The back azimuths from each feature is determined and plotted on your map. You are located at the point where these lines cross. If you have a compass and a protractor, then follow these steps:

Step 1: Select two prominent features on the ground whose positions can be located on the map. These features should be at least 30° but not greater than 150° apart (See Figure 5 of Handout 1).

Step 2: Using the compass-to-cheek technique, determine the magnetic azimuth to each object.

Step 3: Convert these magnetic azimuths to back azimuths.

Step 4: With your protractor, draw the respective back azimuths from these two points on your map.

Step 5: Extend the azimuth lines from these two points until they intersect. You are located at the point where these two lines cross.

Step 6: Conduct a map inspection to verify your position.

Do you think you understand how to do it? Let's try an example. Use Figure 6 of Handout 1 (use the 1:25,000 scale on your protractor). You know you are located somewhere south of Case Spring in the upper left hand corner of your map but you don't know exactly where. From your position, you can see the road intersection at 608008 and the road intersection at 619001. You shoot a magnetic azimuth of 350° to the first intersection and a magnetic azimuth of 64° to the second intersection: Next, you must find the grid back azimuths.

- 350° + 14° = 4° (grid azimuth)
- 64° + 14° = 78° (grid azimuth)
- 4° + 180° = 184° (grid back azimuth)
- 8° + 180° = 258° (grid back azimuth)

Are the two features far enough apart (between 3 0° and 15 0°)? Well, 259 - 185° = 74°, which is between 30° and 150°, so the answer is "yes." Now plot these two grid back azimuths on your map. They intersect at your location, 607998.

If you do not have a protractor, you must use a different technique (See Figure 7 of Handout 1). This technique is the same as using a protractor except the map *must be accurately orientated* and the back azimuths are plotted using a compass (thus being a *magnetic* back azimuth) rather than a protractor (which is a *grid* back azimuth). Follow these steps to determine your

location using a compass and a two-point resection:

> *Step 1:* Orient your map accurately.

> *Step 2:* Locate two prominent features on the ground, which are identifiable on the map.

> *Step 3:* Shoot a magnetic azimuth to these features and determine the *magnetic* back azimuths from these features.

> *Step 4:* Without disturbing the map's orientation, place the straightedge of the compass on one of these features and rotate the compass until the *magnetic* back azimuth falls under the black index line.

> *Step 5:* Using the straightedge of the compass, draw a straight line through your first feature.

> *Step 6:* Repeat steps 4 and 5 for the second feature.

> *Step 7:* Extend the lines until they intersect. This is your location.

> *Step 8:* Conduct a map inspection to verify your location.

Let's do one more example. Follow the example below on your Margarita Peak map.

You are navigating cross-country toward your next checkpoint, the intermittent stream intersection located in grid square 6086. You become unsure of your present location and wish to verify it. You have a protractor.

In the distance, you can identify a control tower and a bridge. You find them on your map and note that the tower is in grid square 6389 and the bridge is in 6785.

With your compass, you determine that the magnetic azimuth to the tower is 3° and the magnetic azimuth to the bridge is 93°.

You convert these magnetic azimuths to grid back azimuths. (Convert your magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth, and then convert this grid azimuth to a grid back azimuth.)

Control tower: 3° + 14° = 17°
                           17° + 180° = 197°

Bridge: 93° + 14° = 107°
                           107° + 180° = 287°

Plot the respective *grid back* azimuths on your map. Extend these lines until they cross. You are located at the point where these lines cross, at grid coordinates 627875. Conduct a map inspection to verify your location.

What will happen if you plot the grid azimuth on the map instead of the grid BACK azimuth? That's right. Your lines will never cross unless you extend the lines in the opposite direction.

Conclusion

You should now be able to locate yourself on a map. If you want a quick approximation of your location, you can orient your map and locate yourself by inspection. A further refinement of the inspection technique is to locate a distant object, determine the direction to it, and estimate the distance to the object. The accuracy of this technique depends on your ability to estimate distance. If you are located along a linear feature, you can determine your map location accurately by using a one-point resection. You can use a two-point resection to locate yourself when you are not on a linear feature. In the next lesson, you will learn how to determine the location of distant objects.❖

Determining the Location of Distant Objects

PURPOSE

This lesson is very familiar to the previous lesson because many of the same principles are involved. The difference is that you are trying to locate a distant object rather than your own location.

Introduction

In this lesson, you will learn how to locate distant objects using inspection, one-point intersection, and two-point intersection.

Locating Distant Objects by Inspection

If an object is near prominent features that you can identify on your map, use inspection to determine its location by associating it with these features. For example, even though the bunker along the road spur in Figure 1 of Handout 1 does not appear on your map, by associating its location with the water tower and the road you should have little difficulty in determining that it is located at 749838.

Locating Distant Objects by One-Point Intersection

When you desire to accurately determine the location of a distant object located on or near a linear feature, use a one-point **intersection** (See Figure 2 of Handout 1).

Step 1: From your known position, shoot an azimuth to the distant object. Use the compass-to-cheek technique.

Step 2: Plot this azimuth on your map using either a compass or a protractor. (If you use a protractor, do not forget to convert the magnetic azimuth to grid.) The distant object is located where your plotted azimuth crosses the linear feature.

If the distant object is not on or near a linear feature, then you must estimate the distance between you and the distant object and plot this along your plotted azimuth. You MUST know your own location to use this method.

Example: (Take out your Margarita Peak map sheet and follow this problem step by step): You are located on the hilltop at grid coordinates 617989. Looking northeasterly, you see an enemy patrol stopped alongside the secondary hard surface. Using your compass, you determine the magnetic azimuth from your position to the patrol is 31 degrees (°).

1. Calculate the grid azimuth: 31° + 14°(GM Angle) = 45°.

2. Place the index mark of the protractor on your position and plot the 45° grid azimuth.

3. The point where this line intersects the road is the location of the enemy patrol. The enemy patrol is located at grid coordinates 627999.

Locating Distant Objects by Two-Point Intersection

If you observe a distant object and it does not happen to be on or near a linear feature, the most accurate technique of determining its

location is by two-point intersection. The procedures for conducting two-point intersections are identical to those used for conducting one-point intersections except that the azimuth to the distant object must be plotted from *two separate known positions.* The distant object is located where these two lines intersect.

Step 1: From your first known point, determine the magnetic azimuth to the object using the compass-to-cheek technique.

Step 2: Plot this azimuth on your map. (Remember, if you are plotting the azimuth with a protractor, convert the magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth.)

Step 3: Examine the map to determine a second vantage point from which to shoot a second azimuth to the distant object. The two points must be far enough apart so the angle between the two lines is between 30° and 150° and the lines make a distinct intersection.

Step 4: After moving to the second vantage point, shoot a second azimuth using the compass-to-cheek technique.

Step 5: Plot this azimuth on your map. The distant object is located where the two lines intersect.

You MUST know the location for BOTH positions to use this technique.

A two-point intersection is easier if you can communicate with another observer who is already located at a second known point.

Example: Take out your Margarita Peak map sheet and follow this problem step by step (or look at Figure 3 of Handout 1). You have just arrived at a finger located at grid coordinate 659893. You sight an enemy unit, located to the northwest. Determine his position using a two-point intersection.

1. Shoot an azimuth from your present location on the finger (point 1). You determine that the magnetic azimuth to the enemy is 304°.

2. Convert this magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth using the G-M angle on your map. 304° + 14° = 318° (Grid azimuth).

3. Plot this grid azimuth from your position (point 1).

4. You know that the enemy is located somewhere along this azimuth. You can estimate the distance to the enemy to get an approximate location, but you want the exact grid coordinates so that your report to battalion will be accurate.

5. Examine your map to determine a second **vantage point** from which you can shoot a second azimuth to the enemy unit. Remember that the two points from which the azimuths are taken should be far enough apart so that the angle between the two lines at their point of intersection is greater than 30°, but less than 150°. You determine that a **defilade** position at 653884 (point 2) would be a good position to observe the enemy while remaining concealed from observation.

6. You instruct your second fire team leader to move southwest along a concealed route to point 2, locate the enemy from that vantage point, shoot an azimuth to them, and report that azimuth back to you.

7. After moving to the second vantage point, your fire team leader shoots an azimuth using the compass-to-cheek technique and determines that the magnetic azimuth from the second position to the enemy was 338°.

8. You convert this magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth using the G-M angle on your map. 338° + 14° = 354° (grid azimuth).

9. Plot this grid azimuth (ensuring it intersects position 2).

10. The enemy is located where the two azimuth lines intersect; at grid coordinates 651903.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned how to locate distant objects using inspection, one-point intersection, and two-point intersection. As you can see, these techniques are very similar to locating your own position. These lessons have focused on stationary land navigation skills. During the next lesson, you will learn how to actually move from one point to another with your map and compass.❖

Navigating with a Compass

PURPOSE

This lesson will show you how to be a good navigator. To navigate well means to be able to stay on course by using the compass in conjunction with steering marks, and by understanding the factors that may cause you to wander off course.

Introduction

To successfully navigate, you must be able to determine from your map the best routes to follow, plot these routes, and follow your desired compass azimuth. You also must know the techniques for bypassing both small and large obstacles.

Determining Ground Distance by Pacing

Almost all routes plotted on a map are divided into a number of straight "legs." You must know the distance and azimuth for each leg of the march. Navigating involves combining many separate skills to successfully get you from one point to another. Pacing is another one of these skills. It helps you determine how much ground distance you have covered once you actually start moving on your route.

Determining Your Average Pace Count

Many techniques help determine how many steps it takes the average Marine to walk a given distance. A predominant technique is the "hundred meter pacing course." A distance of exactly 100 meters is marked on the ground. As you walk this distance, keep a count of the steps you take. Count every other step (every left foot) to determine your count. This is your "**pace count**" for the number of steps it takes you to walk 100 meters. The pace count for the average Marine is 60 paces (per 100 meters). If you cannot determine your pace count ahead of time, use this number.

Factors That Can Affect Your Normal Pace Count

There are many factors which affect your normal pace count. If these factors are not considered, your determination of distance traveled may be seriously off the mark and you may end up far from your objective! Make sure to account for the following conditions that can affect your normal pace:

1. *Slopes.* Your pace count will decrease on a downgrade, and increase on an upgrade.

2. *Winds.* A strong headwind will increase your pace count; a strong tailwind will decrease it.

3. *Surfaces.* Sand, gravel, mud, and similar surface conditions tend to increase your pace count.

4. *Weather.* Snow, rain, or ice will increase your count.

5. *Clothing and equipment.* The weight of extra clothing and equipment will increase your pace count.

6. *Stamina.* As you become fatigued, your pace count will normally increase.

7. *Thick vegetation.* Thick vegetation will increase your pace count.

The factors that cause your stride to shorten vastly outnumber those factors, which will lengthen it. Often you will find that your pace count brings you short of your objective. To get an idea of how these factors affect your pace count, set up several pace courses over various terrain, i.e., hard surface road, wooded area, sand, etc. Regardless of how accurately you have determined your normal pace count, it will, at best, provide you with the approximate distance you have traveled. Knowing an approximate distance is normally all you need during land navigation; it will place you close enough to locate your objective.

Now that you know your pace count, you need to know how to apply it to land navigation. Once you determine the distance that you need to cover (for example, how far you must travel on a leg of a patrol), you must convert this distance into the number of steps you must take to cover that distance. The formula to do this is simple:

$$\frac{D}{100} \times PC = P$$

D is the distance you must travel, PC is your pace count, and P is the number of paces you must take to travel that distance. Consider the following examples. If you need to travel 100 meters and your pace count is 66 paces (per 100 meters), how many paces should you take? Most likely, you can figure this one out without the formula, but plug the numbers in anyway to see how the formula works:

$$100/100 \times 66 = 66$$

Remember, 100 divided by 100 equals 1. One times 66 equals 66 (paces). Let's try another one. How many paces should you take if you must travel 500 meters and your pace count is 62 paces (per 100 meters)?

$$500/100 \times 62 = 350$$

Here, 500 divided by 100 equals 5. Five times 62 equals 310 (paces). Let's try one more. The distance is 350 meters and your pace count is 64 paces.

$$350/100 \times 64 = 224$$

Here, 350 divided by 100 equals 3.5. In addition, 3.5 multiplied by 64 equals 224 (paces).

Selection and Use of Steering Marks

Selecting **steering marks** is the last important thing you must know before you can start moving from one point to another. A steering mark is a well-defined object on your line of march on which you can guide. These objects can be natural or manmade (hill, tree, building, etc), a celestial body (sun, stars, moon), or another person. One of the problems associated with selecting and using steering marks is that an object often looks good when you select it, but will become obscured as you approach it (See Figure 1 of Handout 1). This may confuse you and cause you to deviate from your intended line of march. Keep in mind the characteristics of good steering marks discussed below when you select a steering mark.

A good steering mark must have some distinct and unique features such as:

- Color

- Size

- Shape

A good steering mark will have all three. This assures you that it will continue to be recognizable as you approach it. A distant tree may appear to have a crooked limb that identifies it. However, upon entering the forest, you may

find dozens of widely separated trees with similar limbs. Your steering mark has then served little purpose. A steering mark must have a feature that distinguishes it from all other similar objects on your line of march.

If several easily distinguishable objects appear along your line of march, the best steering mark would be the most distant object. This will enable you to travel farther with fewer references to the compass.

If several easily distinguishable objects appear along your line of march, the best steering mark is the highest object. The higher steering mark is not as easily lost to sight as is a low steering mark that may blend into the background as you approach it (See Figure 2 of Handout 1).

A steering mark should be continuously visible. If the terrain or vegetation ever blocks the steering mark from view, take out your compass and select an intermediate steering mark. Continue using intermediate steering marks until your original steering mark comes back into view. To enter a wooded area thinking that you will come out on the other side still heading in the correct direction is foolish. In thick vegetation, you can quickly become disoriented and emerge from the thicket heading the wrong way with no steering mark in view.

If you are navigating alone and there are no usable steering marks to your front, you may proceed on an azimuth by referring to a back steering mark. Simply determine the back azimuth of the azimuth you are following. Now face about, and see if there is a prominent object on line with the back azimuth. If none exist, erect one where you are located (place a stick in the ground, pile up some rocks, etc.). When you continue on your route, use the same principles that apply for a forward steering mark. However, make sure to use back azimuths to maintain the intended line of march and check your compass more frequently.

If appropriate landmarks are not available at night, you may select a plainly visible star along your line of march to serve as a steering mark. Remember though, due to the earth's rotation, any star that you choose either will eventually disappear under the horizon or will move too high in the sky to be of further use. If this happens, choose another steering mark.

If no natural or manmade object is visible on your line of march, have another person move forward to serve as a steering mark. The terrain, amount of visibility, and the tactical situation determine the distance he/she moves. Since this is time consuming and may be tactically compromising, you should never use this technique except as a last resort.

Select steering marks as the march progresses. Shoot your azimuth; select the best steering mark on this azimuth; and head to it. Whether you are navigating during daylight or periods of reduced visibility, through densely wooded areas or open terrain, over short or great distances, every step you take should be toward a selected steering mark. The natural human tendency to veer off course, even on short distances, is too great to needlessly trust your ability to walk a straight line. So, whether it is an object that meets all the requirements of an ideal steering mark, a star, or something as insignificant as a tiny patch of light in the foliage, ALWAYS, choose something on your line of march.

Following a Compass Azimuth During the Day

The procedure for following a compass azimuth during the day, utilizes the compass-to-cheek technique and the selection and use of appropriate steering marks. Let's begin.

Step 1: Shoot your desired azimuth using the compass-to-cheek technique.

Step 2: Using the sighting slot and the sighting wire, choose the best steering mark that is directly in line with your azimuth.

Step 3: Recheck your azimuth. The few seconds required for this are well spent.

Step 4: Close your compass to protect it during movement and step off towards your steering mark.

Step 5: Periodically spot-check your azimuth by using the centerhold technique. You can do this without stopping.

Note: If you ever become uncertain whether you are still on your intended line of march, STOP. Open your compass and use the compass-to-cheek technique to check your azimuth.

If the proper azimuth is under the black index line, then you are heading in the proper direction. If the proper azimuth is not under the black index line, then STOP. Check the compass to ensure it is working properly. Check your steering mark. You may have confused it with a similar object. You may be heading in the *wrong direction*. Choose a new steering mark on the correct azimuth. Get back on track.

Step 6: When you arrive at your steering mark, stop, and select a new steering mark. Continue repeating the steps until your journey is complete.

Note: If your steering mark disappears from your view, stop and select another steering mark immediately.

Bypassing Obstacles

Despite the amount of care you take in determining routes, choosing steering marks, and using your compass to maintain a straight line of march, you may encounter unexpected **obstacles** that will force you to detour from your intended line of march. There are several ways to bypass obstacles.

Detouring Small Obstacles

If you encounter small obstacles, such as trees and bushes, go completely around the obstacle to the center of the opposite side and continue your movement.

Detouring Large Obstacles Using Steering Marks

If there is a clearly defined steering mark on the far side of the obstacle, you can successfully bypass a large obstacle, such as a pond or impassable swamp. Decide carefully whether the object will serve as a suitable steering mark. Remember that an object may have a distinguishing characteristic when observed from a distance, but lose its identity when approached.

As a final precaution, always leave some mark, such as a small pile of rocks or a blaze (distinctive mark) on a tree on your side of the obstacle, so you can return if you become confused while bypassing the obstacle.

Example: You have been following an azimuth of 212° toward your next checkpoint when you come upon an impassable swamp. On the far side of the swamp, you see a large pile of rocks that is on a 212° azimuth (your original line of march). You can see that this is the only pile of

rocks in the area. (If there were others, you would have to carefully study the characteristics of each rock pile and select several features, such as size, color, and nearby objects, which would easily distinguish it from the other rock piles.) Estimate the distance across the swamp, leave a mark on your side of the swamp, put your compass away, and proceed to the rock pile by the easiest route. Upon reaching it you may continue toward your checkpoint along a 212° azimuth. (Remember to deduct the estimated distance across the swamp from the remaining distance on that leg.)

Detouring Large Obstacles Using Back Steering Marks

If there are no suitable steering marks on the far side of the obstacle, bypass the obstacle if there is an easily distinguishable object on your side to use as a back steering mark. If there is not a suitable natural steering mark, then make one.

Example: After skirting the swamp, you come to a large pond that has no prominent steering marks on its far side. However, on your side an isolated tall tree is exactly on your line of march. It is obvious that it will be visible from the other side of the pond. Carefully examine the terrain and shoreline along your line of march on the far side of the pond (this will help you estimate when you are at the correct position). Now, estimate the distance across the pond, put away your compass; and proceed to the other side by the easiest route. When you think you are back on your line of march, look back across the lake at the tall tree. Now break out your compass and shoot an azimuth to the tree. If you are in the right place, the tree will lie on the back azimuth of your original azimuth.

Since you have been proceeding on an azimuth of 212°, the tree should be found at 32°. If it is not, you have not returned to your original line of march. You must move to your right or

left until you find the spot from which the tree lies at 32°. When you have found this spot, you are at your original line of march and may resume your original azimuth of 212°. (Again, do not forget to deduct the estimated distance across the pond from your remaining distance on that leg.)

Detouring Large Obstacles Using the 90 Degree Offset Technique

If you are navigating at night or there is absolutely no way to use steering marks, you can still stay on track using this technique.

Detour the obstacle by moving at right angles (plus or minus 90°) for specified distances. For example (See Figure 3 of Handout 1), while moving on an azimuth of 90°, change your azimuth to 180° and travel for 100 meters. Then change your azimuth to 90° and travel for 150 meters. Next, change your azimuth to 360° and travel for 100 meters. Finally, change your azimuth to 90° and you are back on your original azimuth line, 150 meters closer to your next checkpoint.

You must maintain an accurate pace count for each leg of your detour. All paces which are in the direction of your original line of march must be combined so that, upon returning to your original line of march, you know the distances yet to be traveled to reach your next checkpoint. All paces at right angles (90°) to your original line of march must be computed so that, upon passing the obstacle, you know how many paces it will take to return you to your original line of march. You should return to the original line of march as soon as possible after passing the obstacle. The only sure way of knowing that you are back on this line is by maintaining an accurate pace count.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned how to establish your own pace count, how to choose proper steering marks, and how to use these two items in navigating over terrain. Finally, you have learned one technique for bypassing small obstacles and three techniques for bypassing large obstacles. During your next lesson, you will learn about navigating using terrain association and dead reckoning. ❖

Terrain Association and Dead Reckoning

PURPOSE

During this lesson, you will learn how to navigate using terrain association and dead reckoning.

Introduction

Terrain association is the process of continuously identifying features on the ground and associating them with their graphic representations on your map. When this association is made, you should have little difficulty in determining your location by inspection. It goes without saying that terrain association can only be used when there are visible terrain features on the ground that you can identify on your map. It is often impossible to use during periods of reduced visibility and in areas where the terrain all looks alike. When these conditions occur, you may have to navigate using **dead reckoning**.

Navigating Using Terrain Association

Navigation by terrain association depends largely on your ability to visualize what a terrain feature on the ground looks like from its graphic representation on the map. The only way that you can acquire this ability is through practical application and experience. Through experience, you will be able to visualize the shape and size of a hill from its contour line representation on the map. The following is a list of steps you should

take to accurately navigate using terrain association:

1. *Orient your map.* You must orient your map every time you attempt to associate the map with the ground.

2. *Determine your starting location.* You must always start from a location you can identify on the map and associate with on the ground.

3. *Identify major terrain features.* Before you start your march, study your map and identify major terrain features you can expect to see or encounter as the march progresses. It helps to complete a "mental picture" of the route if you say the identifiable features aloud: "500 meters from here I should cross a stream; as I cross the stream I should see a hill with a distinct concave slope. This hill is about 400 meters northeast of the point where I cross the stream…"

4. *Maintain an accurate pace count.* As you move along, remember that the actual distance you cover should match the ground distance determined from the map. For example, if the map indicates that you should cross the stream after going 500 meters, you should, in fact, cross a stream at approximately that distance. If you encounter a stream after going only 100 meters, you know that this is NOT the right one. You can verify this by comparing the surrounding terrain with the terrain on the map. Does the terrain match up, and does it appear in the right perspective? If not, the stream is probably a small intermittent stream that is not shown on the map.

5. *Verify your position at every checkpoint.* When you arrive at a checkpoint or the objective,

conduct a detailed comparison between the ground position and the map position to ensure you are at the correct point.

Navigating Using Dead Reckoning

The term "dead reckoning" derives from the seafaring days before the arrival of modern navigational equipment when mariners would "deduce" (ded) how far they had traveled on their course. Based on this deduction, they would "reckon" where they were located. To save room in the ship's log, entries were abbreviated to read "ded-reckon." "Dead reckoning" is a means of navigating using only pace counts and azimuths. Terrain association is not used. In thick jungles, barren terrain, or when visibility is limited, you will not be able to associate your current position with visible terrain features on the ground. Dead reckoning may be the only means you have available of knowing where you are located on your map.

Steps for Dead Reckoning

To navigate by dead reckoning, you must accomplish the following:

1. *Determine location, distance, and azimuth.* Determine your own location by any means. Then determine the distance and magnetic azimuth between each leg of your journey.

2. *Step off.* During movement, make frequent reference to your compass to ensure you are moving in the correct direction. Carefully select your steering marks (navigating with steering marks is NOT the same as navigating by terrain association as steering marks are rarely shown on a map). Maintain an accurate pace count. When you have paced off the appropriate number of steps on the appropriate azimuth, then you have reached your objective (or checkpoint). Repeat the steps until you reach your final destination.

3. *Accuracy of dead reckoning.* The accuracy of dead reckoning depends on your ability to determine and follow an azimuth and maintain an awareness of the distance traveled from the last known point.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned how to navigate using terrain association and dead reckoning. ❖

Punitive Articles

Introduction

The Punitive Articles section of the MCM begins with Article 77 (Principals) that defines who the principals are in the commission of an offense. It points out that those who aid, **abet**, counsel, command, or procure the commission of an act are also **liable** for the offense. Article 77 defines who the perpetrator of a crime may be, either the person who actually commits the offense or someone who causes the offense to happen. Article 77 points out that it is not necessary to be present at the commission of a crime to be considered a perpetrator. For example, a person who hides drugs in an automobile, and then convinces another person who is unaware of the presence of the drugs to drive the car onto a military base, is guilty of the crime even if he/she was not in the car. On the other hand, the driver would not be guilty of a crime. Article 78 (Accessories After the Fact) identifies an **accessory after the fact** as a person who knows an offense has been committed and helps the offender in some way. Punishment for individuals covered under Article 77 and 78 depends on the crime committed and the sentence of the court. To be guilty under Article 78, it is not necessary to help the principal escape or hide. A person may be charged under this article for concealing evidence, such as stolen goods. Beginning with Article 80 and continuing through Article 134, the MCM identifies the various offenses punishable under the UCMJ. While this lesson will not cover all of the articles listed, it will provide some specific examples of offenses against the UCMJ.

Article 80 – Attempt

Most people have heard of the charge "attempted murder" where an individual tries to kill someone but fails. That person is still liable for the commission of a crime. The crime of attempt applies to any act that was intended to commit an offense listed under the Punitive Articles. The action requires more than just planning. For example, buying a can of gasoline is not an example of intent. Dousing a barn with the gasoline and trying to light it on fire but failing, is an example of an attempt to commit arson. Reaching into someone's pocket with the intent of stealing a wallet is an example of an attempt to commit larceny – even if there is no wallet in the pocket.

Often accused persons use voluntary abandonment as a defense for this crime. Voluntary abandonment means that the individual changed his/her mind. The individual decided not

to commit a certain crime after realizing that it was wrong. If it there is proof that the voluntary abandonment was because the person feared being caught or because he/she was waiting for a better time to commit the crime, this defense is not allowed.

People subject to this offense are usually punished as if they successfully committed the crime. The death penalty is not applied to attempt offenses.

Article 81 – Conspiracy

Two or more persons must be involved to commit a **conspiracy** violation. A conspiracy occurs when people work together by agreement to commit an illegal act under the code. To prove a conspiracy, those involved must have agreed to the plan before all the actions have been taken. A person may guilty of conspiracy even if he/she is not capable of committing the crime. For example, a bedridden conspirator may knowingly furnish a car to be used in a robbery.

A person may withdraw from a conspiracy before the offense is committed. For example, suppose members of a unit were unhappy with the conditions of their barracks. They conspired to burn it down so that it would be replaced. Plans were made. Dates were set for the act. However, when actual materials to be used to set the fire were provided, one of the conspirators told the others he was going to withdraw. That person is no longer guilty of conspiracy. If the individual waits until after the arson is committed to withdraw, he/she is responsible for conspiracy to commit the arson, but not for any future crimes planned by the rest of the group. In some cases, an illegal act has to be committed to be charged with conspiracy. Under Article 134, the conspiracy charges include

intent to injure a Federal officer, to commit civil rights violations, or certain drug offenses.

Under Article 80, a person convicted of conspiracy is subject to the same punishment that is set for the actual offense the group is conspiring to commit. However, they cannot impose the death penalty on a conspirator who is not an offender as well.

Article 86 – Absence without Leave

Article 86 defines absence without leave (AWOL) as any member of the armed forces who, without authority, fails to go to his/her appointed place of duty at the appropriate time; leaves that place; or is absent from his/her place of duty, unit, or organization at a time when he/she is required to be there. Persons who are AWOL know that they are supposed to be in the specified location and for how long they are supposed to be there. For example, if the accused is charged with being AWOL because he/she wished to avoid participating in field exercises, it must be proved that the accused was aware that the absence would occur during field exercises.

In some instances, unauthorized absence (UA) may be more serious or **aggravated** because of special circumstances. For example, UA is aggravated if it is:

- For more than 3 days.

- For more than 30 days.

- From a guard, watch, or duty.

- With the intent to abandon a guard, watch, or duty.

- With the intent of avoiding maneuvers or field exercises.

The unauthorized absence is ended when the individual surrenders to military control or when military or civilian authorities apprehend him/her. When the unauthorized absence ends is important because it has an impact on the punishment. The chart below provides examples of the maximum punishment for each level of AWOL.

AWOL OFFENSE	MAXIMUM PUNISHMENT
Failing to go to, or go from the appointed place of duty	Confinement for 1 month and forfeiture of 2/3 pay per month for 1 month
Absence from unit for not more than 3 days	Confinement for 1 month and forfeiture of 2/3 pay per month for 1 month
Absence from unit for more than 3 days but less than 30 days	Confinement for 6 month and forfeiture of 2/3 pay per month for 6 months
Absence from unit for more than 30 days	Dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 1 year
Absence from unit for more than 30 days that was terminated by apprehension	Dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 18 months
AWOL from guard or watch	Confinement for 3 months and forfeiture of 2/3 pay per month for 36 months
AWOL from guard or watch with intent to abandon	Bad-conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 6 months
AWOL with intent to avoid maneuvers or field exercises	Bad-conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 6 months

Article 89 – Disrespect toward a Superior Commissioned Officer

Article 89 defines disrespect toward a superior commissioned officer as acts of **commission** and of omission. Disrespect by commission can be described as any act consisting of improper language including name-calling and language that characterizes the individual in an inappropriate way. If the accused curses at the superior officer or calls the officer a bigot, this demonstrates disrespect. Truth is no defense. An example of omission is the failure to provide the customary salute. In general, showing low regard or **disdain**, indifference, undue familiarity, or other rudeness demonstrates showing disrespect for the individual.

If the officer acts in ways that differ from the standards appropriate for that officer's rank or position, he/she loses the protection of Article 89. Maximum punishment for this act is a bad-conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for a year.

Article 90 – Assaulting or Willfully Disobeying a Superior Commissioned Officer

Any person who strikes, lifts up any weapon, or threatens violence against a superior commissioned officer is guilty of a violation of Article 90. Under Article 90, willfully disobeying a lawful command by one's superior commissioned officer is an offense. If this offense is committed in time of war, the accused may be punished by death.

By "strike," the MCM means an intentional blow, and it includes any offensive touching of the person of an officer, however slight. By "draws or lifts up any weapon against," the phrase refers to any action that is aggressive

and/or threatening toward a superior. It does not matter if the weapon is loaded. Any item with which a serious blow or injury could be given is included under this definition. If the accused were responding to an attack by the superior officer, the court would entertain using self-defense as a defense against this charge.

When an officer orders someone to perform a military duty that act in considered lawful. The order does not apply if it directs the accused to commit a crime. It is not justifiable to disobey an order because the order is not in agreement with a person's conscience, religion, or personal philosophy. The order must not, however, conflict with a person's statutory or Constitutional rights. For example, an accused cannot be ordered to testify against him/herself at a trial.

An important aspect of this article is the word willful. The word willful in this article means a deliberate intent to disobey. The accused has heard the order, understands it, and chooses not to comply. If the order requires immediate compliance, an accused's declared intent not to comply and his/her failure to make any move to comply is an example of disobedience. If the order does not indicate the time within which it is to be complied with, then a reasonable delay does not violate this order. Suppose an order was given to complete a duty within a week. The individual indicates that they will not obey the order. Since the order requires performance in the future, an accused's current statement does not indicate a violation of this article. However, at the end of the week, if the order has not been obeyed, the charge may be made.

The maximum punishment for the assault portion of Article 90 is a dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 10 years. Willful disobedience of

a lawful order may be punished by dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 5 years. In time of war, the death penalty may be imposed.

Article 91 - Insubordinate Conduct Toward a Warrant Officer, Noncommissioned Officer, or Petty Officer

In the Marine Corps, a warrant officer (WO) is a technical officer specialist who performs duties that require extensive knowledge, training and experience with particular systems or equipment. Article 91 is directed at warrant officers and enlisted personnel. The offense is defined by striking a WO, noncommissioned officer (NCO), or petty officer, by disobeying lawful orders of the above, or by treating the above with disrespect.

Article 91 has the same general objectives for WOs, NCOs, and petty officers as Articles 89 and 90 have with commissioned officers. It is designed to ensure obedience to their lawful orders, and to protect them from violence, insult, or disrespect. Unlike Article 89 and 90, this article does not require a superior-subordinate relationship between the victim and the accused.

The maximum punishments for Article 91 are defined in the chart below:

AWOL OFFENSE	MAXIMUM PUNISHMENT
Striking a WO	Dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 5 years
Striking a superior NCO or petty officer	Dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 3 years
Striking an NCO or petty officer not superior in rank	Dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 1 years
Willfully disobeying the lawful order of a WO	Dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 2 years
Willfully disobeying the lawful order of an NCO or petty officer	Bad conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 1 years
Contempt or disrespect for a WO	Bad conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 6 months
Contempt or disrespect for a superior NCO or petty officer	Bad conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 6 months
Contempt or disrespect for other NCO or petty officer	Forfeiture of 2/3 pay per month for 3 months and confinement for 3 months

Article 92 – Failure to Obey Order or Regulation

Article 92 refers to any person who violates or fails to obey any lawful general order or regulation or is **derelict**, that is, the person does not meet an obligation related to the performance of his/her duty. The accused must be aware of the general order, regulation, or duty that he/she was expected to perform.

General orders or regulations are those orders or regulations that generally apply to the armed forces, are properly published, and are appropriate to the command of the officer issuing them. In some cases, a person who is not a superior, but who all personnel are obligated to obey, may give an order. For example, a sentinel or a member of the armed forces police orders someone to stop. Under Article 92, all personnel must obey this type of order.

A person is derelict in the performance of duties when that person willfully or negligently fails to perform that person's duties or when that person performs them in an inefficient manner for which there is no excuse. "Willfully" refers to the doing of an act knowingly and purposefully. Negligently means that a person under a duty fails to use the appropriate amount of care to be sure to complete duty correctly.

A person is not in violation of this article if he/she is **inept**. An example of being inept is when a recruit who tries hard during rifle training and throughout record firing, is unable to qualify.

The maximum punishment for failure to obey lawful general order or regulation is dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 2 years. Maximum penalty for failure to obey other lawful orders is a bad-conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 6 months.

Article 93 – Cruelty and Maltreatment

People violate this article if they are guilty of cruelty, oppression, or maltreatment. In this article the victim must be subject to the orders of the accused. In other words, the victim can be anyone who, because of their duty, is required to obey the lawful orders of the accused.

Maltreatment is generally thought of as unnecessarily rough treatment. Oppression is described as using power or authority to keep a person down by harsh rule. This offense is not necessarily a physical act. Examples of acts that prosecuted under this offense include assault, improper punishment, and sexual harassment. Sexual harassment includes influencing, offering to influence, or threatening the career, pay, or job of another person in exchange for sexual favors, and deliberate or repeated offensive comments or gestures of a sexual nature.

This offense may be punishable by dishonorable discharge, forfeiture or all pay and allowances, and confinement for 1 year.

Article 111 – Drunken or Reckless Operation of a Vehicle, Aircraft, or Vessel

Article 111 basically refers to drunk driving. A person is considered drunk if the concentration of alcohol in a his/her blood or breath is 0.10 grams of alcohol per 100 milliliters of blood or 0.10 grams of alcohol per 210 liters of breath as shown by chemical analysis.

To be accused in this article, the vehicle does not need to be in motion. For example, a person sitting behind the wheel of a car with the keys in the ignition could be considered in physical control of the vehicle and subject to violation of this article. A person asleep in the

back seat with the keys in his/her pocket would not.

Reckless driving refers to operating a vehicle in a way that shows a disregard for the safety of others. It is not necessary that the driver cause an injury to another, or that the driver exceeds the speed limit, or operates the vehicle in a way that endangers others. These types of examples are usually used to demonstrate reckless driving. The driver may under this article be driving in a wanton manner, which means that he/she is driving that way on purpose.

In some instances, the driver may actually be involved in an accident that results in injury. The driver is the proximate cause of injury even if his/her manner of driving is not the only reason that the accident happened. For example, in order to avoid a reckless driver, a second car runs into a third, causing damage and injury. The reckless driver may be a contributing cause to the injury. Drunk or reckless driving charges that involve injury are obviously more serious.

The maximum penalty that involves a personal injury for a violation of Article 111 is dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 6 months. When no personal injury results, the maximum penalty under this article is a bad-conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 6 months.

Article 113 – Misbehavior of a Sentinel or Lookout

In Article 113, the accused was posted or on post as a lookout or sentinel. The accused was found drunk while on post, was sleeping on post, or left the post before being relieved.

Post is the area where the sentinel or lookout is required to be for the performance of duties. The post is not limited to one spot, but may include any of the surrounding area that is necessary for the performance of the duty. A sentinel or lookout is a person, whose duties require maintaining constant alertness, being vigilant, and remaining awake. This is in order to observe for the possible approach of the enemy, or to guard persons, property, or a place, and to sound the alert if necessary.

As used in this article, sleeping is the condition that prevents the person form being able to operate to the full capacity both physically and mentally required by the duty. In other words, it is not necessary that the accused be in a full deep sleep condition. Dozing off is an example of not being fully alert.

In times of war, the maximum sentence for violating this article may be death. In other times, the sentence may be dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 1 year.

Article 115 – Malingering

Malingering is when any person pretends to be ill, physically disabled, mentally unbalanced, or intentionally injures him/herself for the purpose of avoiding work, duty, or service.

Whether to avoid all duty or only a particular job, the accused is attempting to avoid a responsibility. In that respect, it does not matter if

a self-inflicted injury is temporary or permanent. For example, voluntary starvation that results in debility is a self-inflicted injury and when done to avoid work or duty, is a violation of Article 115.

For pretending to be ill, physically disabled, or mentally unbalanced, the maximum penalty is dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 1 year.

For the same offense during a time of war, the maximum punishment is dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 3 years.

For intentional self-injury the maximum punishment is dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 5 years. During a time of war, the maximum penalty is the same as above with the exception that the confinement period may be 10 years.

Article 118 – Murder

Murder requires premeditation, the intention to kill or cause great bodily harm, or being engaged in an act that is by its nature dangerous to other human life. Murder must be unlawful, i.e., the accused is not acting in self-defense or as part of his/her lawful role in the service of the armed forces. The accused must have had the intention of killing the victim at the time of the murder. If the accused was engaged in an act that was by its nature dangerous to human life, and that person knew that death or great bodily harm was a probable consequence of the act, he/she violated Article 118.

In general, killing a human being is unlawful when done without justification or excuse. In some cases, failure to act (an omission) may result in death and is considered murder. A murder is premeditated if the thought of taking life was planned or the omission of an act that

resulted in the death of another was consciously made. It does not matter how long the premeditation occurred before the act was committed.

If the accused planned to kill one person, but killed another by mistake, the accused is still guilty of premeditation. An unlawful killing without premeditation is also murder when the accused had the intent to inflict great bodily harm. If a person breaks into a house and kills the homeowner who is attempting to keep him/her from escaping, that person can still be guilty of murder even though that was not his/her original intent.

Great bodily harm means a serious injury. It does not include minor injuries such as a black eye or a bloody nose, but it does include fractured or dislocated bones, deep cuts, serious damage to internal organs, and other serious bodily injuries.

If the accused knows that an act is dangerous and the consequences of that act will likely result in death or great bodily harm, that act can lead to the charge of murder.

The maximum penalty for murder may be death or a minimum of imprisonment for life.

Article 128 – Assault

Assault is an attempt to use unlawful force, violence, or bodily harm to another person-even if the attempt is not successful.

Simple assault is an attempt to do bodily harm. **Battery** is the actual inflicting of bodily harm on an individual. Punishment is increased if the assault is on a commissioned, warrant, noncommissioned, or petty officer. Punishment is also increased if the assault is on a sentinel or lookout who is performing his/her duty. If the

assault is committed against a person of less than 16 years of age, the penalty is also increased.

Assault with a dangerous weapon with the likelihood of death or great bodily harm is called aggravated assault. Bodily harm means any offensive touching of another no matter how slight. For example, if a person swings a fist at another, even if the swing misses, an attempted assault has been committed. If the person swings a club at the individual's head, an attempt at aggravated assault has been committed. If a person directs threatening words at another, no assault has been committed. However, if there was a menacing act or gesture with the threat, there may be grounds for an assault charge.

Maximum punishment for simple assault is confinement for 3 months and forfeiture of 2/3 pay per month for 3 months. If the assault is committed with an unloaded firearm, the punishment may be a dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 3 years. Assault that includes battery can result in a bad-conduct discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 6 months.

Assault upon a commissioned officer can result in a dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 3 years. Assault upon a warrant office may result in a dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for 18 months. Assault on a noncommissioned officer or petty officer results in the same punishment, except that the period of confinement is 6 months. Assault of a sentinel or lookout may result in all of the above penalties, except that the period of confinement may be 3 years.

Assault that results in battery on a person less than 16 years of age may result in a dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement of up to 2 years.

Assaults with (1) a dangerous weapon, or (2) a loaded firearm, may result in a dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of pay and allowances and confinement for 8 years in the first instance and 10 years in the second.

Article 134 – General Article

The purpose of the general article is to cover all offenses not already specifically mentioned in the Manual for Court Martial that affect the good order of the armed forces. For example, this article covers actions, which bring discredit to the armed forces. These types of offenses are brought to the attention of a summary, specific, or general court martial where the nature of the offense and any penalties are determined. For example, Article 134 would cover abusing an animal in public. The summary, special, or general court that hears the case, determines the penalty of each action. The range of offenses is huge and includes more than 50 specific examples ranging from "Straggling" to "Carrying a Concealed Weapon."

Conclusion

By any measure, the Uniform Code of Military Justice and The Manual for Courts-Martial covers an enormous amount of information. These documents are important resources for any individual who is considering a military career. Not only do they spell out the types of offenses individuals are subject to in a court-martial, but they also provide information on nonjudicial punishment. And, they clarify in detail what constitutes a certain offense. Having the references of the Uniform Code of Military

Justice and The Manual for Courts-Martial are
extremely valuable tools.❖

Punishments and Discharges

PURPOSE

The Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) provides various means of punishment and for five different kinds of discharge from the armed forces. Nonjudicial punishment and the types of court martial have already been discussed in previous sections of the student text. After a guilty verdict has been rendered in a Summary, Special, or General court, the sentence will fit the nature of the crime, taking into consideration any relevant circumstances. These categories of punishment range from forfeiture of pay, to discharge, to death. What kinds of punishment are available to the military? How is the punishment made to fit the crime?

decision of the court. In some cases, there is a **mandatory** minimum sentence that must be imposed as indicated by the code. The court may impose any punishment authorized by the Manual for Courts-Martial ranging from the maximum sentence to any lesser punishment. The court may even decide a sentence of no punishment.

Introduction

The commanding officer's (CO) limits of power for imposing punishment are based on his or her rank. There are two levels of punishment. They are as follows:

- The punishment that a CO in the grade of captain and below or all officers in command can **impose**, and

- The punishments that a commanding officer in the grade of major and above can impose.

These punishments will be identified in the next section. Each court will have sentencing options that vary based on the severity of the violation of the Uniform Code of Military Justice. Sentences of each type of court martial are generally the

Punishment Options

In cases that are similar in nature to civilian offenses, burglary, assault, murder, etc., the military court will usually provide for a prison sentence, for discharge from the armed forces, and for punishment related to the military service. The types of discharges will be discussed later in another section. Military types of punishment are listed below.

Admonition and Reprimand

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

Restriction simply involves depriving a Marine of the ability to go where he/she wants to or do what he/she wants to do during off-duty hours. Normally a Marine is required to sign a log sheet at regular intervals while on restriction and can only go to certain off-duty locations, which the CO specifies.

Correctional Custody

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.

Extra Duty

Extra duty involves 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.

Reduction in Grade

Reduction in grade involves reducing a Marine to a lower a grade than he now holds. A CO can only reduce a Marine if the CO has authority to promote a Marine to the grade from which the Marine is being reduced.

Forfeiture of Pay

A **forfeiture** involves a permanent loss of pay. The only pay entitlements that a Marine can forfeit are base pay, sea pay, and foreign duty pay. If a Marine is sentenced to a reduction and forfeiture, the forfeiture will be based on the rank to which the Marine was reduced.

Extra Military Instruction

While this is not a punishment, it is often confused with extra duties. **Extra military instruction** (EMI) is instruction in a phase of military duty in which a Marine is deficient. The purpose of assigning EMI is not punishment; instead, it should be to correct a military deficiency. A valid example of EMI would be to order a Marine who failed the initial rifle inspection to reclean his rifle and bring it back for reinspection after working hours. The same example is not valid if the officer forced the Marine to stand the reinspection at 2000 on Saturday. Since now, the EMI acts as punishment, not to correct a military deficiency.

The Five Types of Discharge

At times, providing an orderly, efficient, and speedy **separation** (that is, the removal of an individual) from the Marine Corps is necessary. In general, the Marine Corps invests substantially in training every person who enters its ranks. Separation before completing a period of obligated service represents a loss of investment and requires increased enlistments. On the other hand, keeping Marines who will not or cannot conform to required standards of conduct, discipline, and performance creates high costs in terms of pay, administrative efforts, **degradation of morale**, and substandard mission performance. For those reasons, every effort is made to identify members who appear to be likely candidates for early separation; and either:

- Improve those Marines' chances of retention through counseling, retraining, and rehabilitation; or

- Separate those Marines who do not demonstrate the potential for useful service.

In effect, separations from the Marines Corps fall into two categories: **administrative** and punitive. Administrative discharges are awarded upon the successful completion of obligated service or are awarded by an administrative discharge board. Punitive discharges are awarded as a result of conviction for committing an offense against the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

There are seven ways to separate from the Marine Corps – five of these are types of discharges.

Honorable Discharge

An honorable discharge is a separation from the Marine Corps with honor. In the case of corporals and below, a Marine must have a minimum final average conduct mark of 4.0 and a minimum final proficiency mark of 3.0 to show proper military behavior.

Marines may receive an honorable discharge for any one of the following reasons:

1. *Expiration of enlistment or fulfillment of service obligation.*

2. *Convenience of the government.* The Secretary of the Navy or the Commandant may authorize the separation or release from active duty.

3. *Own convenience.* The Commandant will decide if this type of separation is granted. It is usually granted for the purpose of entering another branch of the armed services or accepting civilian employment with another government agency.

4. **Dependency** *or hardship.* Marine general officers may grant this type of separation for the following reasons:

   a. An undue and genuine hardship exists.

   b. The circumstances are not temporary in nature.

   c. The Marine has made every reasonable effort to relieve the hardship.

   d. Conditions have arisen or been aggravated to an excessive degree since entering the Marines.

   e. The separation from active duty will result in eliminating or alleviating the condition.

   f. The Marine applying for a dependency or hardship separation must have at least two **affidavits** from persons who can substantiate the hardship.

5. *Minority.* A person is less than 17 when enlistment takes place.

6. *Disability.* The Marine must appear before a medical or physical evaluation board.

7. *Unsuitability.* An enlisted Marine is unsuitable for reasons including ineptitude, financial responsibility, alcoholism, behavior disorders. Marines separated for unsuitability must be counseled first. If no improvement occurs, the Marine may be separated for unsuitability.

General Discharge

This type of separation is granted when the Marine's entire military record does not meet the standard of an honorable discharge. If a Marine of the rank of corporal or below does not meet an average conduct mark of 4.0 or a final proficiency mark of 3.0, a general discharge may be granted.

Discharge under Other than Honorable Conditions

A discharge under other than honorable conditions is an administrative separation from the Marine Corps. It is awarded for any one of the following reasons.

- *Security.* There may be certain risks or violations at a national level.

- *Good of the Service.* This type of discharge may be awarded if the Marine can be tried by a court-martial for an offense that is punishable by a punitive discharge. The Marine must consult with counsel and certify in writing that he/she understands the consequences of this type of discharge.

- *Misconduct.* This category discharge is given for continuous unauthorized absence, procurement of fraudulent enlistment by concealing a fact that ordinarily would have resulted in a rejection for enlistment, a conviction by civil authorities, or a finding of guilty of an offense for which the maximum penalty under the UCMJ is death or confinement for more than one year.

Bad Conduct Discharge and Dishonorable Discharge

A special or general court-martial may only award a bad conduct discharge. A general court-martial may only award a dishonorable discharge. These types of discharges are approved when the Marine is not fit for retention and when retention is not in the best interest of the Marine Corps. If the Marine is sentenced to confinement as part of the resolution of the criminal action, the Marine cannot be separated until after the sentence has been completed or the appeal/review process completed, which ever comes latest. Marines with a bad conduct discharge could lose the following benefits:

- Pay for accrued leave

- Transportation of dependents and household goods

- All veteran's burial rights

- Homestead preferences

- Civil service preferences

- Reemployment rights

- Veteran's insurance benefits

- Federal home, farm, and business loans

- Any pensions to widows and children

- Admission to low-rent government housing

- Social Security wage benefits.

Dishonorable discharges are the result of conviction by a general court of serious offenses such as a felony or desertion.

Conclusion

The Uniform Code of Military Justice and the Manual for Courts-Martial (MCM) provide a great deal of information about a variety of offenses and what their punishments may be. The MCM will often indicate what the maximum punishment may be for an offense. Each CO and each summary, special, or general court will impose the penalty that most closely suits the crime. They have a great deal of latitude in making decisions about the type of penalty imposed.❖