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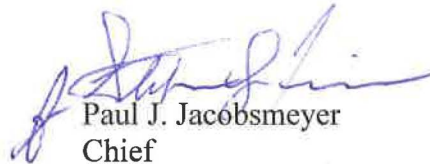
Mr. William F. Marshall
Judicial Watch
425 Third St., SW
Suite 800
Washington, DC 20024

Dear Mr. Marshall:

This is the Department of Defense, Freedom of Information Division, Office of Litigation Support response to your March 25, 2016, Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) request for "[a]ny and all teaching materials, including but not limited to PowerPoint presentations, handouts, and audio/visual productions, provided by the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI) to Equal Opportunity Advisors in all service branches to be used in Equal Opportunity training classes in 2015 and 2016."

The appropriate Department of Defense component located and completed a review of 2,670 pages responsive to this request; all of which are released in full and enclosed. Appellate rights are moot as your request is currently in litigation.

Sincerely,


Paul J. Jacobsmeyer
Chief

Attachments:
As Stated

CLASS 15-1
EQUAL OPPORTUNITY ADVISOR COURSE
STUDENT STUDY GUIDE



Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute
Patrick AFB, FL
January, 2015

NOTE: The references cited in this study guide are used for training purposes only and support the training objectives. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material. Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This study guide will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor. The content is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this study guide should not be taken out of context.

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NOTE: Materials found within this document are FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY. They are not authorized for use in local training programs.

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How to Use This Student Guide

This guide is to be used during classroom instruction and as a study tool to prepare for test sessions. It contains instructional objectives and materials for each of the topical areas.

Each lesson provides a lesson emphasis, instructional objectives, and reference materials that will guide your study. The guides are organized to generally follow the lesson/course outline. However, the instructor may on occasion vary the order of the presentation during the lesson or present the material not included in the guide.

Each student, therefore, should take thorough notes of the lecture content throughout the course, but not rely solely upon graphic reproductions for the course content.

Effective Habits for Studying

Try to develop and appreciate the following habits:

1. Take responsibility for yourself.
2. Responsibility is recognition that in order to succeed you can make decisions about your priorities, your time, and your resources.
3. Center yourself around your values and principles.
4. Do not let friends and acquaintances dictate what you consider important.
5. Put first things first.
6. Follow up on the priorities you have set for yourself, and do not let others or other interests, distract you from your goals.
7. Discover your key productivity periods and places.
8. Choose the morning, afternoon, evening, and study spaces where you can be the most focused and productive. Prioritize these for your most difficult study challenges.
9. Consider yourself in a win-win situation—you win by doing your best and contributing your best to a class, whether for yourself, your fellow students, and even for your teachers and instructors. If you are content with your performance, a grade becomes an external check on your performance, which may not coincide with your internally arrived at benefits.
10. First, understand others and then attempt to be understood.
11. When you have an issue with an instructor (e.g. a questionable grade, an assignment deadline extension), put yourself in the instructor's place. Now ask yourself how you can best make your argument given his/her situation.
12. Look for better solutions to problems. For example, if you do not understand the course material, do not just reread the material, try something else! Consult with your trainer, a tutor, an academic advisor, a classmate, or a study group.
13. Look to continually challenge yourself.

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA-1000

GROUP DEVELOPMENT



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an equal opportunity advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Provide information that will describe the group development theory. Using Bruce Tuckman's group development model, students will examine the developmental stages of group and behavior functions, which emerge during small group interaction; describe group norms; and describe the details of task, maintenance, individual function, and their impact on group development. Students will have the opportunity to apply group development theory during a series of related small group exercises and over the duration of the course.

Required Reading

None

References

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® Slide Presentation–Group Development
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how group development/dynamics impacts the military environment with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A Define group.	K	CRT
B Describe group types.	K	CRT
C Describe Bruce Tuckman’s group development model.	K	CRT
D Identify the differences between formal and informal rules (norms).	K	CRT
E Describe how personal motivation impacts the group’s dynamics.	K	CRT
F List group task, maintenance, and individual functions.	K	CRT
G Identify how small groups operate.	K	CRT
H Identify the elements necessary for group success.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

GROUP DEVELOPMENT

A. Definitions

1. Group:

Shaw (1981) defined group as “persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other” (p. 4).

2. Small Group:

A group small enough that each member is aware of and able to recall other group members (Brilhart, & Galanes, 2001, p. 8). Members can perceive, at least peripherally, all other members in the group at one time and are aware of who is in the group. Group members have an *interdependent goal* that all members succeed or fail together as they work towards goal attainment.

B. Group Types

1. Formal Groups: In a formal group, someone has identified a task that needs to be done, which requires some kind of organizational system made up of various roles for which individuals are recruited (Shaw, 1981). The task is what matters and everything else may change.
2. Informal Groups: Informal groups work the other way around. A group of individuals meet; they form a group and informally allocate roles among themselves depending on individual preferences, the collection of roles make a system possible and they may undertake a task together (Shaw, 1981).
3. Similarities
 - a. Interacting individuals
 - b. Taking on a role (more or less defined)
 - c. Acting within an organizational system of varying degree
 - d. Existence of tasks (i.e., completion required or not)

C. Bruce Tuckman’s Group Development Model

1. Principles of Tuckman’s group development theory

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) lists three principles that provide realistic expectations of group behavior.

- a. Sequential
 - 1) Specific stated order
 - 2) Occurs naturally
 - 3) Timing (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)
- b. Developmental
 - 1) Issues/concerns – must be resolved to progress
 - 2) Conflict/apathy – becomes the group dominant behavior; group disintegration occurs.
 - 3) Growth occurs – when conflict is successfully managed. (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)
- c. Thematic (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)

2. Dominant Themes

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) lists two dominate themes in group development:

- a. Task dimension: content
- b. Relationship dimension: maintenance

3. Stages

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) described group stages as

- a. Forming: Initially polite and superficial as each person seeks out similarities or common needs. While introductions are made, each individual is testing the amount of compatibility of his or her reasons for being there, with the stated reasons of other members. After a base level of expectations and similarities is established, individuals begin to challenge differences in a bid to regain their individuality, power, and influence. (p. 419-27)
- b. Storming: Probably the most difficult stage for the group because it is during this stage that group members realize the task is different and more difficult than they imagined. They become impatient about the lack of progress, but are still too inexperienced to know much about decision making so they argue about the actions the group should take. Members try to rely solely on their personal and professional experience, resisting any need for collaborating with other group members.

- c. Norming: Members reconcile competing loyalties and responsibilities. They accept the group, group ground rules (or norms), their roles in the group, and the individuality of other group members. Emotional conflict is also reduced as previously competitive relationships become more cooperative. By the time the group gets to the performing stage, they have settled their relationships and expectations.
- d. Performing: They begin diagnosing and solving problems, and choosing and implementing changes. At this stage, group members have discovered and accepted each other's strengths and weaknesses, and learned what their roles are.
- e. Adjourning: The final stage is the termination or disengagement stage where groups experience anxiety about separation and termination.

D. Formal and Informal Rules

1. To help create an environment where group members can fully participate in group discussions, members must develop a set of rules or operating procedures to coordinate their individual behaviors into a system.
 - a. Formal, written rules, *Robert's Rules of Order Newly Revised* (2011)
 - b. Informal rules: do not specify absolutes, but ranges; self-imposed norms:
 - 1) General: direct behavior of group as a whole.
 - a) Members should sit in a different position in each session
 - b) Members should address each other by rank/title and last name
 - c) Members should arrive on time
 - d) No one may sit in the Facilitator's chair
 - 2) Role-specific: individual members with particular roles. (Robert, Honemann, & Balch, 2011)
 - a) Facilitator should provide students with all exercise material
 - b) Facilitator should give students a 10-minute break every 50 minutes
 - c) Facilitator should provide students with timely and objective feedback
 - d) Facilitator should release the group on time
2. When using formal and informal rules, group members should

- a. Engage: Actively engage and participate in the group's discussions.
 - b. Observe
 - c. Evaluate
 - d. Adapt to the group's processes and needs
3. As a member of a group, you will notice a full range of human behaviors
 - a. Some members of your group may listen politely while others will interrupt and insult one another.
 - b. Your group will need to develop a set of rules and operating procedures to coordinate individual behaviors into a system. (McClelland, 1967)
 4. Norms have a tremendous impact on:
 - a. Task processes
 - b. Outcomes (Robert, Honemann, & Balch, 2011)

E. Motivation Impacts Group Dynamics

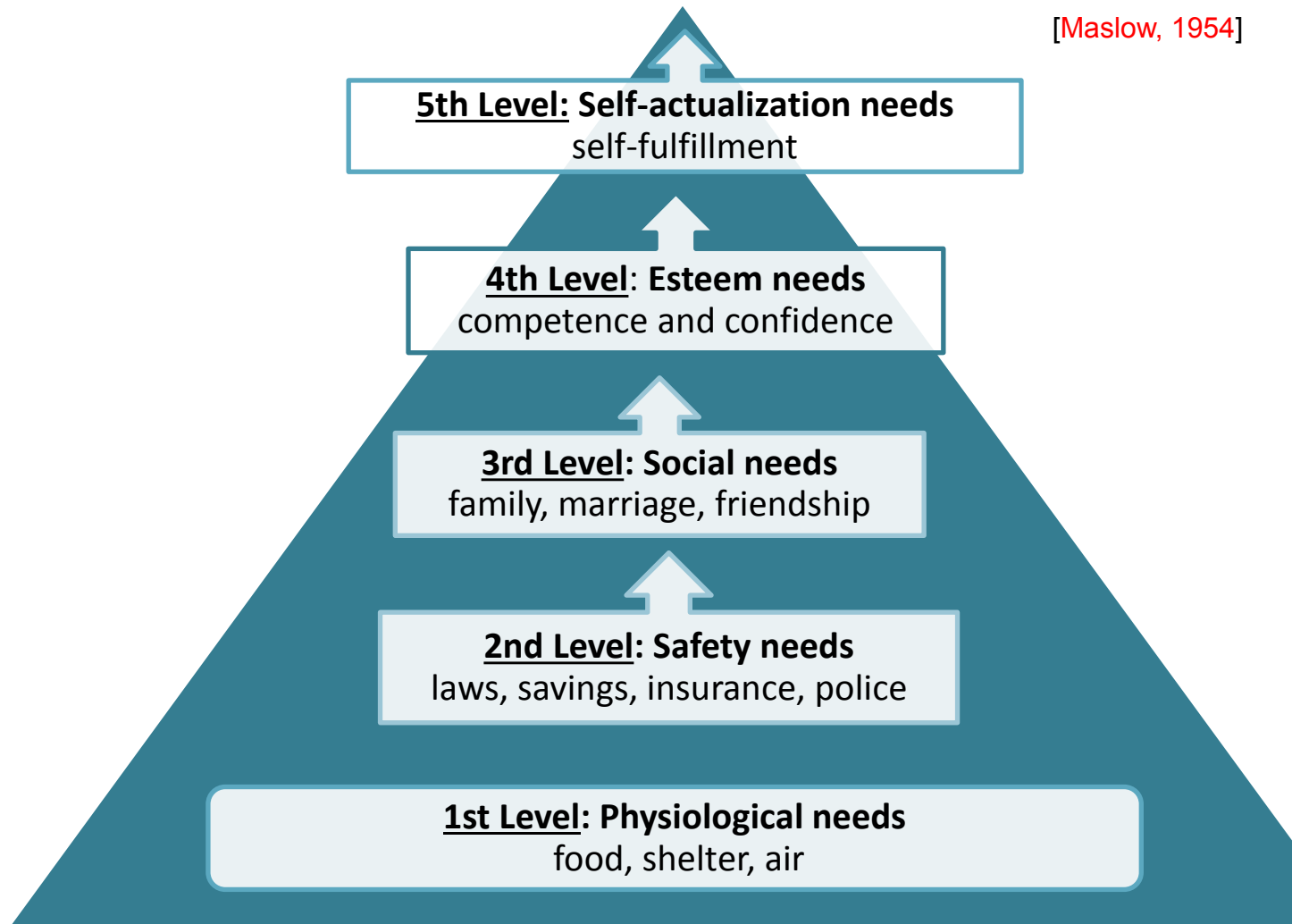
1. Motivation theory:

A general agreement that *motivation* is a concept that describes forces acting from within us that causes us to turn ideas into directed action (McClelland, 1967).

2. Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs:

- a. **Level 1: Physiological** (survival needs) – Characteristics: food, shelter, rest, air, etc.
- b. **Level 2: Safety** (security needs) – Characteristics: locks; savings accounts, retirement plans, and insurances; regulations, laws, law enforcement, and fire departments, etc.
- c. **Level 3: Social** (sense of belonging) – Characteristics: membership in organizations, fraternities, or clubs; friendships; marriage and family
- d. **Level 4: Esteem** (recognition or status) – Characteristics: desire for confidence, competence, mastery, adequacy, and achievement
- e. **Level 5: Self-Actualization** (self-fulfillment) – Characteristics: integrity, responsibility, magnanimity, authenticity, focus on needs of others, completeness, and fulfillment

[Maslow, 1954]



3. McClelland's (1967) needs theory

McClelland theorized that people are motivated by three basic needs. People possess all three needs in varying degrees.

4. Elements of McClelland's (1967) needs theory

a. Achievement

- 1) Welcomes challenges
- 2) Wants ensured success
- 3) Has conservative goals
- 4) Plans ahead

- 5) Takes personal responsibility
- 6) Needs hard data reinforcement
- b. Affiliation
 - 1) Establishes/maintains relationships
 - 2) Approval needs may affect decision making/implementation
 - 3) Strives to maintain harmony
- c. Power
 - 1) Enjoys conflict
 - 2) Strong speaking skills
 - 3) Autocratic decision making
 - 4) Situations are win/lose
 - 5) Can make people a means to an end/damage relationships
5. Determining an individual's motivation
 - a. Don't make assumptions from the behavior
 - b. Study the person/system in light of motivation theory
 - c. The best way to determine a person's motivation is to ask

F. Group Task, Maintenance, and Individual Functions

According to Benne and Sheats (1948) groups operate at the following three levels:

1. Task

Groups exist primarily to carry out a task and are so focused on carrying out the task that they are frequently unaware of the other levels of need operating at the same time—the group maintenance level and individual needs level.

2. Maintenance

Relationships in a group are maintained at a level where members feel safe and, thus, contribute freely and creatively to the task. The group consists of a constantly changing

network of interactions and relationships. If the group is to operate effectively as a group, they must have a growing awareness of themselves as a group and develop a need for maintaining the relationships within the team.

3. Individual Functions

Individual members bring their own set of personal needs to the group which infringe upon the group and its task. When individual needs are not met, members will behave in such a way to attempt to get their needs met. Failure to meet these needs can lead to nonparticipation, withdrawal, blocking, and other types of behaviors which keep the group from accomplishing its task.

G. Understanding how Small Groups Operate

1. Principles of systems theory (Senge,1990)

- a. Interdependence – the parts of the system do not operate in isolation, but continually affect each other and the system as a whole.
- b. Non-summativity – the whole system is not the sum of its parts, but may be greater or less with either positive or negative synergy operating.
- c. Interdependence with its environment – group members must interact with other individuals within the organizational structure.

2. Small Group Systems

Watt and Dillon (2005) maintained that small groups are systems with input, throughput, and output.

a. Input Variables:

- 1) Members share basic values and beliefs about the group's purpose and each other
- 2) Divergence of backgrounds and perspectives with a balance between diversity and similarity
- 3) Purpose and goals are understood and accepted by all
- 4) Resources needed to achieve group goals are available
- 5) Relationships to other groups and organizations are clear
- 6) Sufficient time to do work
- 7) Meeting place that provides for members' needs and is free of distractions

b. Throughput Variables:

- 1) Members are dependable and reliable
- 2) Roles are stable, mutually understood, and accepted
- 3) Members have relatively equal status, so they can exert influence based on knowledge, ideas, and skills
- 4) Norms and values are understood and adhered to, or discussed openly, and changed if counterproductive
- 5) Most remarks are directed to the group as a whole, not to individual members (no sidebar discussions)
- 6) Members are skilled and considerate when expressing themselves
- 7) Everyone understands and shares efficient procedures that lead to goal attainment

c. Output Variables:

- 1) Members perceive that the group purpose has been achieved
- 2) Members are satisfied with their roles, the group process, and their relationship with other members.
- 3) High cohesiveness
- 4) Consensus on the role and leadership structure
- 5) The parent organization is strengthened by the group's work

d. Environmental Factors:

- 1) The organization publicly recognizes and rewards the accomplishments of the group
- 2) Supplies resources and expertise the group needs
- 3) Provides supportive atmosphere

3. Stages of Development (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)

- a. As a member of a small group, you must be able to work out personal differences, find strengths on which to build, balance commitments to the project or task against the

demands of your everyday job. Otherwise, you will end up wasting time on struggles for control within the group and in endless discussions that lead to nowhere.

- b. As your group matures, you will gradually learn to cope with the emotional and group pressures you will face.
- c. As a result, your group will go through fairly predictable stages, as in Tuckman's model. The duration and intensity of these stages varies from group to group, but understanding how groups mature and grow through the various stages will keep you from overreacting to normal problems and setting unrealistic expectations. This course will explore each of the stages to provide you with a better understanding of what to expect in your group and you will be able to explain the stages of group development.

H. Elements Necessary for Group Success

1. Counter negative group dynamics

Scholtes (1988) contended the following would counter negative group dynamics:

- a. Clarity in group goals
- b. Clearly defined roles
- c. Clear communication
- d. Beneficial group behaviors
- e. Well-defined decision procedures
- f. Balanced participation
- g. Established ground rules
- h. Awareness of the group process. (p. 1–10)

2. Understanding its purpose and goals

The group

- a. agrees on its mission, vision, and goals
- b. sees the mission as workable, and if necessary, narrows the mission to a workable size
- c. has a clear vision and works steadily toward its goals
- d. is clear about the larger project goals; and

- e. understands the purpose of the individual steps of the project, meetings, discussions, and decisions.

3. Roles and Responsibilities

The group's roles and responsibilities

- a. has formally designated roles for each member
- b. understands which roles belong to an individual, which roles are shared, and how shared roles are switched (e.g., using an agreed-upon procedure to rotate roles); and
- c. uses each member's talents, and involves everyone in the group activities so no one feels left out.

4. Communication

In communication group members should

- a. speak clearly and directly (e.g., avoid using questions to disguise statements);
- b. be succinct—avoid long stories and examples;
- c. avoid interrupting others and talking when others are speaking; and
- d. share different types of information (e.g., sensing, thinking, feeling statements)

5. Beneficial Group Behaviors

Group members should

- a. initiate discussions, seeking information and opinions;
- b. suggest actions to reach a goal;
- c. clarify or elaborate on ideas suggested during discussions;
- d. summarize ideas and test for consensus; and
- e. keep the discussion from digressing.

6. Decision-making Procedures

Group should incorporate the following in their decision-making procedures:

- a. discuss how decisions will be made (e.g., when it's time to take a poll, when to decide by consensus);
- b. explore important issues by polling (e.g., asking members to vote verbally or in writing);
- c. decide important issues by consensus;
- d. test for consensus; and
- e. use data as the basis for decisions when possible.

7. Balanced Participation

Groups should

- a. have reasonably balanced participation with all members contributing to most of the discussions; and
- b. build on members' natural styles of participation.

8. Ground Rules

Group members should

- a. have open discussions regarding ground rules and decide as a group what they will be; and
- b. openly state norms (e.g., everyone deciding how to decide on an issue).

9. Awareness of Group Process

Group members should

- a. be sensitive to nonverbal communication (e.g., silence may indicate disagreement)
- b. see, hear, and feel the group dynamics
- c. comment and intervene to correct a group process problem
- d. contribute equally to group process issues

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented

- A. Define group.
- B. Describe group types.
- C. Describe Bruce Tuckman's group development model.
- D. Identify differences between formal and informal rules (norms).
- E. Describe how personal motivation impacts the group's dynamics.
- F. List group task, maintenance, and individual functions.
- G. Identify how small groups operate.
- H. Identify elements necessary for group success.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOAC 1050

SOCIALIZATION



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Lesson Overview

In this lesson, students are provided a description of the socialization process and its impact on individuals in the equal opportunity career field as well as in organizations. At the end of this lesson, students will be able to describe the socialization process, recall the fundamental attributes associated with self-concept, recognize Ego Defense Mechanisms, identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior, and discuss personal aspects of self-identity (self-concept) during activities in the small-group room.

Strategy

This lesson (as a foundation building block lesson) will outline the socialization process to include self-concept, influences, settings, defense mechanisms, catalysts for change, and strategies for change. During this block of instruction, we will discuss the importance of the socialization process, and how it impacts our day-to-day interactions with others. In order to understand the behaviors and conduct of others, we need to have a better understanding of their social make up, their beliefs and values. Hopefully, this will give you a better understanding of how to handle and solve any social issues and behavior problems that may occur within your unit during your tour of duty as an EOA. At the conclusion of the lesson, students will identify and discuss newly learned skills of socialization in the small group and in their future jobs as equal opportunity advisors. Following the lecture are two small group activities (i.e., How Am I Different and What I Was When). Eight hours of small group badge posting concludes the Socialization lesson.

Required Reading

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Student Instructional Material

- DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Socialization, EOAC 1050
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers
3. Video: *Massey Triad*

Terminal Learning Objective (TLO):

Given examples, non examples, and a study guide, comprehend how socialization issues impact the military environment with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

As part of cognitive development, each student must also develop their interpersonal skills by participating in activities while in-resident. It’s important to note that activities are designed to elicit discussion which may enter the **Affective Domain** of learning. In these cases the **objective** is for each student to *actively participate in various group activities and to “respond with interest” to material presented (i.e., express opinions, beliefs, etc.)*. To measure the Cognitive and Affective behaviors expected of the students during activities, the Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation (ISDE) form is used and each student must obtain a minimum passing score of 70%. Students are expected to demonstrate professionalism as they control their intrapersonal and interpersonal skills.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the socialization process	K	CRT
B. Recall the fundamental elements associated with the perception of self (Self-Concept)	K	CRT
C. Recognize ego defense mechanisms	K	CRT
D. Identify significant emotional events (SEE)	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior	C	CRT
F. Illustrate personal aspects of self-identity (Self-Concept)	A	ISDE
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

SOCIALIZATION

A. SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

The socialization process is an all encompassing educational process from which values, goals, beliefs, attitudes, and sex (gender)-roles are acquired. Socialization is nothing more than the educational process by which we learn everything. It's an elaborate process by which individuals become distinctive and actively functioning members of society. (Massey, 1979)

1. Definition of Socialization

- a. According to Charon (1987), socialization is defined as:

The process, beginning at birth, by which an individual acquires values, attitudes, goals, beliefs, perceptions, and gender roles; learns the expectations of society; acquires sensitivity to the pressures and obligations of group life; and learns to interact with others.

- b. The socialization process is the primary method of learning culture. Our values, attitudes, perceptions, stereotypes, and behaviors are continuously developed, refined, and reinforced through the socialization process.
- c. Socialization is the process by which people develop their attitudes, establish norms, and define their roles, which are necessary to function in society, specific groups or organizations.

2. Sources that Influence our Socialization

- a. Major influences that impact our socialization include (Anderson & Taylor, 2006):

- 1) Family: The most influential agent of socialization is family. This includes parents, grandparents, siblings, and other family members. They influence our etiquette, language, religion, how we live our lives, and how we interact with others. Initially, we adopt views held by our families. As we grow, other sources and settings become influences.
- a) Includes parents, grandparents, brothers, sisters, and other family members who influence eating habits, language, and generally how we live our lives and relate to others within the culture.
- b) Extended family: In some cultures within the United States, the extended family has more influence than the nuclear family.
- c) Where the family lives (i.e., in a house, boat, car, or other location) influences how members are defined. (p. 86)

- 2) Media (television, radio, newspapers, books, advertisements, music, and the Internet) reflects society's values and plays a large role in the socialization process.
 - a) Computers are also a major influence along with technology. We live in an information age.
 - b) Online social networking
- 3) The educational system (primary and secondary schools) influences individuals' socialization development. Teachers, administrators, teaching texts, and teaching techniques impose values on children and young adults.
- 4) Peers and friends influence social development. Examples include hair styles, clothes, definitions of acceptable behavior, and the introduction of values that differ from family values.
- 5) Community settings influence many of an individual's customs, mannerisms, dialects, and holidays.
 - a) Influencers: Customs, mannerism, dialects, holidays, ethnic migration, and industry.
 - b) Coded language, in certain areas, helps define separation of the population.
- 6) National settings influence attitude toward civil rights, work ethic, what is important, native language, and the national holidays we observe.

Note: Generational influences can be seen in all the sources that can influence our socialization. Examples include Traditionalists, 1922–43; Baby Boomer, 1943–60; Generation X, 1960–1980; and Generation Y (Why) or Millennial, 1980–present.

Generational traits develop during the formative growth years of that generation. For example, someone born in 1954 would be influenced by an early 1960s childhood and a 1970s young adulthood.

Within each generation family, media, education, friends, etc., influences affect people's values and attitudes throughout their lives. Largely, a generation is formed by the environment experienced in the early to middle years of its members.

B. SELF-CONCEPT

1. Fundamental attributes associated with the perception of self (Self-Concept)

The concept of self is an eclectic conception with a myriad of fundamental attributes, which are too many to mention. However, there are certain attributes (aspects) that are common with our self-image, such as the perceptions of how we see ourselves, how others see us, and how we wish to be seen, as well as the associated values and attitudes accompanying our self-identity.

a. Self-Concept Defined:

- 1) Self-concept is defined as the perceptions of ourselves that allow us to shape and reshape reality from our own point of view (Macionis, 2000, p. 68; Babad, Birnbaum, & Benne, 1983, pp. 563–568).
- 2) According to Reeve, 2009, the concept of self is an **ever-changing, progressive activity**; developed through our social interactions with others, enabling us to conceptualize or categorize our behavior—both external conduct and internal states.
 - a) Explains reality from our point of view
 - b) Allows us to conceptualize our behavior
 - c) Both the product and producer of perception

b. Fundamental Elements

Researchers such as Babad, Birnbaum, and Benne (1983); and Rosenberg (1979) identify three fundamental attributes associated with the concept of self, also known as the perception of self (The Three Parts of Self):

- 1) How we picture ourselves.
- 2) How others see us.
- 3) How we wish ourselves to be seen.

These fundamental attributes associated with “self-concept” are further clarified through the perception of self.

c. Perception of Self

Development of self-concept can be positive or negative, depending on how we think about ourselves.

As Babad, Birnbaum, and Benne identified the fundamental elements, Rosenberg, et. al. (2001) expanded the research and identified three elements that shape self-perception, as well as the underlying relationships:

- 1) How we picture ourselves

- a) **Membership groups** are groups to which we belong that are oftentimes unchangeable. They are acquired at birth and are usually retained through life. Common membership group traits include race, ethnicity, gender, and age.
 - b) **Reference groups** are groups to which we belong or aspire to belong that we use as a basis for judging the adequacy of our behavior. These include military experience, affiliation with organizations, educational background, geographic location, marital status, and parental status.
- 2) How others see us
- a) Membership groups (e.g., race, ethnicity, religion, gender, age, social class) determine stereotypes and views by which others define us. Membership groups are often unchangeable because they are facts of life acquired at birth. They determine how others perceive us, and these perceptions are beyond our control.
- 3) How we wish others to see us (possible gap)
- a) Negative and unwanted parts of self have been pushed away and can only be revealed through self-examination. It is possible a gap exists between how we wish to be seen and how we actually are.
 - b) The journey of awareness exposes undesirable parts of one's life, revealing many aspects of self that we may not have been aware of previously. This can be painful and uncomfortable to look at, such as when we see our stereotypes and prejudices.
2. Self-Identity /Image)

Self-identity plays a significant role in shaping our lives.

- a. The behaviors we project as part of our self-identity can be positive or negative based on how we think of ourselves, how we act, and how we relate to others. With a positive self-concept (self-image), we tend to be assertive, tolerant, open, and trusting (Macionis, 2000).
- b. Positive self-image enhances communication: Causes us to be more open to receiving feedback and more likely to provide feedback, be decisive and creative at work, and want to do a better job.
- c. Poor self image (negative): Causes us to do poorly at things, communicate little (if at all), and may cause us to exaggerate, deny, or even close our minds to new ideas.

Self-Identity and self-image continues to change with social experiences. No matter how much events change us, we remain creative beings. We play a role in our own socialization and the attitude (behavior) we display, which is based upon our values and morals.

Considering our Self-Concept (Self-Identity and Self-Image) what are the differences between values, morals and ethics?

They all provide behavioral rules. An EOA needs to know the differences; especially, when trying to persuade individuals of inferior social behavior, which may be based upon their values, morals, and ethics.

3. Values

Definition: Values are the rules by which we make decisions about right and wrong, should and shouldn't, good and bad. They also tell us which are more or less important, which is useful when we have to trade off meeting one value over another (Straker, 2010).

Dictionary.com defines values as:

“Beliefs of a person or social group in which they have an emotional investment (either for or against something); ‘he/she has very conservative values.’”

a. Value Categories (Straker, 2010)

We obtain our values through our socialization and culture. These values identify objects, conditions, or characteristics society considers important or valuable.

- 1) Personal values – Developed early in life, they may be resistant to change. They may be derived from an individual’s attitudes, beliefs, and actions.
- 2) Social values – Instilled early in life, these values put the rights of the wider groups of people first.
- 3) Political values – Beliefs about the best way to govern a country or organization.
- 4) Economic values – Focus on money-related issues.
- 5) Religious values – Spiritual in nature and include beliefs in how we should behave.

b. Value System

- 1) A value system is a set of values adopted by an individual or society that influences the behavior of the individual (Beck, D. 2003).
- 2) Socialization influences values and attitudes as it relates to daily life processes (cultural development).

c. Influence of Socialization on Values

- 1) Through observation, most of us learn through our social settings rather than depending entirely on instinct. Almost all aspects of human psychology and behavior are socially influenced, including languages, modes of dress, gender roles, etc. Our socialization process helps us avoid taboos, which are all agreed upon at a group level and form the basis of culture. All cultures vary, and each forms the basis for the attitudes, values and behaviors of its members. These are reinforced by social institutions and collective behavior. Within each culture, other social influences affect the behavior of its members (Anderson & Taylor, 2006).
- 2) If we have been taught to value a certain principle or behavior in a particular way, we are expected to continue with those values and behaviors.
- 3) An attitude is an opinion that one has about someone or something. It can reflect a favorable, unfavorable, or neutral judgment. It may involve a comparison.
 - a) Attitudes are established ways of responding to people and situations based on what we have learned (beliefs, values) and assumptions we hold.
 - b) Attitudes are manifested through outwardly displayed behavior. Body language is a result of mental attitude. No one can see an attitude (feeling); what is seen is the behavior.

According to Morris Massey, values form during three significant periods:

- Imprint period - from birth to 7 years
- Modeling period - from 7 to 13 years
- Socialization period - from 13 to 21 years

Note: Each generation has its own set of values and attitudes. For the first time in almost a century, there are four generations (Traditionalist, Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y or Millennial) with four different approaches to the world of work. The first step in utilizing these differences and minimizing conflicts is to understand the differences.

Responsibility of an EOA

In addition to understanding yourself, you must help others understand how their attitudes manifest in behaviors and how that can be counterproductive to mission accomplishment.

We each have our own set of values, morals, and ethics; we must respect one another even though our values might not be the same.

4. Morals

Dictionary.com defines morals as: “motivation based on ideas of right and wrong.”

- a. Morals are “standards of conduct” and in some cases expectations of social behavior.
- b. Morals have a greater social element than values and are broadly accepted.
- c. Morals are far more about **good** and **bad** than other values.
- d. We generally judge others more strongly on morals than values.
- e. Laws are supposedly based on moral codes and the principles of social morals as obligations on a community.
- f. Morals or knowing the difference between right and wrong is something we are all taught from a very early age.
- g. Morality is typically based on a cultural idea of what is right or wrong. Usually we know in our hearts and mind if something is morally wrong or right.

Some examples of bad morals could be: (Straker, 2010)

- a) Cheating on a test, lying or misleading someone intentionally.
- b) Stealing/taking items that are not yours or leaving a store knowing the cashier gave you too much change.
- c) Going against socially-accepted ideas of what is right or wrong.

Some examples of good morals could be: (Straker, 2010)

- a) Telling the truth regardless of the consequences to yourself.
- b) Helping others in need, even if it requires to go above and beyond normal expectations.
- c) Turning in someone who has stolen, cheated, or otherwise hurt someone even if they are a friend or family member.

Morals and ethics go hand-in-hand in the workplace.

5. Ethics

Merriam-Webster defines “Ethics” as a code of morality: a system of moral principles governing the appropriate conduct for a person or group. They are rules of behavior based on ideas about what is morally good and bad.

Ethics are critical to good order and discipline in the military.

According to DoD Directive 5500.7 (2007) *Standards of Conduct* DoD employees shall adhere strictly to DoD policy of equal opportunity, regardless of race, color, religion, gender, age, national origin, or handicap, in accordance with applicable laws and regulations. Individual conduct, official programs and daily activities within DoD shall be accomplished lawfully and ethically.

C. EGO DEFENSE MECHANISM

Ego-defense mechanisms are natural and normal. These defense mechanisms help us deal with conflict and problems in life and will sometimes create barriers to the changes needed in our socialization (*concerning inferior social behavior such as racism, sexism, etc.*).

1. Definition of Ego Defense Mechanism:

Coping behaviors that allow us to selectively interpret information when we are challenged on a value, attitude, or belief (Vaillant, 1992).

2. Function of Ego Defense Mechanisms

- a. When exposed to information that may challenge our self-concept and our value system, we feel inner turmoil.
- b. Our ego defense mechanisms keep us from using this information to change our perceptions (Vaillant, 1992). Instead, our values, attitudes, and beliefs stay the same.

3. Common Ego Defense Mechanisms

- a. Ego defense mechanisms serve a protective function, but they usually involve self-deception and reality distortion (Vaillant, 1992). Several ego defense mechanisms impact the self-concept:
 - 1) Denial – Protecting oneself from an unpleasant reality by refusing to recognize it.
 - 2) Rationalization – Taking a situation and turning it around to fit our need, thus not pushing ourselves to try harder. Permits us to give excuses for shortcomings and avoid self-condemnation, disappointment, or criticism by others.
 - 3) Projection – Placing blame for difficulties upon others rather than taking responsibility for one's own actions.
 - 4) Compensation – Making up for a feeling of inadequacy by seeking to excel in a different way.

b. Barriers to Change

- 1) Attitudes can only be changed once we have overcome barriers to change.
- 2) Personal programming is not encountered unless we experience a *significant emotional event* (SEE) that makes us aware of our unconscious actions.
- 3) The only way an attitude or value can change is through personal choice.

D. SIGNIFICANT EMOTIONAL EVENTS

Sometimes the best way to recognize inferior socialized behavior is through a significant emotional event. A significant emotional event and our responses to them shape who we are.

A Significant Emotional Event (SEE) is a psychological trauma phenomenon conceived by *Morris Massey* where a highly-stressful event or set of events in a person's life permanently changes one's core values.

1. Significant Emotional Event (SEE)

- a. A SEE is a catalyst for changing behavior. It's a moment when everything falls into place and one is able to understand an entire pattern of behavior. It's emotionally charged. Sometimes this is quick, but other times we need time to reflect before changing our values and attitudes. (Massey, 2007)
- b. *Morris Massey* cites examples of an SEE as:
 - 1) Birth
 - 2) Death
 - 3) Divorce
 - 4) Promotion
 - 5) Terminal illness
 - 6) Falling in or out of love
 - 7) Life-saving event
 - 8) Going to war

After experiencing a SEE, we may become re-socialized and changed because of a new learning (increased awareness).

c. Re-socialization:

- 1) Re-socialization is the process in which existing social roles are radically altered or replaced. Roles, such as spouse, parent, widow, prison inmate, and employee, for example, all involve a kind of re-socialization.
- 2) Erving Goffman defined re-socialization as a process of tearing down and rebuilding an individual's role and socially constructed sense of self.
- 3) Re-socialization is related to socialization, in which a person learns the ways of his or her society, but the re-socialization process denotes the activity of relearning. The person needs to eliminate something that was previously learned in his life that is now causing dissonance or pain. Two conditions must be met in order to achieve re-socialization:
 - a) the person must feel that something is wrong, and
 - b) that it is possible for change to occur (Fein, 1990).

E. STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE

As noted thus far, our socialization defines who we are and is ever-changing. There may be aspects of our socialization that may not conform to societal norms (especially the duties of an EOA) and may require an adjustment in behavior.

1. Strategies for changing inappropriate socialized behavior starts with recognizing the need for change. Being aware of our socialization will help us in deciding whether to accept or deny our current values, attitudes, and behavior.
2. Acknowledge inappropriate socialized behavior. Reflect on any learned prejudicial information about other people. Without this acknowledgment nothing can change. It is clear that if we can't talk about it, we surely can't change it.
3. Some specific strategies may include: (Allport, 1979; Combs, 1971; Egan, 1977; Gazda, 1973)
 - a. Spend time in self-reflection.
 - 1) Perform an honest assessment of yourself.
 - 2) Become familiar with behaviors that might be considered defensive, dishonest, or closed-minded.

- 3) Explore the attitudes that create these behaviors.
 - b. Become open to feedback.
 - 1) Talk to others about your recognized inferior socialized behavior. Another person or other people can help us with our changed behavior. Others can help us gain new information and hold us to our insights and our commitments.
 - 2) Use feedback to put things into perspective.
 - c. Make a commitment to change and make a commitment to a process of change.
 - 1) Accept new information.
 - 2) Listen empathetically to others.
 - d. Explore different perspectives, other than your own.
 - 1) Get information to disprove irrational thoughts, dysfunctional (inferior) behavior.
 - 2) Take the time to examine and challenge the thoughts that limit or devalue other people.
 - 3) If you have a problem with someone, see if you can discover why it is a problem for you.
 - 4) Involve yourself in new situations.
 - 5) Learn how to advocate something that is not comfortable to your value system.
 - e. Increase your exposure to or contact with those who belong to the group(s) toward which you have learned inappropriate social behavior, such as racism, sexism and other discriminatory practices.
 - f. Develop your communication skills (Listening & Feedback).
 - 1) Listen with intent to understand the point of view of others.
 - 2) Offer constructive and positive feedback.
4. Setting Goals for Change
- a. **As an EOA, you will encounter** situations resulting from conflicts in attitudes and values. By understanding how the socialization process impacts one's values and attitudes, you will have insight as to how these situations occur and how to reach a fair and equitable solution.

- 1) Goal setting: Goals should be realistic. As you see your goals accomplished, you will be motivated to change.
 - 2) Become self-motivated (and help others to do the same).
 - 3) When you are motivated or persuaded to change behavior, you are more likely to eventually change your attitude. By contrast, when forced to change your behavior, your attitude is less likely to change.
- b. **Final Note**: As an EOA, understand the cyclical relationship between attitude and behavior.
- 1) My attitude affects my behavior; my behavior affects your attitude.
 - 2) Your attitude affects your behavior; your behavior affects my attitude, and so on.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the socialization process
- B. Recall the fundamental elements associated with self-concept
- C. Recognize ego defense mechanisms
- D. Identify significant emotional events (SEE)
- E. Identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior
- F. Illustrate personal aspects of self-identity (self-concept) – Badge Posting activity

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 1100
PERCEPTIONS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

The perceptions process is the gathering of information in an effort to make sense of one's surroundings. This lesson discusses the perceptions process with recognition of the influence one's own biases and stereotypes have on the accuracy of perceptions. In exploring a systematic view of how individuals can gather the same information (raw data) and draw different conclusions (perceptions), students are better able to explore self, and more accurately identify their own biases, motives, and stereotypes. Commands are reliant on equal opportunity (EO) staff members to assess their organizations' climate with an accuracy unencumbered by personal biases, motives, and stereotypes.

Strategy

This lesson will outline elements in the perception process. At the end of the lesson students will have the skills to define the terms associated with the perception process. Additionally, students will become more aware of their own stereotypes, the source of these stereotypes, and how they affect unit readiness and mission accomplishment. One hour of small group activity, titled *First Thoughts*, follows the lecture.

Required Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

3. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Perceptions
4. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide, students will know how perceptions impact unit readiness and mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define stereotypes.	K	CRT
B. Describe the characteristics of stereotypes.	K	CRT
C. State the elements of the perceptions process.	K	CRT
D. Identify how perception shortcuts can impact your organization.	K	CRT
E. Describe the biological perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.	K	CRT
F. Describe the sociological/cultural perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.	K	CRT
G. State ways to apply a strategy to correct inaccurate perception.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test		
W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
First Thoughts	To examine the stereotypes of the groups of people with whom they interact.	ISDE

PERCEPTIONS

A. Stereotypes

Definition of Stereotype: “A widely held but fixed and oversimplified image or idea of a particular type of person or thing” (Oxford Dictionary Online).

B. Characteristics of Stereotypes

1. Allows justification or rationalization of behavior, self-deception, acceptance/rejection of groups, and to selectively maintain our perception and thinking about a group (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002).
2. Stereotypes have been said to be factually incorrect, illogical, and they are irrationally resistant to new information about the stereotyped group.
3. They are fixed, rigid ideas. The charge that stereotypes are fixed, rigid ideas means that people’s perceptions of groups are difficult to change once they form that perception.
4. They are either overgeneralizations or oversimplifications. Stereotypes are said to be exaggerations of real group differences, either through overgeneralizations or oversimplifications.
5. They are not supported by reasonable evidence. It is often suggested that stereotypes are based on illogical or irrational foundations because they are not supported by reasonable evidence.
6. They are driven by motives such as fear, rationalization, and prejudice.
7. They have an adverse impact on our behavior regardless of whether the implications are positive or negative.

Stereotypes (Good or Bad)

1. Is it bad to have a stereotype?

Generally speaking, a stereotype is just an empirical generalization. After all, we lean on stereotypes in a multitude of ways every day to influence our behavior. Whether you know it or not, you use them regularly to make calculated assumptions about the people you interact with every day. You use stereotypes to help gauge what you should say and how you should say it and you rely on them frequently to help you connect with people you don’t personally know.

Stereotypes are bad if they lead to discrimination of protected categories.

2. Is it OK to have a stereotype?

As long as such generalizing is done for the purpose of communicating better, there is nothing wrong with it. The truth is that some stereotypes can be useful indicators of human behavior, and, if used by responsible adults in an appropriate and respectful way, they can also be a force for good—especially good communication.

However, if a stereotype is established on false logic or information, then used to discriminate (based on physical appearances, etc.) then the stereotype creates behaviors incompatible with a military organization.

C. Elements of the Perception Process

Three Elements of Perception Process:

1. Raw data is seeing an image, hearing a sound, inhaling a smell, tasting food, touching an object or person, or being involved in a situation (Jones & Gerard, 1967)
2. The mental process is unseen and is affected by motives and driven by personal bias; catalogues experiences derived from culture, socialization, and experiences; begins upon encountering raw data; and is capable of being misinterpreted (Jones & Gerard, 1967)
3. Product: The perception, sensing, or interpretation of experiences. It is a shortcut to understanding people, situations, and the world around us (Jones & Gerard, 1967).

D. Perceptual Shortcuts

1. First and subsequent impressions are
 - a. Formed at first meeting.
 - b. Tend to go beyond the visible data and make further inferences.
 - c. Carry first impression forward into subsequent interactions.
 - d. Further information about person is modified according to first impression.
 - e. New and even contradictory information may end up being modified to validate the first impression.
2. Viewing people as constant:
 - a. Directly related to first impressions;

- b. Involves a belief that people will not, or cannot, change their behavior; and
 - c. With this assumption, time is not taken to get to better know people each time you meet them.
3. The concept of blaming the victim (Ryan, 1976):
- a. Sees people as the origin of action rather than seeing the contribution of circumstances to the situation.
 - b. Actions save time in sizing up a situation, ignoring factors considered insignificant or unimportant.
 - c. With an institution, people will blame the victim rather than attempt to resolve the issue.
4. Halo effect:
- a. Tendency to extend a favorable or unfavorable impression to unrelated aspects of individual's personality (Oxford dictionary)
 - b. When knowing something good about a person, perception is they have other good characteristics
 - c. When knowing something unfavorable about someone, we see other unfavorable characteristics about person. Impressions may be accurate or distorted about that individual.
 - d. Ineffective management of one's own perceptual shortcuts can lead to inaccurate expectations, impressions, poor choices in the work environment, unfair treatment, discrimination, etc., which in turn can greatly impact the success of our mission, the ability to be ready in a moment's notice, and the overall morale of an individual, unit, and organization. (Rosenzweig, 2007)

E. Biological Perceptual Filters

1. Perceptions differ between individuals due to personal biological, sociological, and cultural differences. These filters create products that affect the accuracy of our perceptions (Jones & Gerard, 1967).
2. Biological Filters: Personal biological factors affect the perception process through our senses, which help us organize and make sense of the enormous amount of information we are bombarded with on a daily basis. Our perceptual senses stem from our physiology (Halonen, 1996).

- a. Sight: Seeing a person will trigger the perception process. Judgments are made based on how the individual, group, or situation appears based on numerous criteria such as race, gender, age, appearance, height, weight, walk, dress, glasses, amount or type of hair, where we live, and etc.
- b. Touch: It is more involved than visual; involves direct experience providing immediate information; and gives both information about environment and allows communication with others
- c. Taste: People have different tastes; taste in food may be derived from our culture, family, and other experiences. Perceptions about other individuals can be based on whether we have similar likes in food and beverages
- d. Hearing: The perception process can be triggered by sound and hearing even if we cannot see or touch a person.
- e. Smell: The sense of smell can also trigger the perception process. Assumptions are made based on how people smell. We make assumptions based on how a person's car or house smells.

F. Sociological/Cultural Perceptual Filters

Sociological or cultural filters affect the perception process because they are the sum total of the learned behaviors of a group of people. These behaviors are generally considered to be traditions of that group and are transmitted from generation to generation. (Jackson & Hogg, 2010)

Cultural and language barriers can also impede clear communications. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking, seeing, hearing, and interpreting the world due to cultural values. The same words can mean different things to people from different cultures, even when they speak the same language.

G. Strategies to Correct Inaccurate Perceptions

1. Be aware of stereotyping.

Although stereotypes tend to make the social world more manageable, performance failures cannot always be attributed to ability or incompetence. The root of the problem may lie in stereotypes or preconceptions that others hold about groups to which they belong. (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, (2002)

2. Understanding the dynamics and processes that support stereotypes.
 - a. Listen actively for understanding and the speaker's meaning

- b. Paraphrase back to the speaker the message received
 - c. Listen with the same intensity to everyone. Don't think about what you will say next
 - d. Ask questions to clarify inaccuracies or vague statements. (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002)
3. Identify the appropriate application of facts, opinions, and assumptions:
 - a. Avoid distorting the facts, opinions, and assumptions to meet your needs.
 - b. Identify personal barriers (such as biases, motives, prejudices, and stereotypes).
 - c. Avoid stereotyping by distinguishing facts from [overgeneralizations](#) or [oversimplifications](#).
 - d. Recognize that thinking in terms of categories is normal human functioning.
 - e. Recognize that people consciously and unconsciously hold stereotypes as a result of social conditioning.
 4. Interact with groups different from your own or at levels above and below yours.
 - a. Your level—not just your close circle of coworkers and contacts, but others as well. Make contacts in the chain of command.
 - b. Levels above— make and maintain contact at echelons above you. For example, ask and attend staff meetings, social events, etc.
 - c. Level below—a simple method of contact at levels below your own is to use a concept called management by walking around or MBWA.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define stereotypes.
- B. Describe the characteristics of stereotypes.
- C. State the elements of the perceptions process.
- D. Identify how the perception shortcuts can impact your organization.
- E. Describe biological perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.
- F. Describe sociological/cultural perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.
- G. State ways to apply a strategy to correct inaccurate perceptions.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Dr.
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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 1150

COMMUNICATION SKILLS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to educate students on the effective use and development of communication skills. The lesson discusses both verbal and non-verbal modes of communication. It covers the five elements of the communication process, factors that impact communication, and information for effective communication. Additionally, students will be able to explain methods for improving their listening skills, including testing for understanding and identifying characteristics of effective listeners. Students will also examine the definition of feedback and discuss the guidelines for giving and receiving feedback. Students will be able to explain each pane of the Johari Window Model, how it changes, and why it changes. Completion of this lesson will enhance the students' communication skills for subsequent lessons and the small group environment, thus helping prepare them for their future roles as Equal Opportunity Advisors.

Strategy

The instructor will follow the lesson outline detailing the communication process to ensure students understand the many ways that human interaction takes place. This lesson will also help students broaden their self-awareness of giving and receiving feedback, as well as, effective listening skills. At the end of the lesson students will have a better understanding of the communication process and the skills it takes to become a more effective communicator.

Recommended Reading

1. Listening Effectively by John A Kline
2. The Johari Window

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Communication Skills
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective (TLO):

Given examples, non-examples, reading assignments, group exercise and a study guide know how the communication process can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define Communication	K	CRT
B. Identify the elements of the communication process	K	CRT
C. Describe the modes of communication and their respective elements	K	CRT
D. Describe the types of human communication	K	CRT
E. State barriers to communication	K	CRT
F. Identify the elements in the listening process	K	CRT
G. Identify benefits in effective listening	K	CRT
H. Identify the types of listening	K	CRT
I. Identify methods to become a better listener	K	CRT
J. Define the term feedback	K	CRT
K. State guidelines for giving and receiving feedback	K	CRT
L. Recall the ‘Panels’ of the Johari Window Model	K	CRT
M. Identify behaviors/actions that caused the panels to move change size	K	CRT
N. Identify the benefits of giving and receiving feedback	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

A. Communication

Communications is the act or process of using words, sounds, signs, or behaviors to express or exchange information or to express your ideas, thoughts and feelings to someone else.

B. Elements of the Communication Process

1. Communication Process has five elements
 - a. Communicators (sends and receives)
 - b. Messages (an object of communication)
 - c. Channels (Conduit for delivering messages)
 - d. Environment (physical location, personal experiences and cultural background)
 - e. Feedback
2. Communication Roles

Communication is a two-way process. Each communicator has a role in this process. It is the responsibility of the communicator to provide a message that will be:

- a. Attended to: Relating the message to the receiving communicator's personal goals or providing a vivid or surprising message element that attracts attention.
- b. Understood: Adapting messages to the learning level of the receiving communicator, providing opportunities for feedback, and adding value to the message content ensures that the message will be easy comprehend.

C. Modes Of Communication and Their Respective Elements

1. **Verbal Communication** is the words of your message.
 - a. Written communication
 - b. Oral communication
2. **Non-Verbal Communication.** It is important to study because where verbal and nonverbal message conflict, nonverbal messages are relied upon more. Nonverbal messages can have different meanings for different people. Nonverbal messages cannot be avoided - even if we do nothing, we communicate.

Body language is one of the most powerful ways to communicate nonverbally.

- a. Touching is perhaps the most powerful nonverbal communication. Anger, interest, trust, tenderness, warmth and a variety of other emotions can be communicated through touching.
- b. Eye contact and facial expressions can convey important emotional and social information.
- c. Smiling is a powerful cue that transmits happiness, friendliness, warmth and liking. So, if you smile frequently you will be perceived as more likeable, friendly, warm and approachable.
- d. Physical Space:
 - 1) Intimate – Ranges out to about 18 inches. Usually used with people who are emotionally the closest to us and then mostly in private situations-caressing, comforting and protecting.
 - 2) Personal–Ranges from 18 inches at its closest point to 4 feet at its farthest. At this distance we can keep someone “at arms’ length.” Much less personable.
 - 3) Social–Ranges from 5 to 10 feet. The most neutral and comfortable zone to start a conversation between people who don’t know each other well.
 - 4) Public–Ranges approximately 12 feet. This zone is reserved for public speaking, or generally, when talking to a large group.

D. Types of Human Communication

1. Intrapersonal communication is a conversation you have with yourself. The individual becomes his or her own sender and receiver, providing messages and feedback in an ongoing internal process. It can come in many forms such as:
 - a. Daydreaming
 - b. Dreaming in your sleep
 - c. Talking to oneself either internally or out loud
 - d. Reading aloud
 - e. Repeating what one hears
2. Interpersonal communication is between you and at least one other person. The most common type of interpersonal communication is between two people. The communication can be:

- a. Face-to-face
- b. By telephone
- c. Through written correspondence (e.g., emails or letters)
- d. Interpersonal communication can also include *small groups* of three or more people. Small group communication is usually to share information, generate ideas, solve problems, or to help. Small groups can include:
 - 1) Family
 - 2) Friends
 - 3) Social or work gathering
- e. Within *large groups*, the communication, while still interpersonal, is more often one-way with a speaker providing instruction or direction. Because of the number of participants, it is difficult for everyone to be actively involved in the communication. Large group communication can also involve mass communication or message transmitted to large, widespread audiences through print or electronic media.

E. Barriers to Communication

1. Physical barriers are environmental factors that can create conditions that adversely impact communication. These barriers can include:
 - a. Environmental - Bright lights, unusual sights, or any other stimulus that provides a potential distraction.
 - b. Noise - The noise of battle, equipment, or other people in close proximity can impede clear communication.
 - c. Objects - Closed office doors, large desks, or screens that obstruct view can be barriers to communication.
 - d. Distance - It is difficult to talk to others when you are too far away to hear them properly or they are too close for comfort.
 - e. Temperature - An environment that is too hot or too cold can block communication by changing your focus to your physical level of comfort instead of the message.
 - f. Physical Health - If someone is hard of hearing or is not feeling well, they may have difficulty hearing or concentrating on the conversation.

2. Perceptual barriers. Factors contained within the message, sender, or receiver can cause distortion of the communication. These factors can include:
 - a. Past experience - Depending on whether your past experience was positive or negative with the sender, receiver, or message, will influence how you communicate with the individual.
 - b. Hidden agendas - Sometimes the speaker may state one intention for the communication and may have a second, hidden purpose for the communication.
 - c. Stereotypes - Over generalizations, not supported by facts, that cause us to have fixed, rigid ideas about something
3. Emotional barriers are one of the chief barriers to open communication. Some of our feelings can include:
 - a. Anger - One person may be offended or in complete disagreement with the message.
 - b. Fear - One person may be afraid of the other person, afraid of the outcome of the message, or afraid of appearing at a disadvantage in front of others.
 - c. Surprise - One person may be astonished at a message that deflects attention into another area and the rest of the communication is unheard.
4. Cultural and language barriers can also impede clear communication. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking - ways of seeing, hearing, and interpreting the world due to cultural values. The same words can mean different things to people from different cultures, even when they speak the same language.

F. Elements in the Listening Process

1. Receiving – the physical act of hearing
2. Attending-Giving attention to what was heard
3. Understanding-Learning what the speaker means
4. Responding- Lets the sender know that the message was received, attended to, and understood.
5. Remembering-being able to recall or retain for later use

G. Benefits of Effective Listening

1. Improves communications
2. Control of the situation
3. Minimizes conflict
4. Shows that you care
5. Enhances understanding
6. Improves memory

H. Identify Types of Listening

1. Active listening - A process in which the listener makes conscious effort to listen for complete message
2. Inactive listening - Hearing only the words. The definition of this is the old adage, "In one ear and out the other."
3. Selective listening - Filtering the message, hearing only what you want to hear.

I. Methods of Become a Better Listener

1. Have a reason or purpose for listening.
2. Suspend judgment.
3. Resist distractions (overcoming deterrents). Identify distractions such as noises, views, and other people, and focus on the speaker
4. Wait before responding. Taking the time to think about what has been said is important.
5. Seek important themes.
6. Respond to comments.
7. Avoid response blocks that obstruct effective listening:
 - a. Evaluation - How it was said (good, bad).
 - b. Unsolicited advice giving.
 - c. Diagnosing/analyzing - why it was said (motive, cause)

- d. Topping-don't mentally try to one-up.

J. Definition of the Term Feedback

Feedback refers to a response from the receiver which gives the communicator an idea of how the message is being received and whether it needs to be modified.

1. Types of Feedback:
 - a. Evaluative Feedback: When an individual assumes that he/she can distinguish between right and wrong, or good and bad.
 - b. Non-evaluative Feedback: When you address and observable behavior.

K. Guidelines for Giving and Receiving Feedback

1. Giving Feedback:
 - a. Ensure feedback describes (non-evaluative) rather than judges (evaluative).
 - b. Ensure feedback is specific rather than general.
 - c. Ensure feedback takes in account the needs of both, the receiver and the sender of the feedback.
 - d. Ensure feedback is analyzed to ensure clear communication.
 - e. Ensure feedback is solicited rather than imposed.
 - f. Ensure feedback is directed at a person's behavior, not at the person.
 - g. Ensure feedback is directed at behavior the receiver can control.
 - h. Ensure feedback is well timed.
 - i. Ensure feedback is planned.
2. Receiving Feedback:
 - a. Establish a receptive atmosphere.
 - b. State what you want feedback about.
 - c. Check what you have heard.

- d. Maintain an objective attitude about the feedback even though it is about you.
- e. Share your reactions to the feedback, if practical.

L. Panes Of The Johari Window Model

- 1. Open/Free area: Contains “Things I know about myself and others know.”
- 2. Blind spot: Contains “Things I don’t know about myself but the group knows”.
- 3. Hidden Area: Contains “Things I know about myself, but the group doesn’t know”.
- 4. Unknown: Contains “Things that neither the group nor I know about myself”.

M. Behaviors/Actions That Cause The Panes To Move/Change Size

- 1. Behavior/action that causes the arena to move/change size.
 - a. Giving and soliciting feedback
 - b. Self-disclosure
- 2. Behavior/action that causes the blind spot to move/change size.
 - a. Soliciting feedback
 - b. Being receptive to feedback
- 3. Behavior/action that causes the facade to move/change size.
 - a. Giving feedback
 - b. Self-disclosure
- 4. Behavior/action that causes the unknown to move/change size.
 - a. Availing yourself of and being receptive to sharing experiences of others
 - b. Learning vicariously

N. Benefits Of Giving And Receiving Feedback

- 1. Exchange information
- 2. Achieve personal growth

3. Provider finds out about self
4. Receiver gains insight
5. Creates an open environment for effective operational and interpersonal communications
6. Aids in preparation for the future; not dwelling on the past

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define Communication
- B. Identify the Elements of the Communication Process
- C. Describe the Modes of Communication and their Respective Elements
- D. Describe types of Human Communication
- E. State Barriers to Communication
- F. Identify the elements in the Listening Process
- G. Identify benefits of effective listening
- H. Identify types of listening
- I. Identify methods to become a better listener
- J. Define the Term Feedback
- K. State Guidelines for Giving and Receiving Feedback
- L. Recall the “Panels” of the Johari Window Model
- M. Identify Behaviors/Actions that Cause the Panels to Move/Change Size
- N. Identify the Benefits of giving and receiving feedback

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 1300

COMMUNICATING ACROSS DIFFERENCES



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor. The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will provide information that will familiarize how people differ and communicate in many ways. Some of the most profound differences are based on cultural background, gender, and age. These differences affect the way we communicate with each other. Knowledge of cultural customs, communication style differences, and socialization can help avoid misunderstandings and enable better communications.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Star Power activity

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation – Power and Privilege
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how power and privilege impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify factors that impact communication across differences.	K	CRT
B. Identify factors that impact cross-cultural communication	K	CRT
C. Identify factors that impact cross-gender communication	K	CRT
D. Identify factor that impact cross-generational communication	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies to improve communication across differences	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

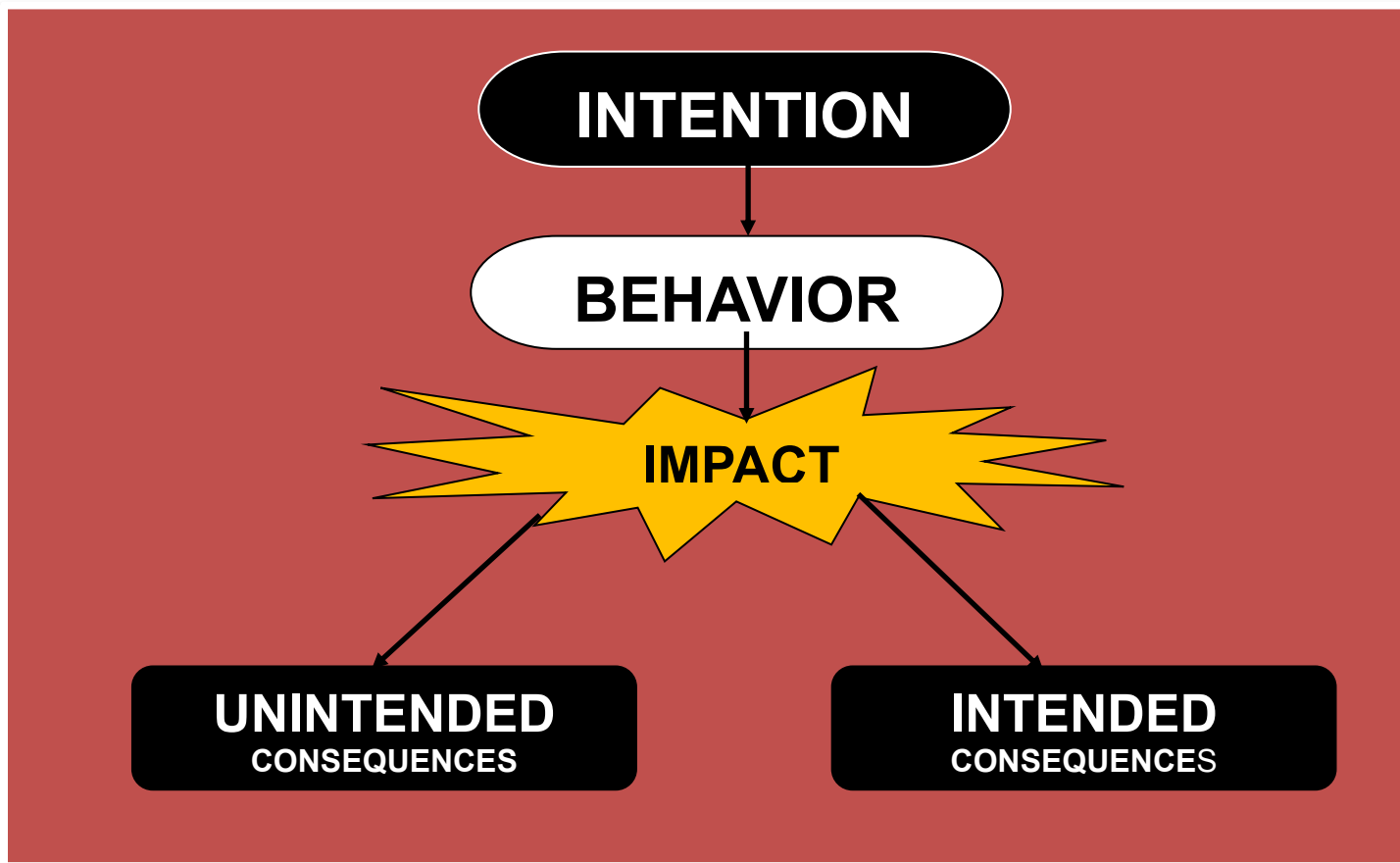
Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Talking 9 to 5	To increase awareness of gender communication and the impact it has on all personnel within the organization.	ISDE

COMMUNICATING ACROSS DIFFERENCES

A. Factors That Impact Communication Across Differences

1. Slang language usage
2. World views
3. Religion
4. Cultural background
5. Stereotypes
6. Race
7. Gender
8. Generational differences

Impact Model



The Regents of the University of California

- a. Intention versus Behavior: When we do or say something there is *always* an impact. The **impact model** illustrates the unpredictability of behavior when a message is received by your listener.
- b. Impact versus Intent: Occurs when the impact of the communication is negative.

- c. Rather than focusing on our intent, we should focus on the action and acknowledge the unintended negative impact on a person.

B. Factors That Impact Cross-Cultural Communication

Definition

Cross-cultural communication is a process of exchanging, negotiating, and mediating one's cultural differences through language, non-verbal gestures, and space relationships. It is also the process by which people express their openness to a cross-cultural experience.

1. Stereotype versus Generalization

- a. These two concepts appear similar, but they function differently. A stereotype is an ending point, and no effort is made to ascertain whether it is appropriate or correct; whereas a generalization serves as a starting point to learn more.

Stereotype versus Generalization Example

If you meet an Asian man named Jin and assume that he is very serious and formal, you are _____ him.

But if you say to yourself: "Asians tend to be a little more serious and formal; I wonder if Jin is." You have just made a _____.

- b. Culture is concerned with beliefs and values on the basis of which people interpret experiences and behave, individually and in groups.
- c. Culture is often at the root of communication challenges. Becoming more aware of cultural differences and similarities can help you communicate with others more effectively.
- d. Culture is central to what we see, how we make sense of what we see, and how we express ourselves. It is impossible to study the characteristics and nuances of every culture in existence today.

2. Cross Cultural Differences

Are based on unique perspectives, practices, and products

- a. *Perspectives*—The beliefs, thought processes, values, and worldviews (our ideas about how the world works) that encompass the philosophies of a culture.

- b. *Practices*—Behavioral practices include social norms, approaches to communication and conflict, orientation to hierarchy, power, class, status, and gender roles, etc., that constitute the norms of a culture.
- c. *Products*— These are tangibles such as food, clothing, books and tools, and intangibles such as songs, parables, rituals, language, and laws that comprise the artifacts of a culture.

3. Cultural Tendencies

American cultural tendencies vary, depending on race and ethnic identification.

- a. Identity orientation
- b. Direct/indirect communication preference
- c. Eye contact
- d. Gestures
- e. Emotion
- f. Speaking, turns, pauses

C. Factors That Impact Cross Gender Communication

Definition of Gender/Sex:

“Gender includes the social construction of masculinity and femininity within a culture and incorporates his or her biological, psychological, and sociological characteristics.

Sex refers to a person's biological or physical self. Although sex determines who will bear children, gender accounts for our roles in life and how these life roles affect our communication.”

1. Childhood Gender Communication

- a. Gender communication differences begin during childhood. From a very early age, males and females are taught different linguistic styles. Communication behaviors that are acceptable for girls may not be acceptable for boys and vice versa.
 - 1) Girls are told to use their manners, play quietly, and be ladylike. However it is okay for boys to use rough language, play loudly, and be rambunctious. Girls are allowed to show feelings.

- 2) Girls develop a relational style of interaction whereas boys develop a competitive style of interaction.
 - b. The greatest amount of influence on how we communicate with the opposite sex is through gender roles. People perceive things differently because they experience life differently.
2. Brain Wiring and Gender
- a. Male and female brains process information differently.
 - b. Neither gender is right or better, just wired different.
3. Gender Tendencies
- a. In general, men focus on statistics and relate by sharing stories to “one-up” each other
 - b. In general, women tend to share experiences to show commonality and build off each others’ discussion points
 - c. Stereotypically, women will communicate by using a passive/assertive style in an effort to achieve rapport, connection, relationships, and equality of status, support, inclusiveness, responsiveness, and self-disclosure. On the other hand, stereotypically men communicate by using an assertive/aggressive style in efforts to accomplish tasks, achieve status, and dominate the conversation.
 - d. Whether it’s *nature or nurture*, some individuals do not have any of the traits attributed to their gender. They may have been teased, harassed, or excluded because of this, which is why it's important to understand male and female cultural norms, but also recognize that some people don't fit the mold.

D. Factors That Impact Cross Generational Communication

- 1. Generational Types and Characteristics
 - a. Types
 - 1) Traditionalists (born 1922-1943)

- 2) Baby Boomers (born 1943-1960)
- 3) Generation X (born 1960-1980)
- 4) Millennials (born 1980-2000)

b. Characteristics

- 1) The timeline represents a combination of many views; this, the starting and ending dates (birth years) of the generations are subjective, not scientific or fully agreed-upon time spans.
- 2) Subjectivity poses no real problem since the variation of years is not significant enough to impact the big picture of a generation's description.
- 3) Consider other people's underlying values, personal and lifestyle characteristics. Identify individual behaviors, and match characteristics to specific generation type.
- 4) It is key to understand that not every person in a generation will share all of the characteristics shown in this table with others in the same generation. However, these examples are indicative of general patterns. Individuals born at one end of the date range or the other may see overlapping characteristics with the preceding or succeeding generation.

2. Communication Styles, Preferences, and Obstacles

- a. Traditionalists – Administrative, policy-oriented, letter of the law. Masters of the expert opinion, think tanks.
- b. Boomers – Megaphone. Brilliant message crafters. Good creators of content that aligns to purpose and values with appeal to higher purpose and meaning. Masters of radio and TV delivery.
- c. Xers – Independent. Not connected to an organization; focused on micro-subjects and personal expression of style work. Masters of the Internet, blogging and publishing resources.
- d. Millennials – Upbeat, rally together, focused on the activity and approval of their peers. Masters of mobile and hand-held devices.

3. Feedback Styles

- a. Traditionalists – Traditionalists seek no applause, but appreciate a subtle acknowledgement that they have made a difference. No news is good news.

- b. Boomers – Boomers are often giving feedback to others, but seldom receiving, especially positive feedback. Feedback once a year and lots of documentation.
- c. Xers – Xers need positive feedback to let them know they're on the right track. Sorry to interrupt, but how am I doing?
- d. Millennials – Millennials are used to praise and may mistake silence for disapproval. They need to know what they're doing right and what they're doing wrong. Feedback whenever I want it at the push of a button.

4. Generational Interaction

Feedback styles that may appear informative and helpful to one generation might seem formal and preachy to another. Feedback that an Xer thinks is immediate and honest can seem hasty or even inappropriate to other generations. Some older generations have been told that there is a time and place for feedback. Younger generations haven't necessarily been taught this rule.

E. Strategies to Improve Communication Across Differences

1. Negative Impacts

- a. Turnover rates
- b. Recruitment, hiring, training, and retention
- c. Morale and teamwork
- d. Perceptions of fairness and equity
- e. Grievances and complaints

2. General Guidelines

- a. Learn from generalizations about others, but don't use those generalizations to stereotype, oversimplify, or categorize.
- b. Don't assume that there is only one right way (*your way*) to communicate.
- c. Don't assume that breakdowns in communication occur because others are wrong and unyielding.
- d. Listen actively and empathetically.
- e. Stop, suspend judgment, and attempt to look at the situation as an outsider.

- f. Be aware of power imbalances.
3. Strategies for Success
- a. *Listening*
 - b. *Speaking*
 - c. *Observation*
 - d. Patience
 - e. Flexibility

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify factors that impact communication.
- B. Identify factors that impact cross-cultural communication.
- C. Identify factors that impact cross-gender communication.
- D. Identify factors that impact cross-generational communication.
- E. Identify strategies to improve communication across differences.

END OF LESSON

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366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 1350

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will help students recognize the manifestations of conflict and the types of conflict seen in the workplace. The lesson will also identify strategies for coping with conflict, and familiarize students with the systematic process associated with conflict management. Finally, the lesson will identify the components of the problem solving process to show how conflict can impact mission effectiveness.

Recommended Reading

32 CFR Part 83 *Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR) and Conflict Management*. Retrieved from <https://www.federalregister.gov/articles/2011/04/25/2011-9750/alternative-dispute-resolution-adr-and-conflict-management>

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Conflict Management
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how conflict management can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recognize the manifestations of conflict.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the types of conflict and associated characteristics.	K	CRT
C. Identify strategies used to cope with conflict.	K	CRT
D. Identify the benefits of coping with conflict.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the systematic process associated with conflict management.	K	CRT
F. Identify components of the problem-solving process.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test		
W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

A. Manifestation of Conflict

1. Primary Causes of Conflict

- a. Conflict is generally based upon three assumptions:
 - 1) Disagreement is inevitable
 - 2) Conflict cannot be avoided since interdependence between groups is necessary
 - 3) Agreement and maintaining interdependence is possible
- b. Conflict can manifest in many ways.
 - 1) When wants or needs differ.
 - 2) When individuals' values differ.
 - 3) Differing degrees of knowledge expectations.
 - 4) Differences in race, gender, ethnicity, religion, and age.
 - 5) Assumptions/perceptions.

2. Why Conflict is Destructive

- a. Diverts energy from more important activities and issues
- b. Destroys morale
- c. Polarizes groups so that internal cohesiveness is decreased
- d. Deepens differences in values
- e. Produces irresponsible and regrettable behavior

3. Reasons Why Conflict is Constructive

- a. Opens up issues of importance
- b. Increases the involvement of individuals
- c. Causes authentic communication to occur
- d. Results in the solution of problems

- e. Serves as a release to pent-up emotion, anxiety, and stress
- f. Helps build cohesiveness among people
- g. Helps individuals grow personally

B. Types of Conflict and Associated Characteristics

1. Characteristics of **Intrapersonal** Conflict

Definition: A conflict that occurs solely in the psychological dynamics of the person's own mind (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

- a. Takes place inside an individual
- b. Individual has built-in resentment
- c. Individual has conflicting internal needs, values, and attitudes
- d. Individual is not in internal harmony, but may be internally disagreeable and, therefore, is unacceptable to him or herself (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006)

2. **Interpersonal** Conflict

Definition: Interpersonal conflict is a disagreement between two individuals or subgroups of an organization involving significant resentment and discontent (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

It is a situation in which an individual or group frustrates, or tries to frustrate, the goal attainment efforts of the other.

3. Characteristics of **Interpersonal** Conflict

- a. Conflict which takes place between two or more parties
- b. Each has mutually exclusive goals or values
- c. Each tries to overpower the other
- d. Parties attack each other instead of the problem

4. **Intragroup** Conflict

Definition: Intragroup conflict is conflict that occurs between members of a group that shares common goals, interests, or other identifying characteristics (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

- a. By definition, intragroup conflict can be small-scale, such as within a workplace or large-scale, such as between members of a specific population group.
- b. Intragroup conflict can occur within an institution or community; "intragroup squabbling within the corporation" Disagreements and misconceptions might occur between team members, which create conflict.

5. Characteristics of Intragroup Conflict

- a. Takes place within a group
- b. Parties within the group behave as to defeat each other
- c. Manifest behavior (i.e., the resulting actions are aggressive, competitive, and argumentative)
- d. Conflict of interest (i.e., goals, values, beliefs, attitudes)
- e. Feelings (i.e., hostility, fear, mistrust, threat, defensiveness)

6. Intergroup Conflict

- a. According to social psychologists, intergroup conflict is defined as: "An incompatibility of goals, beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors between groups."
- b. Intergroup conflict can take many forms, ranging from a disagreement with the neighbors to a full-out war between countries. Though consequences vary, the cause of intergroup conflict usually stems from a few. Inter-group conflict applies to disagreements or misconceptions between work groups, such as between two project teams.

7. Characteristics of Intergroup Conflict

- a. Takes place between two or more groups
- b. Available resources are perceived as inadequate for all
- c. Each group tries to overpower the other
- d. Each group has mutually exclusive goals or values
- e. Perceptions are inaccurate or illogical

C. Strategies Used to Cope with Conflict

1. Coping with Conflict

- a. To cope with conflict, we must realize that disagreements happen every day. Conflict can arise from these disagreements and have adverse effects on us all. Whether at home, work, or in a social setting, we all have different opinions, values, goals, and concerns. Some conflicts are minor and others can become major. Usually conflicts are not resolved until we deal with them. Managing conflict require skillful techniques. These techniques are also helpful when dealing with disagreements, the start of conflicts.
- b. In coping with the conflict, someone involved in the conflict must decide to overcome the emotions and get down to the root of the problem. This is to say take a lead and try to manage the situation instead of letting the situation manage the people. Leaders must learn how to cope with conflict to be healthier, happier, and more effective in groups.

2. Strategies to Coping with Conflict

- a. Avoidance-----Lose/Lose
Withdraw from or deny there is a problem.
- b. Accommodating-----Lose/Win
Differences are played down; surface harmony exists.
- c. Competing -----Win/Lose
One’s authority, position, majority rule, or a persuasive minority settles the conflict.
- d. Compromise-----Draw
Each party gives something in order to meet midway. It is powerful when both sides are right.
- e. Collaboration-----Win/Win
Abilities, values, and expertise of all are recognized; each person’s position is clear, but emphasis is on the group solution.

3. Other Strategies Include:

- a. Talking About the Conflict
Do not expect others to know what you’re thinking.

- b. **Recognize Differences**
Recognize and understand that people are going to have different beliefs, opinions, values, and morals.
- c. **Prevent Escalation**
Do not allow a minor argument to turn into a big one.
- d. **Encourage Communication**
Encourage every person involved in the conflict to voice their feelings or opinions about the issue and then identify the main point of contention.
- e. **Remain Calm**
It is easy to get upset when someone hurts your feelings, whether it's intentional or not. It is your conflict resolution skills that enable you to gain a deeper understanding of yourself and build more trusting relationships.

D. Benefits of Coping with Conflict

Conflict can have benefits. Healthy conflict provides you with the skills to develop better relationships, gain an understanding of yourself, increase your resolution skills, and avoid negative and damaging reactions.

- 1. Deals with reality
- 2. Confronts the real problem
- 3. Keeps identity and roles separate
- 4. Can assist the EOA in the organization

E. The Systematic Process Associated with Conflict Management

- 1. **Conflict Management Defined**

According to the 32 CFR, Part 83, conflict management is defined as, “A systemic process used to proactively identify and manage, at the earliest stage possible, conflict that can lead to one or more disputes, for the purpose of reducing the incidence of disputes and increasing the likelihood that disputes that do arise may be resolved efficiently, effectively, and expeditiously.”

- 2. **Purpose**

It is a federal requirement to follow a framework for encouraging the expanded use of alternative means of dispute resolution and conflict management practices as an integral part of normal business practices (see 32 CFR, Part 83). The Department of Defense shall foster and advance collaboration and coordination among the DoD components on the use of conflict management techniques and practices.

3. Conflict Management Techniques

Federal and DoD personnel are encouraged to identify and address underlying conflict in order to prevent and avoid disputes. The following are some recognized conflict management techniques and practices (skills) to help avoid or resolve disputes.

Techniques used in the process include, but are not limited to, structured unassisted negotiation (e.g., use of interest-based negotiation techniques), joint or collaborative problem-solving, coaching, and the design of an integrated conflict management system.

4. Negotiation

- a. It is a formal discussion to reach agreement about an issue.
- b. It is an important method to reduce conflict and to get things done.
- c. The style of negotiation best suited for mediations is called interest-based negotiation, or “IBN.” The theory of IBN is that parties are much more likely to come to a mutually satisfactory outcome when their respective interests are met than they are when one “position” wins over the other.
- d. Most negotiations ultimately involve the question of how to distribute something among the disputants or negotiating parties, whether it is money, property, benefits, or obligations.
 - 1) Diagnosis: The ability to determine the nature of conflict.
 - 2) Initiation: Influencing someone to change a behavior that may be causing the problem.
 - 3) Listening: Very important. Ability to hear the other’s point of view. Listen, reflect, paraphrase, and clarify.

5. Mediation

Mediation is a form of negotiation between two parties where a third party neutral assists or facilitates a settlement, which is amenable to and voluntarily accepted by both parties.

6. Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR)

Any procedure that is used to resolve issues in controversy, including, but not limited to, conciliation, facilitation, mediation, fact-finding, mini-trials, arbitration, and use of Ombudsmen, or any combination thereof.

7. Coaching

As a professional in a coaching role, you educate managers and supervisors as you work with them as a supportive partner and coach. Your goal is to increase an individual's self-sufficiency. You provide tools needed to help others be successful in their occupation and interpersonal functions.

8. Problem Solving

a. There are many ways to solve problems. There is no one right way. However, using problem-solving procedures may help find the best response to the situation.

b. The following are two highly recognized procedures:

1) Six-Step Problem-Solving Process

2) APIE

Both have similar components in the problem solving process.

F. Components of the Problem-Solving Process

1. Six-Step Problem-Solving Process

a. Identify and Select the Problem

1) Step back from the issue (conflict) and try to understand both sides of the problem.

2) The goal at this initial stage is to say what you want and to listen to what the other person wants.

3) Define the things that you both agree on, as well as the ideas that have caused the disagreement.

4) It is important to listen actively to what the other is saying, use "I" statements and avoid blame.

5) Sometimes problems are so big you have to break them down into smaller, workable problems and attack each small problem first. By doing this, a problem is not so overwhelming that you don't know where to start. So if the problem is too big, refine it.

- 6) This should be thoroughly thought through and agreed upon so everyone is on the same page.
- b. Analyze the Problem (Gather Information)
 - 1) Analyzing means to gather information.
 - 2) If there is not enough information, figure out how to research and collect it.
 - 3) Once the information is gathered, take a very close look at what is going on.
 - 4) Try to come to consensus on why the particular problem or issue occurs.
 - c. List Possible Solution(s)
 - 1) This is the brainstorming phase.
 - 2) Draw on the points that you both agree on and your shared goals generate a list of as many ideas as you can for solving the problem, regardless of how feasible they might be.
 - 3) There are no wrong answers here, and judgments should not be passed on another person's suggestions.
 - 4) Toward the end of this brainstorming session, allow time for each person to clarify his or her suggestion so there is a common understanding for a later selection.
 - d. Select and Plan the Best Solution
 - 1) It is important for each party to be honest in this phase.
 - 2) The group should prioritize the solutions into what would work the best. This is a slow process of elimination.
 - 3) There may be some possible suggestions that are immediately eliminated.
 - 4) Eventually, the group boils down the choices to one or two best solutions. The solutions might not be ideal for either party and may involve compromise or consensus on the best solution.
 - 5) Select the solution that seems mutually acceptable, even if it is not perfect for either party.
 - 6) As long as it seems fair and there is a mutual commitment to work with the decision, the conflict has a chance for resolution.

e. Implement the Solution

- 1) It is important to agree on the details of what each party must do.
- 2) Discuss who is responsible for implementing various parts of the agreement, and what to do in case the agreement starts to break down.

f. Evaluate the Solution

This is an ongoing step.

- 1) Make it a point to ask the other parties' from time to time how things are going.
- 2) Something unexpected might have come up or some aspect of the problem may have been overlooked. Your decisions should be seen as open to revision, as long as the revisions are agreed upon mutually.

2. The Problem-Solving Process can be Summarized Using the APIE Model

The APIE Model defines a four (4) step process; however, it aligns with the six (6) step process.

- a. Step No.1: Assess the Problem(s)
- b. Step No. 2: Plan a Solution(s)
- c. Step No. 3: Implement the Solution(s)
- d. Step No. 4: Evaluate the Outcome

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recognize the manifestations of conflict.
- B. Recognize the types of conflict and associated characteristics.
- C. Identify strategies used to cope with conflict.
- D. Identify the benefits of coping with conflict.
- E. Recognize the systematic process associated with conflict management.
- F. Identify components of the problem-solving process.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA-1450

INDIVIDUAL DIVERSITY



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Reference materials from non-federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding the concept of individual diversity is vital for an EOA. An EO Professional will need to identify the concept of individual diversity, broaden their self-awareness of diversity, and recognize that each individual is a unique and valued asset to achieving mission effectiveness.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Individual Diversity
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers.

Terminal Learning Objective (TLO)

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how individual diversity can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. State DoD and the Services definition for diversity	K	CRT
B. Recognize the importance of diversity in the workplace	K	CRT
C. Recognize the relationship between diversity and inclusion	K	CRT
D. Identify primary and secondary dimensions of diversity	K	CRT
E. List the dimensions of diversity that exert an impact on the socialization process	K	CRT
F. Identify individual diversity strategies	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

INDIVIDUAL DIVERSITY

A. Definitions of Diversity

1. Diversity

According to Webster's dictionary (online, 2014), diversity is "The condition of having or being composed of differing elements: variety, especially: the inclusion of different types of people (as people of different races or cultures) in a group or organization"

2. DoD Definition of Diversity

Diversity is a military necessity AF/A1DV, 2013).

DoD Directive 1020.02 (2009) defines diversity as:

"The different characteristics and attributes of individuals."

To effectively manage diversity, several of the armed services have established diversity offices or departments as well as issued official definitions for diversity.

3. Air Force Definition of Diversity

Diversity in the Air Force, according to the Air Force Global Diversity Division, AF/A1DV (2013), is broadly defined as a composite of individual characteristics, experiences, and abilities consistent with the Air Force Core Values and the Air Force Mission.

The Air Force AF/A1DV (2013) further goes on to state: Air Force diversity includes, but is not limited to, personal life experiences, geographic background, socioeconomic background, cultural knowledge, educational background, work background, language abilities, physical abilities, philosophical/spiritual perspectives, age, race, ethnicity and gender.

<http://www.af.mil/diversity.asp>

4. Army Definition of Diversity

The Army Diversity Strength in Diversity (2014) website defines diversity as: the different attributes, experiences, and backgrounds of our soldiers, civilians, and family members that further enhance our global capabilities and contribute to an adaptive, culturally astute Army [Army Diversity Strength in Diversity. 2013].

<http://www.armydiversity.army.mil/>

5. Coast Guard Definition of Diversity

Diversity is variety. All the characteristics, experiences, and differences of each individual (U.S. Coast Guard Office of Diversity [CG-12B], 2013).

<http://www.uscg.mil/diversity/>

6. Navy Definition of Diversity

All the different characteristics and attributes of individual sailors and civilians that enhance the mission readiness of the Navy (U.S. Navy, 2013).

<http://www.npc.navy.mil/CommandSupport/Diversity/>

B. The Importance of Diversity In The Workplace

1. Why Diversity Matters

- a. In January of 2005, the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO) published a report (GAO-05-90) titled, "Diversity Management: Expert-Identified Leading Practices and Agency Examples."
- b. According to the report, high-performance organizations typically :
 - 1) Foster a work environment in which people are enabled and motivated to contribute to mission accomplishments
 - 2) Provide both accountability and fairness for all employees.

To accomplish these objectives, high-performance organizations are inclusive, drawing on the strengths of employees at all levels and of all backgrounds—an approach consistent with diversity management (USGS, 2014, P. 1, & GAO, 2005, p. 2).

2. Diversity Is Critical to Readiness

- a. The Acting under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness, Jessica Wright, says the Defense Department not only talks "about diversity in terms of race and gender, and ethnicity, but it is much more than that in my mind." She declared **that diversity included "your thought process, how you grew up, [and] what you can add to the greater good because of your background."** (<http://www.nationalreview.com/corner/362539/pentagons-chief-personnel-and-readiness-officer-diversity-and-inclusion-critical>)
 - 1) Current combat missions and terrorism operate among diverse cultures.

- 2) Increased need for specialized talent (i.e. foreign language interpreters and medical professionals)
 - 3) Increased use of collaborative work structures.
- b. For diversity to add value, it is critical that each of us open our minds and make a sincere effort to understand the perspectives of others. There is never a guarantee that people with different perspectives will come to agreement, nor should there be.
3. Benefits of Diversity
- a. It leads to increased effectiveness, innovation, improved problem solving, greater cohesion, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, competitiveness, and enhanced mission readiness.
 - b. How this relates to your role as an EOA
 - 1) Your comfort around diversity will prove useful during conflict resolutions as you will be better equipped to take other's perspective.
 - 2) When reviewing climate assessment survey data you can determine if your organization fosters a climate conducive to support diversity.

C. Relationship between Diversity and Inclusion

1. As identified in the definitions, the word ***diversity*** represents a large group comprised of different people with different experiences.
2. Individual differences can include *race, color, religion, gender, sex, national origin, socio-economic status, sexual orientation, age, disability, veteran status*. However, "diversity" does not address how these differences function.
 - a. This is where inclusion comes into play. ***Inclusion*** enables us to strive to have all people represented and included in the Federal workforce, and make all members feel welcomed and valued, not only for their abilities, but also for their unique qualities and perspectives.
 - b. The focus of *inclusion* and *diversity* is to create a culture that encourages all employees to be successful, regardless of their differences.
3. In August 2011, President Obama established a Coordinated Government-wide Initiative to Promote Diversity and Inclusion in the Federal Workforce (Executive Order 13583)
 - a. The Executive Order states that: A commitment to equal opportunity, diversity, and inclusion is critical for the Federal Government as an employer. By law, the Federal

Government's recruitment policies should "endeavor to achieve a work force from all segments of society." (5 U.S.C. 2301(b) (1)).

- b. To realize more fully the goal of using the talents of all segments of society, the Federal Government must continue to challenge itself to enhance its ability to recruit, hire, promote, and retain a more diverse workforce. Further, the Federal Government must create a culture that encourages collaboration, flexibility, and fairness to enable individuals to participate to their full potential. (Executive Order 13583, 2011).

4. Diversity and EO

- a. Workplace EO programs are concerned with issues of fairness and equity based upon Title VII Civil Rights Act of 1964.
- b. People sometimes incorrectly think the word “diversity” is synonymous with “Equal Opportunity.”
- c. Diversity and inclusion programs, on the other hand, are strategic in focus. They strive to capitalize on strengths within the workforce, while minimizing weaknesses that inhibit optimal organizational performance.

D. Dimensions of Diversity

The dimensions of diversity are characteristics that describe people, both negative and positive.

Differences between people can pose a potential impediment, but such obstacles can be resolved by supportive leaders who create a pro-diversity climate.

The term diversity has evolved over the years and its meaning has expanded in scope.

Diversity now has become a broad term which includes overt (primary) and covert (secondary) dimensions, and characteristics that may be used to group individuals (Loden, 1996).

1. Loden's Primary Dimensions

The primary dimensions, as shown in the inner circle of the Dimensions of Diversity wheel (Loden, M. (1996). *Implementing diversity*), are the properties and characteristics that constitute the core of our diverse identities.

- a. Loden's (1996) Primary Dimensions include:

- 1) Age

- 2) Ethnicity
- 3) Gender
- 4) Mental/physical abilities and characteristics
- 5) Race
- 6) *Sexual orientation

*= In 2010 Loden and Rosener stated that sexual orientation may also be considered with the secondary dimensions.

- b. *These dimensions are more immediately obvious to others and are ones over which we have little control.* It is the immutability and sustained power that the primary dimensions exert throughout life that separates them from the secondary dimensions. The six primary dimensions are so powerful that they shape our basic self-image and fundamental world view, and our life experiences are filtered through them. These six inner dimensions are inescapable. For some, **secondary dimensions** can be so powerful that they too can become part of their core (Loden, 1996).

2. Secondary Dimensions

The secondary dimensions are additional elements outside the core with some being quite permanent and others receding or changing over time. As shown in the outer circle of the Dimensions of Diversity wheel, they play an important role in shaping our values, perceptions, priorities, and experiences.

a. Secondary Dimensions include:

- 1) Communication style
- 2) Education
- 3) Family status
- 4) Military experience
- 5) Religion
- 6) First language
- 7) Income
- 8) Work experience

- 9) Work style
 - 10) Geographic Location
 - 11) Organization role and level (Loden, 1996)
- b. The secondary dimensions are less visible to others, more changeable, and more variable in the degree or influence they exert on one's life. Together these dimensions form an individual's self-image and the filters through which he or she views the rest of the world (Loden, 1996).

E. Diversity and Socialization

Together, the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity help shape our values, attitudes, and perceptions – the *socialization* of our culture and our self.

Each primary and secondary dimension adds additional complexity to our personalities, and affects the ways in which we perceive ourselves and others (Loden, 1996).

When the perceptions and expectations others have of us are closely aligned with our own, conflict is less likely.

When we face conflicts among our perceptions and the perceptions of others based on one or more dimension, it becomes obvious that differences do matter.

1. Effects of the dimensions of diversity upon socialization
 - a. When the perceptions and expectations that others have of you are closely aligned with your own (matching), conflict is unlikely and the impact of the dimension becomes less obvious (Loden, 1996).
 - b. When we face conflicts between our perceptions and the perceptions of others based on one of the dimensions (no matching), it becomes obvious that differences do matter (Loden, 1996).
 - c. During periods of conflict, we become more aware of the ways in which biases about the dimensions of our diversity can impede progress.
2. Individual Diversity Awareness/Development

The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity, or DMIS, was first proposed by sociologist Milton Bennett in the mid 1980s. The DMIS is not a model of attitude change or of skill acquisition. Rather, it is a model of the development of worldview structure (Bennett, 2006).

The six-stage model is also referred to as the “Bennett scale” (1998). It includes two stages, each of which comprises three steps. In the DMIS model, individuals may go up or down a continuum of six levels. As an individual makes progress upward on the scale, they become more able to more sensitively perceive and communicate with different cultures.

- a. In the *ethnocentric* stage, individuals assume that their respective culture is central to the reality perceived by all others.
 - 1) Denial: The most basic stage of ethnocentrism and reflects an orientation which assumes there are no real differences among people from different cultures
 - 2) Defense: Refers to a more explicit recognition of differences coupled with more overt attempts at erecting defenses against them. In this state, differences are not only viewed suspiciously; they are considered threatening to one's self-esteem and identity
 - 3) Minimization: Individuals in this level recognize cultural differences, but trivialize them. Individuals at this level believe that human similarities are more important than differences.

- b. In Bennett's (1998) ethnorelative stage, individuals experience other cultures as equally complex but different constructions of reality.
 - 1) Acceptance: Involves an acknowledgment that identifying significant cultural differences is crucial to understanding human interaction. The recognition of alternative cultural behavior involves an acceptance of deep cultural differences in language, nonverbal behavior, and styles of thinking and communicating.
 - 2) Adaptation: In the second level of the ethnorelative stage, individuals have achieved high levels of sensitivity. They may change their behaviors to communicate more effectively with people of another culture, use empathy by imagining another person's perspective, and go beyond empathy to internalize other cultural frames of reference.
 - 3) Integration: In the topmost level of the ethnorelative stage, individuals have achieved the ultimate level of diversity awareness. A person at this level has the ability to analyze and evaluate situations from more than one perspective. While this is the ultimate level of awareness, diversity individuals should continue to learn and build relationships with other cultures.

F. Individual Diversity Awareness Strategies

1. Effective personal development progresses along “head, hands, and heart.”
 - a. First, we approach diversity topics intellectually, as knowledge to be learned.

- b. Then, we apply what we have learned and turn it into actions.
- c. Later, our feelings will likely follow our thinking and acting on the diversity issues.
- d. Here are some considerations:
 - 1) Put yourself in the other person's shoes.
 - 2) An individual's level of diversity awareness influences choices made in strategies to respond to differences (e.g., gender identity, ethnicity, religion, age, socio-economic level, and race).
 - 3) As an EOA, developing your individual diversity awareness is key to being able to recognize and help your unit members work together effectively.
 - 4) You should help unit members develop reflective thinking, empathy, understanding, raised awareness, sensitivity, an understanding of consequences, and a desire to be fair.
- 2. The best diversity interventions include all three aspects, but many times “head” and “hands” are sufficient to initiate change. The “heart” can follow.
- 3. Understanding one's own attitudes and values about diversity is essential to understanding, appreciating, and responding to differences in others.
- 4. Understanding Self
 - a. Be equipped to cope with issues that arise and be able to engage with and challenge yours and others' prejudices and stereotypes around differences.
 - b. To become more aware of diversity, you should:
 - 1) Be aware of your own cultural influences.
 - 2) Be aware of judging others' behavior and beliefs according to the standards of your own culture.
 - 3) Be aware of making assumptions about cultural influences and applying generalizations to individuals.
 - 4) Understand that the behavior and beliefs of people within each culture can vary considerably.
 - 5) Understand that not all people identify with their cultural or religious background.

- 6) Understand that culture itself is a fluid entity, undergoing transformations as a result of personal realizations.
 - 7) Increase your knowledge about different cultural practices and issues.
 - 8) Understand the importance of clear and effective communication.
5. Overcoming Personal Barriers to Diversity Awareness
- a. The main individual diversity awareness strategies are developed through cultural awareness skills: (Overcoming Personal Barriers)
 - 1) Be aware of your own cultural influences and assumptions when communicating with people of other cultures.
 - 2) Do not make generalizations as the behavior and beliefs of people within each culture can vary considerably, and not all people identify with their cultural or religious background.
 - 3) Be aware of judging others' behaviors and beliefs according to the standards of your own culture.
 - 4) Monitor your verbal and non-verbal communication behaviors.
 - 5) Identify behaviors that enhance or detract from work group readiness.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. State DoD and the Services definition for diversity
- B. Recognize the importance of diversity in the workplace
- C. Recognize the relationship between diversity and inclusion
- D. Identify primary and secondary dimensions of diversity
- E. List the dimensions of diversity that exert an impact on the socialization process
- F. Identify individual diversity strategies

END OF LESSON

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366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 1500

ETHICS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Whether you are a commander, an EOA, or in any leadership position you are a professional. From your own personal and ethical point of view, you will be responsible for deciding what course of action is most appropriate for a given situation. In addition, you will be called upon to advise your commander and others on how to proceed ethically to resolve various issues.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Ethics
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide, know how ethical issues can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define <i>values</i> .	K	CRT
B. Define <i>morals</i> .	K	CRT
C. Define <i>ethics</i> .	K	CRT
D. Identify <i>moral theory</i> .	K	CRT
E. Identify <i>ethical decision-making</i> .	K	CRT
F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).	K	CRT
	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ETHICS

A. Values

Values are our conceptions of what is good or bad, desirable or not, proper or improper (Schaefer, 2008). They include personal values, socially accepted values, and military values. Different groups of people uphold different values.

Values categories

- a. Personal: Family, environment, and nation.
- b. Social: Developed early in life; put the rights of wider groups of people first.
- c. Political: Beliefs about the best way to govern a country or organization.
- d. Economic: Focus on money. Examples include equal employment, economic stability, property ownership, and taxes.
- e. Religious: Ethical principles founded in religious traditions, texts, and beliefs. Religious-based values (ethics) are based on scripture and a religion's established norms.

B. Morals

1. Definition:

Morals reflect beliefs about right and wrong conduct (Agnes & Guralnik, 2006), what to do in light of values.

2. Implications

- a. Behaviors are deemed desirable or undesirable by a society.
- b. Morals reflect local sensibilities.
- c. Societies have different ideas about what behaviors are acceptable and unacceptable, moral or immoral.
- d. Society can and does require people to behave in ways deemed moral. Example: the UCMJ evolved from a collection of moral standards into a formal legal code that directs the behavior of all who serve in the military.

C. Ethics

1. Definition:
Ethics is the standard of conduct governing an individual or an organization (Nelson & Trevino, 2007) and developed through continual reflection of right and wrong.
2. Ethics is based on individual values and morals, or the values and morals set by society.
3. Ethics encompasses two concepts:
 - a. What is the right conduct for me?
 - b. What is the right conduct for others?

D. Moral Theory

1. Making Moral Decisions
 - a. Moral decisions result in the commander and other military members taking actions that will bring the greatest benefit to the greatest number or that enable the unit to fulfill the mission. At times, they decide in favor of actions based on principles or rules.
 - b. The most commonly used means of moral reasoning and moral decision-making in the military is goal-based ethics, followed by principle-based ethics.
2. Goal-Based Ethics
 - a. Definition: Centered on either an outcome-based ethical ideal or the idea that by making ethical decisions, you enjoy some greater benefit.
 - b. Three principal difficulties with goal-based ethics:
 - 1) Who determines whose good is *the good*? Those with the greatest numbers? Those possessing the greatest rank and power?
 - 2) One cannot know if one has done the right thing until the action is completed.
 - 3) The moral life is full of uncertainties, and we can make mistakes about our predictions and decisions. Do the ends justify the means?
3. Principle-Based Ethics
 - a. Definition: Focuses on theories of the importance of general principles, such as respect for autonomy, beneficence/non-maleficence, and justice.

- b. Involve making decisions founded on principles (philosophy, beliefs, doctrine, etc.) and sense of duty. Intentions should be of primary importance, not the consequences.
- c. May result in consequences that are difficult to live with. Example: Lying to save a life.
- d. Very difficult way of life. Example: Choosing to tell a would-be murderer a lie about the whereabouts of a murderer's intended victim, even if we believe lying to be wrong, rather than telling the murderer the location of the intended victim because being honest is always the right thing to do.

E. Ethical Decision-Making

1. Find the facts. What are the specific details?
2. List the benefits and harms.
 - a. Consider the potential solutions and their effects.
 - b. What course of action produces these?
 - c. Which alternative will lead to the best overall results?
3. Identify which course of action treats everyone fairly.

Can there be a morally justifiable reason to not act in a fair manner?
4. Identify the principles involved.
 - a. Determine the principles involved (issues of human rights, First Amendment rights, civil rights, and the UCMJ).
 - b. What course of action best respects those rights?
5. Consider the potential training possibilities.
 - a. Choose a course of action that educates and uplifts other unit members in that goal.
 - b. Choose a course of action that develops the morality you wish to see displayed, or that the military and/or nation advocates.
 - c. Identify important considerations necessary to sound, ethical decision-making.
 - d. Deliberate on moral issues and be mindful of facts and ethical considerations involved.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define *values*.
- B. Define *morals*.
- C. Define *ethics*.
- D. Identify *moral theory*.
- E. Identify *ethical decision-making*.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 2000
PRESENTATION SKILLS



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will familiarize students with how to prepare for and conduct the types of formal presentations or briefs EOAs will need to present. This lesson is an introduction to a skill that is improved upon by practice and experience. Students will leave with a basic understanding of how to prepare and present a formal brief.

Recommended Reading

DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

References

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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Presentation Skills
2. Computer

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture and a study guide, know how to apply the fundamental skills associated with good presentations, with no less than 70% on the applicable multiple-choice test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify the different types of formal briefs.	K	CRT
B. Identify the format used to prepare and present a formal brief.	K	CRT
C. Identify briefing considerations used during a formal brief.	K	CRT
D. Describe types of support material used to conduct a formal brief.	K	CRT
Total Lecture Time:		
Knowledge = K Comprehension = C Application = A Criterion Referenced Test = CRT		
Written Assignment = W Small Group Experience = SGE Presentation Evaluation = PE		

PRESENTATION SKILLS

A. Types of Formal Briefs

1. Information Brief

- a. Purpose is to keep the listener abreast of the current situation and supply specific information
- b. Designed to inform the listener and gain their understanding. Deals with:
 - 1) High priority facts and information requiring immediate action.
 - 2) Complex information on complicated plans, systems, statistics, or visuals.
 - 3) Controversial information requiring explanation.
 - 4) May have conclusions or recommendations.

2. Advocacy/Decision Brief

- a. Purpose is to persuade an audience to act; produce an answer to a question; or obtain a decision on a specific problem
 - 1) Advocacy Brief – “Sell” your audience on a new idea, new policy, new product, or change in current operations. Requires convincing evidence and support.
 - 2) Decision Brief – Briefer states he/she is looking for a decision. Ask for decision if one is not forthcoming at conclusion.
- b. Briefer must be prepared to present:
 - 1) Assumptions
 - 2) Facts
 - 3) Alternative solutions
 - 4) Reasons/rationale for recommended solution(s)
 - 5) Coordination involved
 - 6) Visual information
- c. Advise appropriate staff elements of the commander’s decision after the brief.

3. Staff Brief

- a. Purpose is to secure a coordinated effort and rapidly disseminate information orally, aid group decision-making, and secure a united effort.
- b. Most widely used and flexible type of brief – used at all levels of command
- c. Visuals make complex issues clearer
- d. Keeps commanders/staff abreast of situation(s)
- e. May involve an exchange of information, issuance of directives, or presentation of guidance

4. Mission Brief

- a. Purpose of a Mission Brief is to impart information that is used to elaborate on an order, give specific instructions, or instill an appreciation for the mission
- b. Briefer must exercise care to avoid confusion or conflict with orders
- c. Uses maps and graphical representations of situation(s)
- d. Mission briefing format varies from command to command

B. Briefing/Presentation Format

1. Introduction

- a. Stage setting remarks (Attention Step):
 - 1) Set the tone of the communication
 - 2) Focused on the topic/purpose
 - 3) Gain the audience's attention
 - 4) Establish rapport
- b. Purpose statement:
 - 1) Tells the audience why briefing is being given and what is in it for them.
 - 2) It specifically states your purpose, thesis, or main point.
- c. Overview:

- 1) Present list of main points to be covered and identify areas and depth that each main point will cover
 - 2) Preview sequence to the audience
 - 3) Ties main points to purpose
2. Body
- a. Organization
 - 1) Well organized and easy to follow
 - 2) Present a pattern and strategy of organization that actively contributes to the development of the topic
 - b. Support Data
 - 1) Groups related ideas into single units of thought
 - (a) Separate one unit of thought from another
 - (b) Alert audience when shifting to another phase of subject
 - 2) Relevant and credible statistics and/or testimony to support main points must be presented
 - 3) Present ample facts and examples and relate these to the audience
3. Conclusion
- a. Summary
 - 1) Will foster retention
 - 2) Review and reemphasize the main points and not introduce new ideas
 - b. Closure
 - 1) Close with positive statements based on your communication
 - 2) Leave the audience with a sense of completion
4. Transition

The fourth element within the structure of the formal brief is the transitions which tie together the parts of the briefing or presentation.

C. Briefing Considerations for a Formal Brief

1. Essential Tips:

- a. Know the material: Learn more about the subject than included in the speech. Use humor, personal stories, and conversational language to help remember what to say.
- b. Practice: Practice! Practice! Rehearse out loud using all of the equipment planned to use. Revise as necessary. Work to control filler words; practice, pause, and breathe. Practice with a timer and allow time for the unexpected.
- c. Know the audience: Greet the audience members as they arrive. It's easier to speak to a group of friends than to strangers.
- d. Know the room: Arrive early, walk around the speaking area and practice using the microphone and any visual aids.
- e. Relax: Begin by addressing the audience. It buys time and calms nerves. Pause, smile, and count to three before saying anything (One one-thousand, two one-thousand, three one-thousand, pause, and begin). Transform nervous energy into enthusiasm.
- f. Visualize giving the speech: Imagine speaking with a voice that is loud, clear, and confident. Have the initial remarks well in mind. The first few moments are the most difficult; get past these and the rest of the speech will go well. Visualize the audience clapping—it will boost confidence.
- g. Realize that people want you to succeed: Audiences want you to be interesting, stimulating, informative, and entertaining. They're rooting for you.
- h. Don't apologize for any nervousness or problem—the audience probably never noticed it.
- i. Concentrate on the message not the medium: Focus attention away from own anxieties and concentrate on the message and the audience.
- j. Gain experience: Your speech should mainly represent you as an authority and as a person. Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking. (Toastmasters International, 2012)

2. Presentation and Delivery Skills

- a. Eye contact: Direct and impartial.

- 1) Establish good eye contact. Look for feedback (nods, puzzled looks). This search for feedback will take your mind off yourself and help you focus on the audience.
 - 2) Be deliberate. Watch your audience and go with a pace that is comfortable for them.
 - 3) Do not:
 - a) Scan the audience too quickly
 - b) Look at the floor
 - c) Look at the horizon
- b. Voice quality: Make voice quality more pleasant by developing proper emphasis, making the presentation more intelligible, and providing a pleasing variation that will hold the listener's attention
- 1) Pitch: the voice should be natural. Use the pitch level at which you can speak with greatest ease and clarity and then vary this pitch to produce emphasis where needed.
 - 2) Volume of voice: Speak loudly enough for all listeners to hear without difficulty. On the other hand, too loud a voice is deafening and the hearing attention soon dulls in self-defense.
 - 3) Rate of Speech: Complex material should be presented slowly. Speaking too fast will make speech unintelligible; speak too slowly and the meaning will suffer
 - 4) Articulation, Enunciation, and Pronunciation: Speak clearly and distinctly. Strive for clarity of expression. Pronounce or accent each syllable distinctly and clearly
- c. Speech
- 1) Choice of words: Choose words carefully. The right word in the right place is the keynote of effective speech. Use terms that are common to the vocabulary of the listeners. If certain complex terms are essential, use them, but define each one.
 - 2) Formation of sentences: Use short sentences. Signal the end of sentences by voice inflection. Do not pad sentences and clutter delivery with trite expressions
 - 3) Pauses:
 - a) Listeners are able to absorb ideas more easily.
 - b) You get an opportunity to focus on your next point.
 - c) You give emphasis, meaning, and interpretation to your ideas you get a chance to breathe.

- d) Length - Be brief and concise. Know what to say and say it.
- d. Movement and Gestures: Free and natural
- 1) Posture and movement: Your presence creates a general impression of you as a speaker. Stand erect and alert, but don't look artificial. Avoid rocking back and forth or side to side, or slouching on one leg and then the other. Make your movements natural
 - a) Feet about shoulder width apart
 - b) Body Squared to Audience
 - c) Shoulder, hips, and knees aligned
 - d) No swaying, pacing, or shifting weight
 - e) Movement is purposeful
 - 2) Facial Expression - Normal, casual conversation
 - 3) Gestures - Gesture around chest/shoulder height. Do not fidget or use distracting mannerisms (Not mechanical)
3. Final Preparation
- a. Set up brief location:
 - 1) Arrange seating
 - 2) Pre-stage handouts/displays/visuals
 - 3) Arrange for refreshments (if needed)
 - b. Check equipment: Perform equipment pre-use inspection
4. Deliver the brief
- a. Ask developed questions.
 - b. Answer questions.
 - c. Be prepared to execute back-up plan: Hand out backup materials, if needed.
5. After the brief: Collect brief materials/media
- a. Provide your contact information to audience members.
 - b. Depending on the type of brief, be available for further follow-up and questions.

D. Types of Support Material Used to Conduct a Formal Brief

1. Read-Ahead Material: Include an agenda and/or any background materials needed to prepare the listener before hearing the formal presentation.
2. Point, Talking, and Position Paper
 - a. Point Paper – a memory tickler or quick-reference outline used during meetings or to informally pass information quickly to another person or office.
 - b. Talking Paper – a quick-reference outline on key points, facts, positions, questions to use during oral presentations and speeches.
 - c. Position Papers – publish the official beliefs and recommendations of a group.

Commonly, a position paper substantiates the opinions or positions put forward with evidence from an extensive objective discussion of the topic.

3. Visual Aids
 - a. General considerations
 - 1) Audience should be able to quickly look at visual aid and get the point
 - 2) Think about visual aids from the perspective of the audience
 - 3) Make it professional, neat, and organized
 - 4) Visual aid should be pertinent to speech
 - b. There are various types of visual aids:
 - 1) Props
 - 2) Media clips (e.g., movies, music, newsreels)
 - 3) Charts/graphs
 - 4) Butcher paper/dry erase board
 - 5) Handouts
 - 6) PowerPoint® presentations
 - c. When developing a PowerPoint® presentation, ensure it is:

- 1) Be easy to see
- 2) Be easy to understand
- 3) Look professional
- 4) Not distracting
- 5) Have relevance to the topic, purpose, and audience
- 6) Appropriate

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify the different types of formal briefs.
- B. Identify the format used to prepare and present a formal brief.
- C. Identify briefing considerations used during a formal brief.
- D. Describe types of support material used to conduct a formal brief.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 2200

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to pick up where presentation skills left off and to help the students understand how they will prepare for and present their Race and Ethnic Studies guided discussion. The lesson will present to students the instructional skills needed to be an effective EOA. The lesson is taught from a military training perspective. It is an introduction to a skill that is improved by practice and experience. Students will leave with a basic understanding and practical experience of instructional skills required of an EOA.

This lesson is not intended to qualify or certify an individual as a Service instructor or trainer.

Recommended Reading

None

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3. United States Air Force. (2003 November 12). AFMAN 36-2236, *Guidebook for Air Force instructors*.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Training Development and Delivery
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, instructions, preparation time, and collaboration with a partner, students will develop and facilitate a 60-minute guided discussion, with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the teaching lecture.	K	CRT
B. Describe the guided discussion.	K	CRT
C. Describe how to prepare for a training session.	K	CRT
D. Describe how to deliver a training session.	K	CRT
E. Prepare a teaching plan.	A	CC
F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion.	A	CC
Total		
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY

A. Teaching Lecture

1. Definition: A teaching lecture is a formal or informal presentation of information, concepts or principles given by a single individual (see AFMAN 36-2236, *Guidebook for Air Force instructors*).
2. Types of teaching lectures: Formal and Informal
 - a. Formal Lecture is usually conducted from behind a lectern and there is no verbal interaction between the instructor and the students.
 - 1) The instructor simply tells the students the information without giving the students a chance to intervene and ask questions.
 - 2) The communication is one-way. Usually a Formal Lecture is used with large groups i.e., 50 or more.
 - b. Informal Lecture is conducted with verbal interaction between the instructor and students.
 - 1) Students and the teacher ask questions and provide comments to enhance the lesson.
 - 2) Usually held in groups smaller than 50 people. If the instructor is experienced and able to handle larger groups, they may do an informal lecture with groups larger than 50 people.
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of the Teaching Lecture
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Ideal for introducing a subject and teaching facts
 - 2) Presents information to a large group of students at one time
 - 3) Allows for note taking and reference to other material
 - 4) Effective way of motivating students to learn by a person who has experience
 - 5) Supplement to other methods
 - 6) Prepares students for discussion
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Limits student participation

- 2) Unable to use lecture to teach skills
- 3) Difficult to evaluate learning
- 4) Difficult to maintain students' attention

B. Guided Discussion

1. Definition: Instructor controlled group process in which students share information and experiences to achieve a learning objective.
 - a. A method of teaching using questions to encourage participation
 - b. The learning situation involves exchanging ideas, opinions and experiences
 - c. During guided discussions, facilitators ask questions, pose problems, and direct student participation.
2. Basic Characteristics of a Guided Discussion
 - a. Tied to a standard of performance (measureable)
 - b. Self-contained unit of work
 - c. Adapted to the needs of the learner
 - d. Has a definite structure
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Guided Discussion
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Allows everyone to participate in the learning situation
 - 2) Pools knowledge and experience of all participants
 - 3) Stimulates and motivates participants when well organized
 - 4) More closely simulates real world situations through discussions
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Can be very time-consuming

- 2) Limits the number of participants
- 3) Can degenerate quickly if not skillfully controlled
- 4) Some members may feel intimidated or reluctant to participate

C. Preparing the Training Session

There are many ways to prepare a training session. The following are simple guidelines:

1. Develop training objectives

Training objectives – a concise statement that describes what one should be able to do upon completion of training.

- a. Emphasis should be placed on what the trainee can do rather than what they know or how they feel
 - b. Objectives describe learning in terms of student outcomes
 - c. Measurement of success is based on comparing student performance to the objective
- #### 2. Conduct your research – read, review, and research up-to-date information
- a. Internal sources – personal experience and knowledge you already possess
 - b. Internet sources – Search engine (e.g., Google, Yahoo, Bing, etc.) will result in numerous hits. Evaluate each site for validity:
 - 1) Accountability – who owns the website?
 - 2) Accuracy – is the information on the site accurate and reliable (closely related to accountability)?
 - 3) Objectivity – is the information biased or objective?
 - 4) Date – Is the information recent?
 - 5) Usability – Is the information presented in a way that is easy to use and understand?
 - c. Library sources – can be accessed at the DEOMI library or online through Web OPAC or other library search engines
 - 1) Books

- 2) Periodicals
 - 3) Full-text databases
 - 4) Newspapers
 - 5) Government documents
- d. Expert resources – educators, professionals, organizations
3. Organize your lesson (Develop a teaching plan)
- a. Develop training content – training content is the information, definitions, descriptions, concepts, and skills that you present
 - b. Build an outline
 - c. Select your teaching pattern or strategy
 - 1) Chronological or Sequential – arranging the content in the time order or in the order in things occurred
 - 2) Cause-Effect – one set of conditions is presented as the cause of another set
 - 3) Problem-Solution – “disease-remedy” pattern. Presents a problem and proposes a solution
 - 4) Pro-Con – usually equally covers two sides to an issue
 - 5) Topical – categorizing the main points by topic
 - d. Prepare your introduction – A teaching lecture and guided discussion are introduced in the same way with attention, motivation, and overview steps.
 - 1) Attention – the primary purpose is to gain the audience’s attention and focus them on the topic
 - 2) Motivation – Describe the specific reason why the students need to participate in this lesson
 - 3) Overview
 - e. Develop your questions

During a guided discussion, the content for each lesson objective is discovered through question and answer rather than the instructor “telling” students as they would in a teaching lecture.

While some of your questions during the guided discussion are spontaneous, you need to develop your lead-off questions and follow-up questions as you develop your teaching plan.

1) Lead-off questions (LOQ) – opens areas for discussion

You should have a LOQ for each main point in discussion. A lead off question (LOQ) is used to initiate (spark) discussion and to get students thinking about the first main point you presented in the overview.

2) Follow-up questions (FUQ) – solicits specific responses to cover lesson content

3) Spontaneous questions – used to extract more information and keep the discussion moving

f. Determine training time frames

1) Total time of training event

2) Time within each main point

3) Time within introduction and conclusion

g. Select training materials

1) Develop participant’s guide or other handouts

2) Develop training tools (e.g., PowerPoint® visuals, chart paper, markers, videos, etc.)

D. Delivering the Training Session

1. Personalizing your lesson plan

a. Purpose – Personalization is the act of adding individual subject matter knowledge to the instructional process.

b. Examples of personalization

1) Subject matter detail

2) Instructional techniques

- 3) Personal experiences
 - 4) Examples and analogies
 - 5) Introduction, transitions and conclusion
2. Characteristics common to good instructors
- a. Effective instructors are knowledgeable
 - 1) Become the Subject Matter Expert
 - 2) Know more about the subject than your students
 - b. Effective instructors possess ability
 - 1) Leadership
 - a) Planning and organizational skills
 - b) Flexibility
 - c) Make best use of resources
 - d) Monitor progress and results
 - e) Discipline and reward
 - f) Skill to influence or persuade others
 - g) Maintain self-control
 - h) Lead by example
 - 2) Instructional skills
 - a) Know principles, methods, and techniques of instruction
 - b) How and when to apply them
 - c) Know the strategy and lesson content
 - c. Personality traits effective instructors possess
 - 1) Sincere

- 2) Non-judgmental
- 3) Patient
- 4) Integrity
- 5) Understanding
- d. Effective instructors are good communicators
 - 1) Students understand why the information needs to be learned
 - 2) Inspire, encourage, persuade, and motivate
- e. Effective instructors have an intrinsic desire to teach
- f. Effective instructors have respect of students

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the teaching lecture.
- B. Describe the guided discussion.
- C. Describe how to prepare for a training session.
- D. Describe how to deliver a training session.

The following topics will be conducted and evaluated for our Guided Discussion Activity:

- E. Prepare a teaching plan.
- F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion.

END OF LESSON

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366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 3000

POWER AND PRIVILEGE



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will demonstrate that power and its associated privilege can sometimes create exclusive work environments at the expense of others. Power and privilege can also make it possible for certain groups to obtain and maintain control over those who have limited power and privilege, which can lead to discriminatory practices. It is the intent of this lesson to point out facts showing relationship between the powerful and the privileged. In this lesson, students will discover how ingrained and taken for granted power and privilege are and how they impact society. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional, you must understand that privilege and power are human relation issues that affect unit cohesion and mission accomplishment.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Star Power activity

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Power and Privilege
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how power and privilege impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define power.	K	CRT
B. Identify the types of power.	K	CRT
C. Identify the misuse (abuse) of power.	K	CRT
D. Define privilege.	K	CRT
E. Recall the types of privilege.	K	CRT
F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).	K	CRT
G. Recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Star Power	Recognize effects of power among individuals	ISDE

POWER AND PRIVILEGE

A. Definition of Power

Merriam-Webster (2013) defines power as “the ability or official capacity to exercise control over others; a person, group, or nation having great influence or control over others.”

B. Identify the Types of Power

1. Types of power (Cartwright & Zander, 1968)

a. Political power

In the official capacity, political power is held by the political leader of a state, such as a president, prime minister, or monarch. Political powers are not limited to heads of states, however, the extent to which a person or group holds such power is related to the amount of societal influence they can wield, formally or informally.

b. Physical Power:

The energy or motive force by which a physical system or machine is operated (e.g. turbines turned by steam power; a sailing ship driven by wind power; the human body digesting food and water).

c. Social power:

The potential influence of one person over another.

3. Bases of Social Power (Hershey & Blanchard, 2012)

a. Legitimate power

Based on a person in a higher position having control over people in a lower position in an organization.

b. Coercive power

Based on a person that leads by threat, real or imagined force. Fear of being hurt, poorly treated, or dismissed allows the wielders of this power to rule over the fearful. It is unlikely to win respect and loyalty of employees for long.

c. Reward power

Based on the person that motivates others by offering raises, recognition, promotions, awards, money, or goods to follow.

d. Expert power

Based on the person that sets the perception that one possesses superior skills, talent or knowledge.

e. Referent power

Based on the person that has the ability to convey a sense of personal acceptance or approval. It is held by people with charisma, integrity, and other positive qualities. It is the most valuable type of power.

f. Information power

Based on a person that possesses needed or necessary information for the successful functioning of the organization or mission. This is a short-term power that doesn't necessarily influence or build credibility.

g. Connection power

Based on a person that attains influence by gaining favor or simply acquaintance with a powerful person. This power is more commonly referred to as "networking" these days.

4. Categories of Power (French and Raven)

a. Formal (*Positional*) Power:

- 1) Formal power is conferred on a person; it is not necessarily earned. In other words, formal power is a function of position not necessarily ability.
- 2) It is a function of position, rank, or status.
- 3) Authority is given to a person that holds a certain position in the organization and is supported by the organization.
- 4) It may include the ability to reward and punish.

b. Informal (*Personal*) Power:

- 1) Informal power comes from forms of leverage; these types of power must be earned and maintained. Unlike formal power bases they cannot be conferred.
- 2) It is mostly a function of ability, personality, or association.
- 3) It may be based on knowledge and skills.

- 4) Power based on expertise can only be exercised if others recognize the ability and have a use for it.
- 5) May be based on trust developed through friendship or personality characteristics.
- 6) Trust as a power base builds on common goals, fosters good relationships, and can overcome authority relationship viewed as negative.
- 7) May be based on association with a group or another person perceived to have power.

C. Identify the Misuse (Abuse) of Power

1. Definition:

“Abuse of Power- Improper use of authority by someone who has a position of power in an abusive way” (West’s Encyclopedia of American Law, 2nd ed.)

Abuse of power can take many forms, such as:

- a. Taking advantage of someone,
- b. Gaining access to information that shouldn’t be accessible to the public, or
- c. Manipulating someone with the ability to punish them if they don’t comply (Cuming, 1981).

2. Types of Abuse (Supervisory/Position)

In recent times, reports of power and its use have come to the forefront when analyzing unit readiness in the U.S. Armed Forces (Inspector General’s Office). Supervisors, those who retain “formal power” (positional power) can abuse their power in many ways.

- a. Speech: Supervisors can abuse their power through their speech, including making criticisms about employees’ physical appearance, work skills, and intellect.
- b. Tone: The tone of a supervisor’s voice for example. A supervisor raising her voice at an employee or using foul language can constitute emotional abuse.
- c. Ignoring/threatening: Ignoring and threatening employees with paycheck reductions or loss of a promotion are abusive.
- d. Physical: Touching, hitting, and slapping are all indications of the misuse of power.

3. Abuse of Power and its Effects

As an EOA, you may see the effects associated with the abuse of power within an organization. Using the climate assessment survey otherwise known as the DEOCS, you may see issues and concerns that need to be addressed.

EOAs need to address these issues with their commands to minimize negative effects, such as stress, low self-esteem, and distress.

- a. The U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey conducted by the *Workplace Bullying and Trauma Institute* in September 2007 found that employees who suffered from abuse experienced a significant amount of stress at work and the stress lasted longer than a year, which impacted employee health.
- b. Moreover, employees reported feeling mentally distressed, which affected their focus at work.
- c. Other studies by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES), associated with the U.S. Department of Education (Counseling Outfitters) showed that employees dealing with workplace abuse suffer from lack of self-esteem and decreased productivity.

4. The Consequences of Abuse of Power

Supervisors who abuse their authority at work can face serious consequences.

- a. Lawsuits and fines
- b. UCMJ action
- c. Other non-judicial punishment

5. Resources

- a. Chain of Command
- b. Inspector General (IG)
- c. Labor relations agencies
- d. State and federal agencies that handle abuse and harassment in the workplace.

Note: If the abuse becomes physical, employees should contact law enforcement or other legal authorities.

D. Definition of Privilege

1. Privilege Defined

- a. A special advantage, immunity, permission, right, or benefit granted to or enjoyed by an individual, class, or caste. (Merriam-Webster Online, 2013)
- b. An advantage, immunity, or right held as a prerogative of status or rank, and exercised to the exclusion or detriment of others.

2. Privilege can be Earned or Unearned

- a. “Earned Privilege” is acquired as a result of effort or action.
- b. “Unearned Privilege” is an advantage based on social group membership (in-group) that simultaneously disadvantages members outside that social group (out-group).

Furthermore, members of advantaged social groups typically are unaware of their privileges, whereas members of disadvantaged social groups typically are sensitized to the disadvantages of not having the privilege (McIntosh, 1988; Wildman, et.al. 1996).

E. Recall the Types of Privilege

Privilege can also be linked to various forms of identity such as:

- Race/Ethnic privilege
- Socioeconomic privilege
- Sexual orientation privilege
- Sex (Biological) privilege
- Religious privilege (University of Vermont; Media Smarts, 2014)

1. Race/Ethnicity

Privileges associated with an individual’s race/ethnicity is considered unearned. Historically, racial privilege was based upon the dominant culture. However, all races and ethnicities have some form of privilege; though, some have more than others (Parillo, 2007)

2. Socioeconomic Privilege

Socioeconomic privilege includes individual attitudes, behaviors, and systems of policies and practices that are set up to benefit the upper classes at the expense of the lower classes.

Socioeconomic privilege, also known as classism or elitism, is grounded in a hierarchy belief system that ranks people according to socioeconomic status, family lineage, and other class related divisions.

(Parillo, 2007)

3. Sexual Orientation Privilege

Sexual orientation privilege is associated with the marginalization of nonheterosexual lifestyles and the view that heterosexuality is the normal sexual orientation. Instances of this include the idea that people fall into two distinct and complementary categories (male and female), that sexual and marital relations are normal only when between people of different sexes, and that each sex has certain natural roles in life.

Department of Defense Directive 1020.02, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the Department of Defense* (2009) establishes policy, assigns responsibilities, and provides an overarching framework for DoD diversity, military EO, and civilian equal employment opportunity (EEO) programs and plans to prevent unlawful discrimination.

In July 2014, President Obama signed an Executive Order banning Federal contractors from discriminating against employees on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity (CNN Politics, 2014).

All Service members, regardless of sexual orientation, are entitled to an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. Harassment or abuse based on sexual orientation is unacceptable and will be dealt with through command or IG channels.

However, perceived privileges associated with sexual orientation are evident in today's society.

Historically, a heterosexual orientation came with certain privileges, such as:

- a. Public recognition and support for an intimate relationship
- b. Kissing, hugging, and being affectionate in public without threat or punishment

As an EOA, it is important to note that **sexual orientation will not** be considered with race, color, religion, sex, and national origin as a class under the Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) program and will not be handled through the MEO complaint process.

Executive Order 11478, section 1 prohibits discrimination in employment based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, handicap, or age, and to promote the full realization of equal employment opportunity through a continuing affirmative program in each executive department and agency. This policy of equal opportunity applies to and must be an integral part of every aspect of personnel policy and practice in the employment, development, advancement, and treatment of civilian employees of the Federal Government

4. Sex (Biological)

- a. Sex privilege is a term used to describe the perceived freedoms granted to a person (normally heterosexual) based upon their biological sex (e.g. public displays of affection, etc.).
- b. Transsexual, transgender, and sometimes homosexual populations, are denied the freedom enjoyed by heterosexual couples.

5. Religion

- a. Religious privilege is seen in a society that provides its dominant religion special status. The favoring of religious beliefs and religious figures is predominating within a society.
- b. Many societies privilege religions by providing official sanction and support for their holy days. Religious holy days have become official state holidays.

The U.S. Constitution proscribes Congress from enacting any law prohibiting the free exercise of religion.

c. Religious Accommodation in the DoD

As described in DoDI 1300.17, *Accommodation of Religious Practices Within the Military Services*, the DoD places a high value on the rights of members of the military services to observe the tenets of their respective religions. It is DoD policy that requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on mission accomplishment, military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.

Note: Federal government employees may file claims of discrimination under the Part 1614 EEO process on any of the bases covered under the laws EEOC enforces, and/or may also utilize additional complaint procedures described in EEO law.

F. Recall Social Dominance Theory (Dominate Group Privilege)

In your role as an EOA, specifically when assessing the organizational climate or even processing a complaint, you should be aware of some potential privileges associated with dominant groups. These privileges cause concern when they influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The theory behind social dominance in our society will help shed light on some issues and concerns seen by an EOA.

1. Social Dominance Theory

According to social dominance theory, societies are organized into group-based hierarchies with inequitable distributions of limited resources favoring dominant groups at the expense of subordinates (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Social dominance theory proposes that societies contain ideologies that either promote or attenuate intergroup hierarchies (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).

The acceptance of ideologies that legitimize inequality and behavior that produce inequality is partly determined by people's general desire for group-based dominance, which is captured by a construct associated with dominant group privilege. This allows the dominant group to maintain control and their privileges.

2. Privilege and Discrimination

Within social dominance theory, individual and structural distinctions are made among groups based on gender and—arbitrary-set distinctions such as race, ethnicity, class, nationality, or religion (Sidanius et al., 2004, p. 861).

Dominant groups derive psychological and material rewards from the privileges, esteem, and power they receive in the traditional status of hierarchy (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Social dominance theory indicates that constant group-based oppression can influence systematic institutional and individual discrimination (Levin, 2004).

Many social institutions, such as organizations, and powerful individuals disproportionately allocate (control) desired goods, such as selection for employment, power, and prestige, to members of dominant and privileged groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Institutional discrimination can be accounted for in terms of consensual discrimination based upon specific societal norms embodied in the institution, which prescribe the nature and extent of this discrimination (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).

3. Dominant Group Demographics

The dominant group is the group with more power and privilege over minority groups. According to the 2012 statistics from the U.S. Census Bureau, the dominant groups within the U.S. are:

- a. Race: White alone, not Hispanic or Latino = 63%
- b. Gender: Females = 50.8%

From a statistical perspective, White females are narrowly identified as the dominant group. However, when identifying the dominant group (the group with the power and perceived

privilege) within a society, we sometimes have to look beyond the statistics and focus on who has the power and privilege.

Understanding this concept may help an EOA understand the social dynamic of an organization during climate assessments and any possible discriminatory practices or behaviors associated with privilege.

G. Recognize and Address the Negative Effects of Power and Privilege

The following strategies will help the EOA recognize and address, as required, the negative effects of power and privilege.

1. Be aware of your surroundings. See if you can identify inequality, based upon power and privilege, while at work, watching television, listening to the news, or playing video games.

In day-to-day operations, keep in mind that privilege exists and it is real. However, it may not be overt.

2. Point out instances in which members of groups other than your own are being hampered by their exclusion from privilege.
3. Consider making a statement, write a letter, post a blog, or generate discussions/dialogue on instances of privilege that create inequality.
4. Acknowledge your privilege when it is pointed out to you and take that opportunity to learn something new about privilege.
5. Privilege will never go away until the systems in our society that cause discrimination go away.

In your own daily life, work to make those inequitable systems visible and call them into question when you can so that someday we all enjoy the benefits of being on equal footing with each other.

6. Address privilege philosophies that may influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The following can be associated behavior of an individual or group of people who may have a privileged identity as described by Sherry K. Watt (2001) in her paper “Difficult Dialogues, Privilege and Social Justice: Uses of the Privileged Identity Exploration (PIE) Model,” in *The College Student Affairs Journal*:

- a. Denial

Persons displaying denial may acknowledge the injustice, but make contradictory statements that indicate that they are having difficulty accepting it as a reality.

b. Minimization

To represent as having at a least degree of importance or value.

Today some dominant group members may talk about race and gender issues and minimize racism and sexism by saying, “Personal achievement mostly depends on personal ability. Racism or sexism isn’t prevalent anymore.”

c. Deflection

A person employing a Deflection defense may make a comment that avoids coming to terms with the realities of racism or heterosexism by deflecting the focus toward a less threatening target such as another individual or institution.

d. Rationalization

This defense can be identified by behavior in which an individual supplies a logical response regarding why atrocities happen in the realm of racism, sexism, heterosexism, and ableism.

An individual might present an alternative reason that does not require him or her to explore the roots of injustice in more depth.

e. Intellectualization

An Intellectualization defense can be identified when a person avoids feeling dissonant by focusing on the intellectual aspects associated with the topics of social injustice.

Goodman’s example of intellectualization can lead us to understand that intellectualization can be used to not only project power, but to also guard against the loss of it.

f. Principium

This defense can be identified by behaviors where one is avoiding exploration based on a religious or personal principle.

A person using this philosophy might state, “I find it upsetting and disheartening that homosexuals, or anyone for that matter, would have to bear such injustices. However, I do not believe that it is an injustice or discriminatory act to not allow homosexuals couples to cross the threshold of qualifications to be married.”

g. Benevolence

A benevolence defense is when one presents behavior that displays an overly sensitive attitude toward a social and political issue based on a charity act.

7. Become Personally Aware of Privilege

- a. To decode your social identity, examine your memberships in empowered groups:

- 1) Consider the associated privileges.
 - 2) Think about how you define what is normal.
 - 3) Realize that accepting your privileges may make you uncomfortable.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations that you use to justify privilege, and identify the logical flaws or personal dissonance.
- b. Examine your memberships in marginalized groups:
- 1) Consider the associated disadvantages of group membership.
 - 2) Think about the aspects of your social identity that makes you different than normal.
 - 3) Become aware of and understand the coping strategies you use to maintain self-esteem in relation to your membership.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations that others use to justify your disadvantages, and identify the logical flaws.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define power.
- B. Identify the types of power.
- C. Identify the misuse (abuse) abuse of power.
- D. Define privilege.
- E. Recall the types of privilege.
- F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).
- G. Recall the strategies to recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 3050

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Recognizing personal prejudice and acts of discrimination is an important responsibility of an EOA. This lesson emphasizes how prejudice and discrimination impact society and the military. It is imperative to identify acts of illegal discrimination and take immediate action to resolve them. As an EOA, you must recognize how the manifestation of personal prejudice and the acts of discrimination can adversely impact leadership, unit cohesion, and mission accomplishment. This course includes one lesson of instruction.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Prejudice and Discrimination
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how prejudice and discrimination impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define prejudice.	K	CRT
B. Describe the levels of prejudice.	K	CRT
C. Define discrimination.	K	CRT
D. Describe the types of discrimination.	K	CRT
E. Describe institutional discrimination.	K	CRT
F. Describe the categories of prejudice and discrimination.	K	CRT
G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.	K	CRT
H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Poker Power	To recognize how personal and institutional discrimination act together to deny certain groups equal opportunity within a system	ISDE

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION

A. Definition of Prejudice

Preferred definition: Prejudice as an unreasonable negative attitude toward others because of their membership in a particular group. The quality that makes an attitude unreasonable is that it does not readily get modified when exposed to new and conflicting information (Fishbein, 2002, p. 5).

B. Levels of Prejudice

1. Cognitive prejudice

Refers to a stereotype. Whether favorable or unfavorable, a stereotype is an overgeneralization or exaggeration that ignores individual differences within a group.

2. Emotional prejudice

Refers to emotions and feelings of hostility or liking. Might be found in attitudes toward members of particular classes such as race, ethnicity, national origin, or creed.

3. An action-oriented level of prejudice

The positive or negative predisposition to engage in discriminatory behavior.

C. Define Discrimination

Discrimination is unfairly treating a person or group of people differently from other people or groups of people (Merriam-Webster Online, 2014).

The five protected categories in accordance with DoDD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*, are race, color, national origin, sex, and religion. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended includes age and disability.

D. Types of Discrimination

1. Type A: isolate discrimination

Occurs when an individual purposely acts to harm members of another group.

2. Type B: small-group discrimination

Harmful action taken intentionally by a small number of dominant-group individuals acting in concert against members of another group, without the direct support of the norms and of most social or community context.

3. Type C: direct institutionalized discrimination

Defined as organizationally prescribed or community-prescribed action that by intention has a differential and negative impact on members of another group. These actions are not sporadic but are carried out routinely by a large number of members of another group guided by the legal or informal norms of the immediate organizational or community context.

4. Type D: indirect institutionalized discrimination

Consists of dominant-group practices having a harmful impact on members of another group even though the organizationally or community-prescribed norms or regulations guiding those actions have been established with no intent to harm.

E. Institutional Discrimination

1. Carried out by the dominant group against non-dominant groups because it is the dominant group that generally controls the social institutions. Impact of institutional discrimination can be seen in society and the military (Plous, 2009).

2. Impact on Society: Employment

- a. Hiring practices such as last hired, first fired; higher likelihood that members will be fired during job layoffs because they were the most recently hired.
- b. Education requirements – Individuals who have been segregated to lesser funded schools cannot find employment in businesses that hire according to specified credentials that inferior schools do not offer.

3. Impact on Society: Housing

- a. Steering - A practice that may be used to place minorities in predominately minority neighborhoods.
- b. Red lining - Specifically used by insurance companies to discriminate against individuals living within specific areas (Housing and Urban Development).
- c. Zoning - Practice of marking areas of land and establishing specific restrictions affecting racial demographics.

4. Impact on Society: Education

- a. Testing – Tests used to measure the academic standing of students that may have inherent cultural bias.
 - b. Textbooks – School boards select textbooks. Many textbooks presently in use provide little or no information on minority groups, their minority histories, and contributions that minorities have made to American culture.
 - c. Teacher Testing/Hiring - Historically minorities have lower scores than the majority on teacher qualifying tests, and thus, do not qualify for teaching positions.
5. Impact on the Military: Individual
- a. Individual Recruitment - Based on gender, test scores, education level, moral waivers, and regional recruitment.
 - b. Retention - Some career fields are closed to women.
6. Impact on the Military: Unit
- a. Unit Readiness - In the Navy during the Civil War, African Americans were restricted to positions of servants, cooks, assistant gunners, or powder boys. During WWI, Filipinos (who were denied U.S. citizenship) served in the Navy as cooks, waiters, pantry-men, dishwashers, custodians, bed-makers, and valets.
 - b. Mission Effectiveness - Statistics show Whites are the majority in senior leadership positions (i.e., flag officers, general officers, and Senior Executive Service) and lend itself to the perpetuation of racism. What appears as discriminatory is that the percentages of non-Whites and females in military high ranking positions are significantly lower than the general population.

F. Categories of Prejudice and Discrimination

The following category descriptions were taken from the U.S. Equal Opportunity Employment Commission:

1. Race discrimination

This involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because he/she is of a certain race or because of personal characteristics associated with race such as hair texture, skin color, or certain facial features.

2. Color discrimination involves treating someone unfavorably because of skin color complexion.

- a. Race/color discrimination also can involve treating someone unfavorably because the person is married to (or associated with) a person of a certain race or color or because of a person's connection with a race-based organization or group, or an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain color.
 - b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same race or color.
3. Sex discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of that person's sex. Can involve treating someone less favorably because of his/her connection with an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain sex.
 4. Religious discrimination involves treating a person (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of his/ her religious beliefs.
 - a. The law protects not only people who belong to traditional, organized religions, such as Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, and Judaism, but also others who have sincerely held religious, ethical, or moral beliefs.
 - b. Religious discrimination also involves treating someone differently because that person is married to (or associated with) an individual of a particular religion or because of his/her connection with a religious organization or group.
 5. National origin discrimination involves treating people (applicants or employees) unfavorably because they are from a particular country or part of the world, because of ethnicity or accent, or because they appear to be of a certain ethnic background.
 - a. National origin discrimination also involves treating people unfavorably because they are married to (or associated with) a person of a certain national origin or because of their connection with an ethnic organization or group.
 - b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same national origin.
 6. Disability discrimination occurs when an employer or other entity covered by the Americans with Disabilities Act, as amended, or the Rehabilitation Act, as amended, treats a qualified individual with a disability who is an employee or applicant unfavorably because they have a disability.
 - a. Disability discrimination also occurs when a covered employer or other entity treats an applicant or employee less favorably because they have a history of a disability (such as cancer that is controlled or in remission) or because they believed to have a physical or mental impairment that is not transitory (lasting or expected to last six months or less) and minor (even if his/she does not have such an impairment).

- b. The law requires an employer to provide reasonable accommodation to an employee or job applicant with a disability, unless doing so would cause significant difficulty or expense for the employer (i.e., undue hardship).
 - c. The law also protects people from discrimination based on their relationship with a person with a disability (even if they do not themselves have a disability). For example, it is illegal to discriminate against an employee because his/her spouse has a disability.
7. Age discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) less favorably because of his/her age.
 - a. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) only forbids age discrimination against people who are age 40 or older. It does not protect workers under the age of 40, although some states do have laws that protect younger workers from age discrimination.
 - b. It is not illegal for an employer or other covered entity to favor an older worker over a younger one, even if both workers are age 40 or older.
 - c. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are both over 40.
8. Sexual orientation refers to a person's emotional, romantic, and sexual attraction to individuals of a particular gender (male or female). Sometimes referred to as sexual preference, though this term adds the concept of sexuality as fluid and incorporates the element of choice. Sexual identity is often interpreted as describing an individual's perception of their own sex, rather than sexual orientation. (American Psychological Association)
 - a. People are classified as heterosexual if their sexual focus is primarily people of the opposite sex/gender, homosexual if it is people of the same sex/gender, and bisexual if it is both men and women. Terms straight, gay, and lesbian are less formal terms; used by people to describe themselves and their friends and family. Sexual orientation discrimination occurs in the workplace because of prejudices among employees, preconceived notions, or misunderstandings of legally binding protections. Employees expect to be treated according to their role and performance at work, not their sexual orientation.
 - b. Federal laws protect employees from discrimination and/or harassment on the basis of many factors. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawed discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 provide protections for people based on age or disabilities.
 - c. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) Federal employees are protected by Executive Order 11478, as amended by Executive Order 13087, signed by President

Clinton in 1998, to protect against discrimination over sexual preference in hiring, firing and promoting federal employees.

9. Specific manifestations of prejudice and discrimination can be found in the following protected categories in accordance with DoDD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program* and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act as amended:
 - a. Race
 - b. Color
 - c. Religion
 - d. Sex
 - e. National origin
 - f. Age
 - g. Disability

10. The DoD Human Goals Charter (2014) states

...We strive:

To make military service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion or national origin. To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

Executive order 13087 has made it illegal to discriminate against Federal civilians because of sexual orientation.

11. The DoD Human Goals Charter further states

...We strive:

To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, or genetic information, without reprisal and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

G. How Prejudice and Discrimination Can Manifest

1. In-group versus Out-group

- a. In-group (most like me) = In-group bias
 - b. Out-group (least like me) = Out-group homogeneity
2. Social Learning and Conformity
- a. Laws, regulations, and norms of segregation or unequal access, which maintain the power of dominant groups over subordinate ones
 - b. Mass media - Media's portrayal of racial and ethnic groups may be a person's principal source of information. If the media communicates primarily in stereotypes and the viewer has little opportunity for personal contact with members of that minority, the probability of the stereotype becoming the reality to the viewer is high.
 - c. Educational system - Schools share responsibility for socializing groups of young people in particular skills and values in our society.
 - d. Structure and functioning of work organizations.
 - e. Actively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Verbally or physically harassing target group members
 - 2) Telling oppressive or offensive jokes
 - 3) Perpetuating stereotypes
 - 4) Avoiding out group
 - 5) Considering prejudice and discrimination to be a thing of the past
 - f. Inactively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 1. Condoning or accepting the status quo
 2. Ignoring acts of discrimination
3. Integrated Threat Theory - perceived group threat or perceptions of threatened group interests occur when in-group members see an out-group as posing negative consequences to the interests of their in-group.
- a. Realistic Threats - threats to political, economic, physical or material well-being of in-group
 - b. Symbolic Threats - perceived threats to in-groups morals, values, standards, beliefs and attitudes

- c. Intergroup Anxiety - fear about negative outcomes for self, such as being embarrassed, rejected or ridiculed
- d. Stereotypes - when expectations are negative, conflict or unpleasant interactions are likely to be anticipated

H. Describe How Power Affects Prejudice and Discrimination.

Power is at the core of discrimination. Without power, discrimination is ineffective. With power, discrimination maintains the dominance of one group over the other. (Plous, S.; 2009)

In most circumstances of discrimination, both power and prejudice lie beneath. Although prejudice and discrimination are related concepts, one does not automatically mean that the other is present.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define prejudice.
- B. Describe the levels of prejudice.
- C. Define discrimination.
- D. Describe types of discrimination.
- E. Describe institutional discrimination.
- F. Describe the categories of prejudice and discrimination.
- G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.
- H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 3100

RACISM



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to ensure that each student can form the necessary framework to understand sources, causes, forms, and contemporary manifestations of racism, racial discrimination, and related intolerance issues. Emphasis is placed on the different definitions of race and the significance of the social definition of race. The instructor will combine an overview of the lesson plan 3100 Racism lecture's key points with small group activities designed to reinforce these key points and strengthen the learner's comprehension of how this knowledge impacts the duties of an EOA.

Recommended Reading

1. *Historical Overview of Racism in the Military*
2. *American Anthropological Association Statement on "Race"*

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Racism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how racism impacts the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define race.	K	CRT
B. Define racism.	K	CRT
C. Describe types of racism.	K	CRT
D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.	K	CRT
F. Recognize racist behavior.	K	CRT
G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.	K	CRT
H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.	K	CRT
I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test		
W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

RACISM

A. Define Race

1. “A division of human beings identified by the possession of traits that are transmissible by descent and that are sufficient to characterize persons possessing these traits as a distinctive human genotype” (DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, p. 19).
2. A group of people who are generally considered to be physically distinct in some way (e.g., skin color, hair texture, or facial features such as size and shape of the head, eyes, ears, lips, nose, color of eyes) from other groups and are generally considered by themselves and/or others to be a distinct group (Farley, 1995).
3. In October 1997, the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) announced the revised standards for federal data on race and ethnicity. The categories for race are now:
 - a. American Indian or Alaska Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - e. White
 - f. **Note:** Ethnicity: Hispanic or Latino; Not Hispanic or Latino

B. Define Racism

Common elements of racism:

1. Prejudice and discrimination based on differences
2. A belief in the superiority of one over another

C. Describe Types of Racism

Types

1. Individual Racism: Belief that one’s own race is superior to another (racial prejudice) and exhibits behaviors that suppress the inferior race (racial discrimination).
 - a. Examples of *racist attitudes* include bigotry, belittling, and jealousy.

- b. Examples of *racist beliefs* include racial stereotyping, classifying people according to race, and thinking that some races are better than others.
 - c. Examples of *racist behavior* include violence, name-calling, and discrimination in hiring practices.
2. Institutional Racism: Takes the form of the practices, customs, rules, and standards of organizations, including governments that unnecessarily disadvantage people because of their race, color, or ethnicity.
- a. Consists of established laws, customs, and practices that systematically reflect and produce racial inequalities in U.S. society.
 - b. Is embedded in policies that have generally become accepted as normal, and may or may not have been intentionally written to practice racism.
 - c. More subtle, less visible, and less identifiable than individual acts of racism. Managers may not be racists as individuals, but they may discriminate as part of carrying out their jobs, without being aware their role is contributing to a discriminatory outcome.

D. Recognize the Difference between Intentional and Unintentional Racism

Forms of Racism (Kinder & Sears, 1981)

1. Intentional or unintentional racism due to social relationships between people which are structured by perceived biological and/or cultural differences.
2. Intentional racism: Conscious act, usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
3. Unintentional racism: Unconscious act not usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm. It is still damaging. Prejudice underlies the end result.
4. Examples include:
 - a. A White waiter who serves a Hispanic patron last even though the Hispanic person put an order in first. This could be *intentional or unintentional racism* depending on whether or not the waiter was aware of what she/he was doing.
 - b. A police officer who handles an African American suspect much more roughly or the bombing of a Black church describe *intentional or conscious racism* because they are motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
 - c. A teacher's conveyance of beliefs/prejudices can be *unintentional or unconscious*. A lack of understanding of the student's background leads the teacher to misjudge the

student through his or her own cultural lens. As a result, the student does poorly in the class.

E. Recognize the Difference between Overt and Covert Racism

1. Overt racism: Blatant, obvious, and almost always meant to harm; can lead to mental and physical injury, violent destruction, or even death (Scarville, 1997).
2. Covert racism: Hidden, usually subtle, difficult to document treatment, that proves harmful to members of subordinate racial groups (Scarville, 1997). Originates within established and respected forces in society, therefore, receives far less public condemnation.
 - a. Often oblivious to the victim, but not as overt as traditional forms of racism.
 - b. Can be individual or institutional.
 - c. More widespread in the United States today than overt racism, but is still very damaging.
 - d. Includes sabotage, tokenism, and is almost always intentional.

F. Recognize Racist Behavior

1. Definition of Racist
 - a. A person who believes that a particular race is superior to another (Oxford Dictionary, 2010).
 - b. Someone who does not like or respect people who belong to races that are different from their own and who believes their race is better than others (MacMillan Dictionary, 2010).
2. Racist Behavior (Gaertner and Dovidio, 1986)
 - a. All racist behavior falls into the sociological phenomena of groups and power dynamics. It is a tool for domination and social control, a psychological tool for dominating one group over another.
 - b. Racist behavior can be:
 - 1) Directed toward an individual or group.
 - 2) Intentional (conscious).
 - 3) Unintentional (unconscious).

- 4) Based on skin color, ethnicity, or race.
 - 5) Perpetrated by an individual and/or an institution.
 - c. Examples of racism include graffiti, racial and ethnic slurs, jokes, intimidation, and physical violence.
3. Contemporary Models

- a. Subtle racism appears nonracial on the surface.

Beneath surface are negative attitudes and stereotyped beliefs that affect personal interactions. In organizations, subtle racism has a negative impact on interpersonal relations and breeds institutional racism.

- b. Forms of Subtle Racism: Traditional, symbolic, modern, and aversive.

- 1) Traditional: Individual with traditional racist attitudes who acted out bigoted beliefs. Racial attitude measures were comprised of items attempting to assess the presence of prejudice, hostility, and derogatory beliefs.

After about 1965, however, standard racial attitude measures had two problems. First, by the middle 1960's, most White people knew the socially desirable answers so that the then standard items were more likely to trigger politically correct responses than valid attitudes. Second, that generation of items did not correlate well with what should have been racially relevant behavior, for example, reported voting intentions or hiring decisions. Replacement items were then developed. The new items that correlated best with racially relevant behavior were those of an abstract, moral tone, or items that used code words or symbols for blacks. These items were thought to tap a new form of racism called "symbolic racism." (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414-31)

- 2) Symbolic: Abstract, moral tone, code words, or symbols for races. New surveys tapped into this new form of racism. Replacement items were developed that correlated best with racially relevant behavior (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414-431).
- 3) Modern: Symbolic racism renamed as "modern racism" (1978) to emphasize the contemporary nature. The principal tenets of modern racism are:
 - a) Discrimination is a thing of the past; blacks now have the freedom to compete in the marketplace and to enjoy those things they can afford.
 - b) Blacks are pushing too hard, too fast, and into places where they are not wanted.
 - c) Tactics and demands of activists are unfair.

- d) Recent gains are undeserved.
 - e) Prestige granting institutions of society are giving blacks more attention and status than they deserve.
 - f) Racism is bad.
 - g) Beliefs of modern racism do not qualify as racist because they are alleged to be empirically grounded (McConahay, 1986, pp. 91–126).
 - h) Those whose beliefs are described as modern racism do not define their own beliefs and attitudes as racist.
- 4) Aversive: Around 1986, the concept of “Aversive Racism” began to emerge. According to this orientation, many white Americans with strong egalitarian values simultaneously have negative feelings and beliefs about blacks. Attitudes need not be consistent and in this case may be the result of conflict between cognition and socialization. Aversive racists put high value on egalitarian beliefs; contradiction between those feelings and racial attitudes was handled by excluding the racist feelings from awareness. Typically avoid close contact with minorities or communicate their underlying negative attitudes in subtle, rationalizable ways. Negativity likely to be demonstrated in discomfort, uneasiness, fear, or avoidance of minorities rather than in outward hostility. Difficult to document aversive racism through the techniques of behavioral research. (Gaertner, 1986, pp. 61–89)

4. Contemporary Views on Racism:

- a. Many U.S. Americans have widely divergent views on whether a problem even exists.
- b. Most minorities see racism as a problem and many feel it has gotten worse.
- c. Racism is often invisible to many White Americans in the U.S. for several general reasons:
 - 1) They suffer less from it.
 - 2) They do not attribute their misfortune to race.
 - 3) They do not always see the suffering that minorities endure.

5. Acting Out

- a. Gordon Allport’s (1979) five intensity levels of hostile actions:
 - 1) Antilocution

- 2) Avoidance
 - 3) Discrimination
 - 4) Physical Attack
 - 5) Extermination
- b. Antilocution – Most people who have prejudices talk about them to like-minded friends and occasionally with strangers (e.g., bad-mouthing, name calling), but many never go beyond this mild degree of hostile action.
 - c. Avoidance – As prejudice becomes more intense, it leads to avoiding members in the disliked group—even if inconvenient. Prejudiced person does not directly harm the disliked person or group; takes on the burden of accommodation and withdrawal. Examples of avoidance include maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, or asking for a transfer).
 - d. Discrimination – Prejudiced person makes detrimental distinctions by actively excluding all members of the group in question from certain types of employment, residential housing, unequal pay for equal work, giving awards or job assignments based on race, political rights, educational or recreational opportunities, churches, hospitals, or other social privileges.
 - e. Physical Attack – Majority group vandalizes, burns, or destroys minority group property and carries out violent attacks on individuals or groups. Emotional prejudice leads to acts of violence or semi-violence. Examples of physical attacks include knockout games, unwanted family of another race may be forcibly ejected from a neighborhood or so severely threatened that they leave in fear; this was seen in Nazi Germany during WWII. Gravestones in cemeteries may be desecrated or other property vandalized.
 - f. Extermination – Majority group seeks extermination or removal of minority group. Examples of extermination include the Wounded Knee Massacre in 1890, an event that ended the last of the Native American Indian wars in American history, marks the ultimate degree of violent expression of prejudice; the Final Solution towards the later part of WWII killing millions of Jews by the Nazis in Germany; Ethnic Cleansing in Bosnia; and Saddam’s attempt to exterminate the Kurds in Northern Iraq.

G. Describe Internal and External Factors that Contribute to Racism

1. Internal Factors:
 - a. Lack of understanding of the history, experiences, values, and perceptions of ethnic groups other than one's own.

- b. Stereotyping members of an ethnic group without consideration of individual differences within that group.
 - c. Ethnocentrism - judging other ethnic groups according to the standards and values of one's own group.
 - d. Assigning negative attributes to members of other ethnic groups.
2. External Factors:
- a. Family, peers, and friends are very important influences on the development of individual racism.
 - b. Social visibility – Differences in physical appearance are easiest differences to identify and use for discrimination.
 - c. Contact – The amount and kind of contact develops racial thinking; ideas tend to be vague and partially attributable to ethnocentrism.
 - d. Mass media – Television, newspapers, magazines, radio, and the Internet—major sources of stereotypical images.
 - e. Unequal power – When groups of unequal power interrelate, the stronger group tends to dominate the weaker group. The dominant group resists sharing its powers.
 - f. Competition – This occurs when two or more individuals are striving for the same, and sometimes scarce, resources; certain groups look at other groups as a threat if they obtain control of one or more of the resources.

H. Identify Historical Events that Contributed to Racism in the Military

1. The “Three R Syndrome”
- a. Reject – Minorities were not allowed to enlist in the armed services at the onset of periods of hostilities.
 - b. Recruit – When the need for military personnel increased because of manpower demands and insufficient numbers, minorities were recruited, usually during a conflict and after enormous casualties. After induction, most minorities were segregated, poorly trained, and/or relegated to low levels or hazardous jobs.
 - c. Reject – When hostilities were over, the units were disbanded and the racial minorities were released from any requirements to serve, despite any desire to continue service. In some cases, minorities were denied veterans’ benefits.

2. Impact of the “Three R Syndrome”

- a. In colonial times, laws excluded minorities from being provided with arms and/or ammunition. Basis of this was fear of slave revolts that would upset the colonists’ economic security and way of life and reverse the roles.
- b. Militia Act of 1792 restricted militia enrollment to only free and able white male citizens.
- c. Marine Corps (1798) adopted a policy forbidding the enlistment of Negroes, Mulattos, and American Indians. Policy remained in effect until 1942.

3. Quota systems

The U.S. Navy had a quota of 5% Blacks until it was forced to be lifted during the Civil War because of a massive personnel shortage.

4. Segregation

- a. Hispanic men were placed in either White or colored units based on their skin color.
- b. Navy Steward’s Branch included 72% of all African Americans in the Navy during WWII.
- c. Even after the Fair Employment Practices Commission was established in 1941, the Marines continued to operate segregated basic and field trainings.
- d. Japanese Americans serving in WWII were restricted to the European Theatre due to the leadership’s allegations of disloyalty and belief they could not be trusted to fight the Japanese in the Pacific Theatre.

5. Hazardous Duties

- a. American Indians fought both for and against the United States during various conflicts, serving as infantrymen, code talkers, sharpshooters, guides, guerrillas, and spies.
- b. Port Chicago Naval Base, California. On July 17, 1944: 202 African American enlisted men were killed and another 233 were injured when two transport vessels loading ammunition suddenly exploded. This accounted for almost 15% of all Black naval casualties during WWII. Protesters were tried and sentenced for mutiny.
- c. In WWI, Filipinos served as dishwashers, custodians, bed-makers, and valets.

6. Historical Examples

- a. Minorities could only serve in the lower pay grades.

- b. Some White officers sacrificed higher rank because they refused to command Black men.
- c. An institutional climate of acceptable discrimination allowed individual racism to flourish.

Desegregation: President Harry S. Truman ordered the desegregation of the Armed Services in July 1948, with Executive Order 9981. The order declared equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the Armed Services with regard to race, color, religion, or national origin. He also established the Gillem Board to determine the best way to integrate the Services.

I. Identify Strategies to Combat Racism in the Military

1. Combating Racism

- a. Awareness – Groups are aware and are making others aware of the existence of individual and institutional racism in its contemporary and subtle forms. Within the unit, celebrations such as National American Indian Heritage Month and Black History Month help promote awareness of the contributions these groups have made to the military and the United States.
- b. Education – Awareness is facilitated through education. Courses, small group discussions, workshops, guest speakers, and movies provide educational opportunities for the unit. Topics related to racism can be addressed, including how racism dehumanizes people, the tremendous financial costs of racism, and contemporary racism.
- c. Participation – An inclusive model of decision-making that is representative of all people promotes diversity and aids in the reduction of racial stereotyping. Active commitment by leadership to initiatives that encourage members of all groups to take advantage of programs and services on base, such as mentoring programs, special interest clubs, and other organizations will also combat racism.
- d. Legislation – Federal, state, and local programs and laws written to ensure equal opportunity for all U.S. citizens. **DoD Directive 1350.2 defines the policy of nondiscrimination in the military.** It sets the standard for all programs, chain of command, responsibilities, and etc. for equal opportunity. Legislative programs and laws simultaneously provide benefits for significant parts of the majority and for deprived minorities.
- e. Mass Media – Media programs have had positive effect in reducing prejudice. It is an excellent medium to attack prejudicial attitudes and prevent discrimination. Public service announcements, public relations materials, and advertisements that positively depict the diversity of the military and that encourage everyone from all walks of life to enlist are beneficial.

- f. Change – There have been significant positive changes for most racial groups in this country. However, there is still a long way to go to ensure equal opportunity is afforded to all groups. Through proactive actions EOAs can be change agents or champions of changes.

2. Leadership

- a. Leaders set standards that create an environment for everyone to excel free of hostility, intimidation, and unfair treatment. Climate and behavior of an organization is an indicator about the attitudes and actions demonstrated by leaders.
- b. Leadership actions to effectively reduce and eliminate racist behavior:
 - 1) Establish policies prohibiting racist behaviors and racial discrimination.
 - 2) Provide thorough investigations of informal and formal complaints.
 - 3) Adhere to established timelines for complaint investigations.
 - 4) Enforce penalties against offenders.
 - 5) Enforce penalties against unit commanders or other superiors who allow racist behaviors to continue.
 - 6) Ensure information moves up the chain of command on problems and incidents relating to racist behaviors.
 - 7) Protect those who make complaints by ensuring reprisal is not occurring. Ensure all information is a need to know basis.
 - 8) Publicize the availability of hotlines for complaints.
 - 9) Publicize the availability of complaint channels.
 - 10) Take extra steps beyond mandatory requirements to understand and correct underlying issues or problems.
 - 11) DEOCS

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define race.
- B. Define racism.
- C. Describe types of racism.
- D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.
- E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.
- F. Recognize racist behavior.
- G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.
- H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.
- I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 3150
EXTREMISM



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY
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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

As an EOA, it is important to understand and recognize extremism. While extremist groups might seek to join the military and recruit military members to their causes, military members must reject participation in organizations that promote supremacist causes. Knowing about extremist groups will help you combat extremism in the military. Upon completion of this lesson, the student will have a better understanding of extremist groups and organizations. This will enhance student knowledge, thus preparing them as an equal opportunity advisor in dealing with extremist identification and issues.

This lesson will focus on awareness and current issues requiring the attention of future Equal Opportunity Advisors. It will also provide information that describes sources of extremism information, definitions, and recruitment of DoD personnel, common themes in extremist ideologies, common characteristics of extremist organizations, DoD policies, and command functions regarding extremist activities.

Recommended Reading

1. Seven Stage Hate Model, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin March 2003 (in Library or online)
2. DoDI 1325.06, Handling Dissident and Protest Activities Among Members of the Armed Forces

References

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2. Anti-Defamation League. (n.d.) *Hate on display: A visual database of extremist symbols, logos, and tattoos*. Retrieved March 10, 2009 from http://www.adl.org/hate_symbols/default.asp
3. Atkins, S. E. (2002). *Encyclopedia of modern American extremists and extremist groups*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
4. Department of Defense Instruction. (2009). *Handling dissident and protest activities among members of the armed forces* (DoDI 1325.06). Washington, D. C. (*Incorporating Change 1, February 22, 2012*)
5. Extremism. Allusions--Cultural, Literary, Biblical, and Historical: A Thematic Dictionary. 1986. Retrieved August 29, 2013 from Encyclopedia.com: <http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1G2-2505500248.html>
6. Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) Hate Crimes: <http://www.fbi.gov/>
7. George, J. & Wilcox, L. (1992). *Nazis, communists, klansmen, and others on the fringe: Political extremism in America*. Buffalo, NY: Prometheus Books.
8. Halle, L.J. (1972). *The ideological imagination*. Chicago: Quadrangle Books.
9. Mulloy, D. J. (2004). *American extremism: History, politics and the militia movement*. New York: Routledge.
10. Schafer, J.R. and Navarro, M.A., (2003). The law enforcement bulletin: The seven-stage hate model. http://www.fbi.gov/stats-services/publications/law-enforcement-bulletin/2003-pdfs/mar03leb.pdf/at_download/file

Additional Service Specific sources:

1. Department of the Army Pamphlet. (2000). Extremist activities (DA PAM 600-15).
2. Department of the Navy Instruction. (2007). Navy equal opportunity (EO) policy (OPNAVINST 5354.1F).
3. Department of the Navy, Marine Corps Order. (1997).
4. Guidelines for handling dissident and protest activities (MCO 5370.4B).
5. The Secretary of the Army's Task Force on Extremist Activities. (1996).
6. U.S. Air Force Instruction 51-903. (1998). Dissident and protest activities (AFI).
7. U.S. Coast Guard. (2007). Personnel manual (COMDTINST M1000.6A).

The following references provide additional sources of information on extremism.

The Department of Defense does not officially endorse these sources.

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

PowerPoint® slide presentation, computer, Screen, and Audio Speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide, know how power and privilege impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define key terms associated with extremism.	K	CRT
B. Identify prohibited activities.	K	CRT
C. Identify the seven stages of hate.	K	CRT
D. Recognize extremist ideologies.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the traits and symbols associated with extremism and hate groups.	K	CRT
F. State extremist organizations’ recruiting motives toward DoD personnel.	K	CRT
G. Identify strategies to combat extremism in the military.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Star Power	Recognize effects of power among individuals	ISDE

EXTREMISM

A. Key Terms Associated with Extremism

1. Ideology: A set of beliefs about the nature of people and society; an organized collection of ideas about the best and most appropriate way to live.
2. Extremism: A tendency or disposition to go to extremes or an instance of going to extremes, especially in political matters. For example, the extremism of the Nazis.
 - a. “Any political theory favoring immoderate uncompromising policies.” (dictionary.com)
 - b. Can also be a term used to describe the actions or ideologies of individuals or groups who take a political idea to its limits, regardless of unfortunate repercussions, and show intolerance toward all views other than their own.
3. Extremist: A person who favors or resorts to immoderate, uncompromising, or fanatical methods or behavior. Extremists can be politically radical or advocate supremacist causes based on race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or national origin. (FBI, 2011)
 - a. Relative to the negative impact on military readiness, an “extremist” is a person who advocates the use of force or violence; advocates supremacist causes based on race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or national origin; or otherwise engages to illegally deprive individuals or groups of their civil rights.
4. Supremacism: The belief that a particular race, religion, gender, species, belief system, or culture is superior to others. For example, "white supremacism" (George and Wilcox, 1992).

Supremacists believe they are entitled to dominate, control, or rule those who do not fall into their race, religion, gender, species, belief system, or culture.

B. Prohibited Activities

The First Amendment to the Constitution of the United States provides that, *“Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.”*

As military members, you retain these rights as citizens of the United States. There are, however, prohibitions to military personnel regarding the exercise of these rights per DoDI 1325.06.

Individuals who hold extremist views are in conflict with the standards expected of all military members and participation in extremism is inconsistent with the duties of military service.

1. Prohibited Activities. According to DoD Instruction 1325.06, military members are prohibited from participating in any of the following activities:
 - a. Military personnel must not actively advocate supremacist, extremist, or criminal gang doctrine, ideology, or causes
 - b. This includes any organization that advances, encourages, or advocates illegal discrimination based on race, creed, color, sex, religion, ethnicity or national origin.
 - c. Or those who advance, encourage, or advocate the use of force, violence, or criminal activity or otherwise advance efforts to deprive individuals of their civil rights.
 - d. Military personnel must reject active participation in criminal gangs and other organizations that advocate supremacist, extremist, or criminal gang doctrine, ideology, or causes. Active participation includes, but is not limited to:
 - 1) Fundraising
 - 2) Demonstrating or rallying
 - 3) Recruiting, training, organizing, or leading members
 - 4) Distributing material (including online)
 - 5) Knowingly wearing gang colors or clothing
 - 6) Or otherwise engaging in activities in furtherance of the objective of such gangs or organizations that are detrimental to good order discipline or mission accomplishment or are incompatible with military service.
2. Federal employees
If an extremist organization advocates or attempts to bring about political, religious, economic, or social change through the use of force, violence, or ideologically motivated criminal activity, then the Federal Government precludes federal employees from actively participating in any of the activities listed above.
3. Furthering the objectives of extremist organizations is viewed as detrimental to the good order, discipline, or mission accomplishment of the unit and are, therefore, subject to appropriate disciplinary action.

C. The Seven Stages of Hate

Extremist groups are closely related to Hate Groups.

Understanding the stages of how hate groups develop can help you, as an EOA, watch for the behaviors that may indicate a hate or extremist group within the military

Stages of Hate

Schafer and Navarro (of the FBI) have identified seven stages that hate groups go through. If unimpeded, haters will pass through these seven successive stages without skipping a stage.

In the first four stages, haters vocalize their beliefs. In the last three stages, haters act on their beliefs. As an EOA, being able to assess the stage of hate a person expresses can help you determine the best intervention strategy required to deter the development from continuing. (http://www.fbi.gov/stats-services/publications/law-enforcement-bulletin/2003-pdfs/mar03leb.pdf/at_download/file)

Stage 1: Grouping

Irrational haters seldom hate alone. They feel compelled, almost driven, to entreat others to hate as they do. Peer validation bolsters a sense of self-worth and, at the same time, prevents introspection, which reveals personal insecurities. Further, individuals otherwise ineffective become empowered when they join groups, which also provide anonymity and diminished accountability.

Stage 2: Defining

Hate groups form identities through symbols, rituals, and mythologies, which enhance the members' status and, at the same time, degrade the object of their hate. For example, skinhead groups might adopt the swastika, the iron cross, and the Confederate flag. Group-specific symbols or clothing often differentiate hate groups. Group rituals, such as hand signals and secret greetings, further fortify members. Hate groups, especially skinhead groups, usually incorporate some form of self-sacrifice, which allows haters to willingly jeopardize their well-being for the greater good of the cause. Giving one's life to a cause provides the ultimate sense of value and worth to life. Skinheads often see themselves as soldiers in a race war.

Stage 3: Disparaging

Hate is the glue that binds haters to one another and to a common cause. By verbally debasing the object of their hate, haters enhance their self-image, as well as their group status. In skinhead groups, racist song lyrics and hate literature provide an environment wherein hate flourishes. In fact, researchers have found that the lifespan of aggressive impulses increases with ideation. In other words, the more often a person thinks about aggression, the greater the chance for aggressive behavior to occur. Thus, after constant verbal denigration, haters progress to the next more openly hostile and bitter stage.

Stage 4: Taunting

Hate, by its nature, changes incrementally. Time cools the fire of hate, thus forcing the hater to look inward. To avoid introspection, haters use ever-increasing degrees of rhetoric and violence to maintain high levels of agitation. Taunts and offensive gestures serve this purpose. In this stage, skinheads typically shout racial slurs from moving cars

or from afar. Nazi salutes and other hand signals often accompany racial epithets. Racist graffiti also begins to appear in areas where skinheads loiter. Most skinhead groups claim turf proximate to the neighborhoods in which they live. One study indicated that a majority of hate crimes occur when the hate target migrates through the hate group's turf.

Stage 5: Attacking without weapons

This stage is critical because it differentiates vocally-abusive haters from physically-abusive ones. In this stage, hate groups become more aggressive, prowling their turf seeking vulnerable targets. Violence coalesces hate groups and further isolates them from mainstream society. Skinheads, almost without exception, attack in groups and target single victims. In addition to physical violence, the element of thrill seeking is introduced in Stage 5. The adrenaline "high" intoxicates the attackers. The initial adrenaline surge lasts for several minutes; however, the effects of adrenaline keep the body in a state of heightened alert for up to several days. Each successive anger-provoking thought or action builds on residual adrenaline and triggers a more violent response than the one that originally initiated the sequence. Anger builds on anger. The adrenaline high combined with hate becomes a deadly combination. Hard-core skinheads keep themselves at a level where the slightest provocation triggers aggression.

Stage 6: Attacking with weapons

Some attackers use firearms to commit hate crimes, but skinheads prefer weapons, such as broken bottles, baseball bats, blunt objects, screwdrivers, and belt buckles. These types of weapons require the attacker to be close to the victim, which further demonstrates the depth of personal anger. Attackers can discharge firearms at a distance, thus precluding personal contact. Close-in onslaughts require the assailants to see their victim eye to eye and to become bloodied during the assault. Hands-on violence allows skinheads to express their hate in a way a gun cannot. Personal contact empowers and fulfills a deep-seated need to have dominance over others.

Stage 7: Destroying

The ultimate goal of haters is to destroy the object of their hate. Mastery over life and death imbues the hater with godlike power and omnipotence, which, in turn, facilitate further acts of violence. With this power comes a great sense of self-worth and value, the very qualities haters' lack. However, in reality, hate physically and psychologically destroys both the hater and the hated.

D. Extremist Ideologies

Extremist groups sometimes fall under certain ideologies. (Atkins, 2002)

1. Nationalism—Some extremist organizations will use "Nationalism" to perpetuate their agenda of hate, intolerance, and inequality.

Common to the nationalist's perspective is the policy of asserting that the interests of one's own nation are separate from the interests of other nations or the common interest of all nations.

2. Supremacy—the belief that your race or ethnicity is superior to all others and should dominate society. Supremacy, as with racial supremacies in general, has frequently resulted in anti-black and anti-semitic violence.
3. Separatism—setting oneself or others apart based on culture, ethnicity, race, or religion.
4. Anarchism—a political ideology that considers the state to be unnecessary, harmful, or undesirable. National anarchists appeal to these youths in part by avoiding the trappings of skinhead culture — flight jackets, shaved heads and combat boots — in favor of hooded sweatshirts and bandanas. They act the part of stereotypical anarchists, as envisioned by most Americans outside of far-left circles: black-clad protesters wreaking havoc at political conventions and anti-globalization rallies.
5. Religion— extremist ideology based on intolerance toward other religions. Anti-Semitism is a prime example of this ideology.
6. Eco-Terrorism—environmental activists who engages in illegal activities.

The FBI defines eco-terrorism as “the use or threatened use of violence of a criminal nature against innocent victims or property by an environmentally oriented, sub-national group for environmental-political reasons, or aimed at an audience beyond the target, often of a symbolic nature.”

E. Traits and Symbols Associated with Extremists and Hate Groups

Becoming aware of “Hate Groups” is important to the EOA as he/she advises leadership on procedures for handling dissident activities and protest activities among members of the Armed Forces.

- DoDI 1325.06, *Handling Dissident and Protest Activities Among Members of the Armed Forces*

This policy assigns responsibilities, and provides procedures for handling dissident activities and protest activities among members of the Armed Forces.

It is important to note that DoD does not maintain an official list of Hate Groups.

While many extremist groups advocate violence, some extremists avoid violence at all costs. So, one cannot say that the terms extremist and hate group are synonymous.

The terms extremism or extremist are almost always applied by others to a group rather than a group labeling it.

People within an extremist group will deny that they practice or advocate violence; instead they would more likely call themselves political radicals, who speak in terms of acts of resistance, militant action, or the use of force.

According to George and Wilcox, there are a number of specific traits or behaviors that tend to represent the extremist style. As a caution, we are all fallible human beings and some of us may resort to these behaviors from time to time without bad intentions. With extremists, these lapses are not occasional; rather they are habitual and a strongly established part of an extremist's character.

1. Traits/Behaviors associated with extremists (George & Wilcox, 1992)
 - a. Character assassination—Extremists often attack the character of an opponent rather than deal with the facts or issues raised. They will question motives, qualifications, past associations, alleged values, personality, looks, and mental health as a diversion from the issues under consideration.
 - b. Name calling and labeling—Extremists are quick to resort to taunts (e.g., pervert, racist, and crackpot) to label and condemn opponents and to divert others from listening to their arguments.
 - c. Irresponsive sweeping generalizations—Extremists tend to make sweeping claims or judgments with little to no evidence, often confusing similarity with sameness. That is, they assume that because two or more things are alike in some respects that they are alike in all respects.
 - d. Inadequate proof for assertions—Extremists tend to be very fuzzy about what constitutes proof for their assertions and tend to get caught up in logical fallacies where they assume that a prior event explains a subsequent occurrence simply because of their before-and-after relationship. They tend to project wished for conclusions and to exaggerate the significance of information that confirms their prejudices and to derogate or ignore information that contradicts them.
 - e. Tendency to view opponents and critics as essentially evil— Extremists feel that their opponents hold differing views because they are bad, immoral, dishonest, hateful, cruel, prejudices, etc., and not merely because they simply disagree, see matters differently, or are mistaken.
 - f. Dualism worldview—Extremists tend to see the world in terms of absolute good and evil, for them or against them, with no middle ground or intermediate position. All issues are ultimately moral issues of right and wrong, good or bad, with the right and good positions coinciding with their interests. Their slogan is often, "Those who are not with me are against me."

- g. Tendency to argue by intimidation—Extremists tend to frame their arguments in such a way as to intimidate others into accepting their premises and conclusions. To disagree with them is to ally oneself with the devil or to give aid and comfort to the enemy. They tend to be very judgmental and moralizing, allowing them to define the parameters of the debate by keeping their opponents on the defensive.
- h. Use of slogans, buzzwords, and thought-stopping clichés—For many extremists, shortcuts in thinking and in reasoning matters out seem necessary to avoid troublesome facts and compelling counter-arguments. Simple slogans substitute for more complex abstractions.
- i. Assumption of moral superiority over others—The most obvious assumptions are claims of racial or ethnic superiority—a master race. Less obvious are claims of ennoblement because of alleged victimhood, a special relationship with God, or membership in a special or elite class, and a kind of aloof, high-minded snobbishness that accrues because of the weightiness of their preoccupations, their altruism, and their willingness to sacrifice themselves (and others) to their cause.
- j. Doomsday thinking—Extremists often predict dire or catastrophic consequences from a situation or from a failure to follow a specific course, and they tend to exhibit a kind of crisis-mindedness. It can be a Communist takeover, a Nazi revival, nuclear war, earthquakes, floods, or the wrath of God. Whatever it is, it is just around the corner unless we follow their program and listen to their special insight and wisdom, to which only the truly enlightened have access. For extremists, any setback or defeat is the beginning of the end.
- k. Belief that it's OK to do bad things in the service of a "good" cause—Extremists may deliberately lie, distort, misquote, slander, defame, or libel their opponents and/or critics, engage in censorship or repression, or undertake violence in special cases. This is done with little or no remorse as long as it is in the service of defeating the Communists, Fascists or whomever. Defeating an enemy becomes an all-encompassing goal to which other values are subordinate. With extremists, the end justifies the means.
- l. Tendency to personalize hostility—Extremists often wish for the personal bad fortune of their enemies, and celebrate when it occurs. When a critic or an adversary dies or has a serious illness, a bad accident, or personal legal problems, extremists often rejoice and chortle about how he or she deserved it. For example, right-wing extremists celebrated the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr. and leftists agonized because George Wallace survived an assassination attempt. In each instance their hatred was not only directed against ideas, but also against individual human beings.
- m. Emphasis on emotional responses and less emphasis on reasoning and logical analysis—Extremists have an unspoken reverence for propaganda, which they might call education or consciousness-raising. Symbolism plays an exaggerated role in their thinking, and they tend to think imprecisely and metaphorically. Effective extremists tend to be

effective propagandists. Propaganda differs from education in that the former teaches one what to think, and the latter teaches one how to think clearly.

- n. **Hypersensitivity and vigilance**—Extremists perceive hostile innuendo in even casual and innocuous comments, imagine rejection and antagonism concealed in honest disagreement and dissent, and see latent subversion, anti-Semitism, perversion, racism, disloyalty, and so on in innocent gestures and ambiguous behaviors. Although few extremists are actually clinically paranoid, many of them adopt a paranoid style with its attendant projective mechanisms, hostility and distrust.
- o. **Use of supernatural rationales for beliefs and actions**—Some extremists, particularly those involved in cults and religious movements, claim some kind of supernatural rationale for their beliefs and actions; their movement or cause, they believe, is ordained or looked upon favorably by God.
- p. **Advocacy of double standards**—Extremists generally tend to judge themselves or their interest group in terms of their intentions, which they tend to view generously, and their critics and opponents by their acts, which they tend to view very critically. They would like you to accept their assertions on faith, but they demand proof for yours.

Hate Symbols

As an EOA, it is important that you are knowledgeable of and alert to the **symbols**, **logos**, and **tattoos** that extremist groups use to identify themselves and their group affiliation. Being aware of these symbols and what they mean can assist you in combating extremism in the military.

While some people may use or display extremist symbols in ignorance, extremists use these symbols to display a sense of power and belonging. Symbols are also a quick way of identifying others who share their beliefs.

Additional information about hate groups and extremist symbols can be found in your student guide and on the Intranet. The Anti Defamation League (ADL) maintains a database of hate group symbols. As an EOA, you should familiarize yourself with the symbols of hate, learn to recognize the symbols and what they mean so you are better prepared to support the military standards of conduct and eliminate extremism in the military.

F. Extremist Organizations Recruiting Motives

Recruiting Motives

Military personnel, public officials, and law enforcement officers are actively sought by extremist groups. Extremist leaders seek to recruit members with military experience to exploit their:

- Discipline

- Knowledge of firearms and explosives
- Tactical skills
- Access to weapons and intelligence
(DA PAM 600-15, 2000)

In addition, members of extremists groups are joining the military, not to serve their country but to receive training, specifically with regards to discipline and tactical skills, and to learn how to better defend themselves and their ideals.

1. Young extremists are encouraged by leaders to enlist in the military to gain access to weapons, training, and other military personnel. Some extremist groups even provide advice to their members in how to respond to questions from military recruiters.
2. Military members are trained to be proficient with weapons, combat tactics, and explosives, to train others in their use, and to operate in a highly disciplined culture that is focused on the organized violence of war. This is why military extremists present an elevated threat to public safety.

Even the non-violent activities of military personnel with extremist tendencies (e.g., possessing literature, researching information via computer) can have detrimental consequences for the good order, discipline, readiness, and cohesion of military units.

G. Strategies to Combat Extremism

It is the responsibility of every military member to help combat extremism in the military.

- Just the presence of a member with extremist views can have an adverse impact on the performance of a unit.
 - Other members who oppose or disagree with the extremist views may say or do nothing because they fear damaging the unit's cohesiveness.
1. Awareness of extremism and extremist groups is the first step in combating extremism.
(DA PAM 600-15, 2000)
 - a. Examine personal viewpoints in light of military values and loyalty.
 - b. Reject affiliation with any extremist organizations.
 - c. Decline the distribution or circulation of extremist literature.
 - d. Encourage others to avoid extremist affiliations and views.
 - e. Report indicators of extremism to the appropriate command.
 2. Extremism is prohibited in the military in accordance with DODI 1325.06.

Increasing employee awareness about extremist ideologies and discriminatory behavior or acts will broaden your effectiveness as an Equal Opportunity Advisor to the command. Combating extremism in the military begins with the individual.

3. Increase “Cultural Competency” and Teamwork (esprit-de-corps)

Extremists’ views divide the unit into opposing factions and the team concept required for mission accomplishment is lost.

4. As an EOA, you should be vigilant to the signs of extremism by paying attention to: (DA PAM 600-15, 2000)

- a. Surreptitious meetings
- b. Off-duty clothing (e.g., skinhead dress, extremist tattoos)
- c. Music selections and reading materials

Extremist graffiti or symbols in personal and common areas.

5. In addition, EOAs should assist the unit command to:

- a. Educate and counsel unit members on the incompatibility of military service with extremist views .
- b. Be aware of unit members' extremist beliefs.
- c. Be alert for indicators of extremist ties, views, or behaviors .
- d. Include questions on extremism in climate assessments.
- e. Enforce policy on participation in extremist group activities.
- f. Advise unit members of the consequences for participation in extremist activities.
- g. Monitor information available on extremists groups, activities, and philosophies.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define key terms associated with extremism.
- B. Identify prohibited activities.
- C. Identify the seven stages of hate.
- D. Recognize extremist ideologies.

- E. Recognize the traits and symbols associated with extremism and hate groups.
- F. State extremist organizations' recruiting motives towards DoD personnel.
- G. Identify strategies to combat extremism in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 3200

SEXISM



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Sexism is the discrimination against people based on their sex rather than their individual merits. It can refer to three subtly different beliefs or attitudes namely the belief that one sex is superior to the other; the belief that men and women are very different and that this should be strongly reflected in society, language, as well as the law. Sexism can also refer to simple hatred of men (misandry) or women (misogyny). This lesson will emphasize the importance of objectivity, fairness, openness, and avoidance of a personal agenda in the job of an EOA. It is important for an EOA to have some skepticism and to approach problems with empathy rather than sympathy.

Recommended Reading

History of Women in the Military

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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Sexism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how sexism impacts the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify the foundation of sexism.	K	CRT
B. Define sexist behavior.	K	CRT
C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.	K	CRT
D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.	K	CRT
E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.	K	CRT
F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SEXISM**A. The Foundation of Sexism**

1. Definition of Sexism

Sexism is a belief and attitude that one sex is superior to the other, thereby justifying sexual inequalities. Sexism is a prejudice, which may lead to discrimination based on a person's sex.

2. Sexist Attitudes

May stem from traditional stereotypes of gender roles and may include the belief that a person of one sex is intrinsically superior to a person of the other.

- a. A job applicant may face discriminatory hiring practices, or (if hired) receive unequal compensation or treatment compared to that of their opposite-sex peers. Extreme sexism may foster sexual harassment, sexual assault, and other forms of sexual violence (Doob, 2012).
- b. Although both men and women can be target and victims of sex discrimination, a vast literature show that sex discrimination in the Unites States is overwhelmingly a matter of men targeting women (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995 p.39).
- c. It has been 50 years since the United States Commission on Civil Rights has examined civil rights in the military. The Commission has authority to examine questions related to sexual assault in the military because the issues involve both sex discrimination and the denial of equal protection in the administration of justice.
- d. The issue of sex discrimination involves female Service members, who represent 14 percent of the military population, and the likelihood that they are over five times more likely to experience some form of sexual assault, as defined by the DoD, than their male counterparts (Under Secretary of Defense, 2013).

3. Gender Role and Gender Typing

Gender role socialization is the first aspect of the development of sexism. It is established during our socialization process (McDowell, 1986, p. 168)

- a. Socialization – All-encompassing educational process from which values, goals, beliefs, attitudes, and gender roles are acquired. It is an elaborate process by which individuals become distinctive and actively functioning members of the society in which they live. It is the primary method of learning culture.
- b. Gender typing – A socialization process by which children, at an early age, learn appropriate gender roles (Corsini, 1987, pp. 1028).

- 1) Reinforced by family, peers, and the environment
 - 2) Continues throughout an individual's lifetime
 - c. Gender roles – Behaviors, interests, attitudes, skills, and personality traits a culture considers appropriate for males and females (Corsini, 1987, p. 1027).
4. Values and attitudes

Sexism can also be attributed to our values, which enforce our attitudes.

- a. Values – represent something important in our existence; a type of belief, centrally located within our self-concept, about how we ought or ought not to behave.
- b. Attitude – as a state of mind or feeling with regard to some matter: a disposition.
- c. Prejudice – An antipathy based upon faulty and inflexible generalization. It may be felt or expressed. It may be directed toward a group as a whole or toward an individual because he/she is a member of that group.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \textit{Values} \\
 + \\
 \textit{Attitudes} \\
 (\textit{Unreasonable and negative}) \\
 = \\
 \textit{Prejudice}
 \end{array}$$

B. Sexist Behavior

1. Definition of Sexist behavior is defined as verbal and/or nonverbal behaviors that convey insulting, offensive, or condescending attitudes based on the gender of the respondent. (Fitzgerald et al., 1988).
2. Dr. Allport's Levels of Intensity

Consider how these levels can be aligned to sexist behavior when acting out prejudice.

- a. Antilocution – Catcalls, bad mouthing, name calling (e.g., babe, chick, the old lady, beefcake, and stud-muffin).
- b. Avoidance – Joining all male/female clubs, maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, asking for a transfer.

- c. Discrimination – Unequal pay for equal work, establishing all male/female clubs, giving awards or job assignments based on gender.
 - 1) Sex discrimination is defined as treating individuals differently in their employment specifically because of their sex (e.g., unfair or unequal access to professional development resources and opportunities due to a member's gender). It is illegal to create artificial barriers to career advancement because of an individual's sex. *Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members (WGRA)* is conducted by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC).
 - 2) Examples of blatant sex discrimination include sexual harassment, sexist language and jokes, physical violence, and other forms of obviously unequal treatment in the family, employment, politics, religion, law, and other areas (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995, p. 39)
- d. Physical attacks – Rape, spouse abuse, sabotage of another's work, vandalizing property.
- e. Extermination – Killing your spouse, ignoring or pretending they do not exist.

C. Influences that Perpetuate Sexism

1. Mass Media and Stereotyping Allow Sexism to Continue

From a historical perspective, sexism has been perpetuated in many ways.

a. Mass Media

Historically, the mass media portray females as either sexual objects or as people who fight too hard in order to survive in "a man's world."

b. Stereotyping

Stereotypes may or may not originate in a kernel of truth, they aid people in simplifying their categories, they justify hostility, and sometimes they serve as projection screens for our personal conflict. However, there is an addition and exceedingly important reason for their existence. They are socially supported continually revived and hammered in by our media of mass communication—novels, short stories, newspaper items, movies, stage radio, and television. (Allport, 1979, p. 200)

2. Societal Influences that allow sexism to continue

a. Behavior.

Historically, boys were encouraged to compete from early childhood. They learn that competition is ok and that winning is important. Until recently, girls were more likely to

participate in activities which stressed service and cooperation. As a result, studies have shown that women today tend to react differently to competition than men. Sometimes they will withdraw from competitive situations. Given a choice, they are more likely to set up a cooperative system, rather than a competitive one. They also tend to be more concerned with fairness and will try to equalize relationships, even when they are not equal. For example, they may give credit where it isn't due (Strauss, pp. 17–19; Bem, 1993, pp. 19–20).

- b. Ability: It could be said that women and men have different abilities and aptitudes.

Men's and women's bodies are different because of the reproductive design. Differences based on productivity, however, do not generalize to the ability to shoot a gun or wash a baby. Most studies done, do not take into account the effect of lifetime gender role training. (Burke, 1996, pp. 192–193)

- c. Psychology/Personality

Some people perceive that factual biological differences result in psychological or personality differences. For example, women are emotional, dependent, won't make calm, logical decisions, women have mood swings—unreliable for positions of responsibility. In a 1995 Newsweek cover story, *The New Science of the Brain: Why Men & Women Think Differently*, the author, Begley, concluded that the “overlap between men's and women's scores on just about every psychological test is huge. Any randomly chosen woman might do better at a ‘male’ skill than a man and vice versa.” She also stated a Yale study which found that, in one particular experiment, “42 percent of the women's brains “worked like the men's.” Perhaps the most arresting implication of the research is not that there are undeniable differences between males and females, but that their differences are so small relative to the possibilities open to them (Burke, 1996, pp. 189–192).”

- d. Ignoring, speaking for, clarifying, and interrupting

Discounting input by giving the impression that the speaker has nothing important to say is usually unable or unprepared to respond or is incapable of getting the message across.

- e. Pro-Sexism

It is accommodating sexist behavior by reinforcing or encouraging it, rather than questioning, checking, or opposing it. People are pro-sexist for a number of reasons. Some people are socialized to accept it; some go along to be more acceptable—sometimes because it will help them gain power and make more effective changes. Whatever the reason, it is often not an easy choice. Regardless of the intention, a person who is pro-sexist must understand that the message will be that sexist behavior is ok. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 30–32; 36–37; 63–65)

3. Cultural Influences that Allow Sexism to Continue

From childhood on, many males and females in our culture are taught to exhibit certain behaviors.

The preference for biological rather than cultural explanations is suggestive of accounts once offered. To experts around the turn of the century, an “innate sexual disqualification” rather than “social prejudice” was obviously to blame. Similar, if more subtle, cultural binders remain, much of the research and even more of the media coverage concerning “real differences” present contested findings as established facts. Yet the point on which there is greatest consensus is that experts have reached no consensus on these issues. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 28-29)

4. Institutional Roles Influencing the Continuance of Sexism

1. Job role labels—There is such a strong gender association with some jobs—we use labels that set others apart (women doctor, male nurse, female service member) and expect men to do certain jobs and women to hold certain jobs.
2. Unnecessary division—Actor: one who acts, why then say actress? Then there is the waiter, but waitress. Men on airplanes/not stewards—all flight attendants
3. Media—Has continued to turn sexual images of both women and men into entertainment.

D. Historical Events that Contributed to Sexism in the Military

1. Historical Events

Historically, sexism has been perpetuated in the military. To demonstrate the historical behavior, let’s use the Three R Syndrome, first introduced in the racism lesson.

- a. Reject: Army regulations did not allow women to enlist, and so many women masqueraded as men in order to serve their country.
- b. Recruit: Spanish American War 1898—When the United States formally intervened to aid in Cuba’s quest for independence from Spain, only men were recruited for an Army that would fight the Spanish American War. Before the war barely got off the ground, an epidemic of typhoid fever spread through the Army camps. The medical treatment facilities were unsanitary and understaffed for handling the large number of sick and wounded. Because the Army was unable to recruit enough men to provide medical treatment, Congress authorized the Army to appoint women as Army nurses under contract, but without military status. Some 1,500 women were recruited and served for approximately four years.
- c. Reject: It was emphasized that the nurses were civilian contract workers and not to be confused with soldiers who cared for the sick. Although medical care was much more

organized and effective under direct military control, most Army personnel opposed giving military status to women.

- d. **Recruit:** There is evidence that Army leaders wanted women workers other than nurses, but the Secretary of War would not permit it. General John J. Pershing, Commander of the American Expeditionary Forces in Europe (AEF), however, proceeded without authorization and issued a call for women to serve as military switchboard operators. Approximately 7,000 women applied, but only those who could speak French were considered. The 233 who were accepted for service took an enlistment oath, purchased uniforms, and completed two weeks of training in communications and self-defense before being sent to France. They became known as the “Hello Girls.”
- e. **Reject:** The Hello Girls were praised in the newspapers for their bravery and they were awarded service medals when the war ended. Then, without warning, they were sent civilian service termination letters instead of honorable military discharges because (despite what the women were told when they were recruited) the Army still considered them contract civilians.
- f. **Recruit:** In 1920, the Army Reorganization Act granted military nurses the status of officers with “relative rank” from second lieutenant to major, but they were not given the rights and privileges generally accorded those ranks.
- g. **Reject:** In 1925, the 1916 Naval Reserve Act was changed to read “male citizens” instead of “citizens” as enlistment qualifications. Women could no longer enlist in the Navy and Marines without Congressional approval. The number of women in the Services continued to decline.
- h. **Recruit:** World War II 1941–1945—When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the Services once again began recruiting women. Recruitment of women was a big undertaking. Posters urged women to join the Services and “free a man to fight.” In 1942, the War Department was still in desperate need of women to fill support roles and free men for combat. Amid much controversy, Congress passed legislation to form the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC).
- i. **Reject:** President Truman signed the Women’s Armed Services Integration Act of 1948. Women finally had permanent military status and opened the door for women to serve in peacetime and provided a means for mobilizing women in the event of war. But, the number of women on active duty could not exceed 2 percent of the force, the number of high-ranking female officers in each service branch was limited, and certain career fields were not open to women, particularly those where there was a potential for combat. That same year, the President signed the Selective Service Act of 1948, authorizing a peacetime draft of men. There was then less incentive for recruiting women to fill the military ranks in peacetime, and their numbers dropped. When the conflict began in Korea, all of the Services stepped up their recruiting efforts, but they were unsuccessful in getting the numbers they wanted. By 1951, only 1% of the total military force was female, even though a goal was set for the maximum 2%.

- j. Recruit: Finally, on November 8, 1967, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed Public Law 90-130, which removed restrictions on the careers of female officers in the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps. The law eliminated the 2% cap on the number of women serving and the ceiling on the highest grade they could achieve. Later in 1978, the WAAC was disestablished and the women became part of the regular Army.

2. Current Policies

- a. Opportunities for servicewomen have increased dramatically since 1948, when the Women's Armed Services Integration Act of 1948 gave women a permanent place in the military services. Your required reading should have made you aware of this fact up to today's progress. Let's talk about DoD policy leading this issue.
- b. In February 1988, the DoD adopted a Department-wide policy called the "Risk Rule," that set a single standard for evaluating positions and units from which the military service could exclude women. The rule excluded women from noncombat units or missions if the risks of exposure to direct combat, hostile fire, or capture were equal to or greater than the risk in the combat units they supported. Each service used its own mission requirements and the Risk Rule to evaluate whether a noncombat position should be open or closed to women.
- c. The National Defense Authorization Act for fiscal years 1992 and 1993 repealed the prohibition on the assignment of women to combat aircraft in the Air Force, the Navy, and the Marines Corps. The act also established the Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces to study the legal, military, and societal implications of amending the exclusionary laws. The Commission's November 1992 report recommended retaining the direct ground combat exclusion for women.
- d. In January 1994, the Secretary of Defense, in response to advice from the Implementation Committee, rescinded the Risk Rule. In the DoD's view, the rule was no longer appropriate based on experiences during Operation Desert Storm, where everyone in the theater of operation was at risk. The Secretary of Defense also established a new DoD-wide direct ground combat assignment rule that allows all service members to be assigned to all positions for which they qualify, but excludes women from assignments to units below the brigade level whose primary mission is direct ground combat.
- e. The purpose of this change was to expand opportunities for women in the services. Additionally, the Secretary stipulated that no units or positions previously open to women would be closed. At that time, the Secretary issued a definition of direct ground combat to ensure a consistent application of the policy excluding women from direct ground combat units.

E. Factors that Impact the Full Integration of Women in the Military

1. Stereotypes that Impact Full Integration

- a. Psychological – Don't have the killer mentality, can't handle stress, emotional, mood swings, too feminine (i.e., perceived as weak, not taken seriously, given office jobs) or too masculine (i.e., labeled lesbians; Herbert, pp. 68–73)
- b. Physical – For example women are the weaker sex and have no endurance

All services physical fitness tests are based on age and gender. Men willingly accept the differing age standards that affect them, but complain about the lower standards for women (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52).

- c. Pregnancy issues – During contingencies the ability to deploy pregnant women is restricted by policy. Under some conditions, pregnant women can participate in field exercises, but they cannot deploy overseas or out to sea. In the Navy, women are removed from the ship when they are 20 weeks into a pregnancy. The effect of this “unplanned loss” depends on how long it takes to get a replacement. (Harrell, 1997, p. 39)

Service men say that policies for pregnancy adversely affect their units. Some accuse women of intentionally getting pregnant in order to avoid deployments. Men complain they must do more work because of the limitations doctors put on pregnant women and blame individual women personally rather than service policy. (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52)

- d. Leadership issues – For example, no man would follow a woman into battle; and women can't make logical decisions.
- e. Sexual harassment – As reported in the 2012 *Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*, 23% of women and 4% of men indicated experiencing sexual harassment in the last twelve months. The report also states that 47% of women and 15% of men indicated experiencing sexist behavior (DMDC, 2012a, *2012 Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*)
- f. Teasing and offhand comments – Although the law does not prohibit simple isolated incidents that are not very serious, harassment is illegal when it is so frequent or severe that it creates a hostile or offensive work environment or when it results in an adverse employment decision such as the victim being fired or demoted. (EEOC.gov/laws/types/sex.cfm)
- g. First names – When ranks/last names are used for members of one sex versus the other, it implies superiority of one sex over another, establishes a power relationship, shows disrespect towards, or discounts members of one sex. Women are often caught in the grip of a paradox. They are far more often called by their first names and touched by men. (Feldman, 1993, p. 24)

2. Sexism and Ego Defense Mechanisms

Remember when you learned about ego defense mechanisms in the Socialization lesson? Now, let's associate some of those mechanisms into the Sexism lesson.

- a. Denial – “There is no way she outdid me in the push-ups” or “No way, she returned fire with her weapon, before I did!”
- b. Projection – “If she didn't dress so provocatively, she wouldn't get so much attention.”
- c. Rationalization – “Boys will be boys.” “It's expected that the men in my shop unload the truck when supplies are delivered, most items are too heavy for the women to carry.” “I was not promoted because of a quota that promote unqualified candidates specially women”

F. Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

1. EOA Responsibilities/Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexist Behaviors in the Military

- a. Self-Analysis/Self-Awareness – Know self. “How has Sexism influence/affected me?” “What behaviors do I displayed that may be interpreted as sexist?”
- b. Model behavior
 - 1) Role model – Walk the talk. Acknowledge and understand difference, don't group people and assume they all have the same characteristics; this will reduce your stereotyping.
 - 2) Challenge – challenge inappropriate behaviors
 - 3) Advocate for EO – Advocate fair treatment. Deal with standards, qualifications, and a person's ability to meet them, rather than perceptions and beliefs about what is appropriate.
- c. Keep current on EO issues/information
- d. Education and training – train at all levels

2. Leadership Strategies that will Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

- a. Policy and administration – Development and implementation of legislation, laws, and policies that do not discriminate on the basis of gender
- b. Prevention – Periodic climate assessment, education/training awareness

- c. Set the example – Organizational culture from top to bottom
- d. Mission – Fully utilize all personnel. Zero tolerance for negative impact of sexism on mission readiness.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify the foundation of sexism.
- B. Define sexist behavior.
- C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.
- D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.
- E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.
- F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 3050

SEXUAL HARASSMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding sexual harassment and recognizing harassment behaviors is vital for an EOA. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional it is important that you recognize sexual harassment, understand the impact it has on individuals and the organization collectively in a military setting, and apply strategies to prevent sexual harassment in your unit.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Sexual Harassment
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how prejudice and discrimination impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define sexual harassment.	K	CRT
B. Describe types of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.	K	CRT
D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Sexual Harassment vignettes	To identify sexual harassment in the workplace	ISDE

SEXUAL HARASSMENT**A. Definition of Sexual Harassment**

The term sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or

Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or

Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as abusive work environment harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. Workplace is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment. (*Title 10 United States Code (U.S.C.) § 1561, Complaints of Sexual Harassment: Investigation by Commanding Officers*)

1. The term "sexual harassment" is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:
2. Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or
 - a. In the context of this definition, *explicit* is a full precise expression in the form of verbal, nonverbal, or physical behavior(s). In other words, things being said or acted upon or demonstrated in a clear, overt, and open manner that are "clearly out of bounds."
 - b. *Implicit* means implied or inferred behaviors that are not clearly expressed, but are understood. These behaviors can also be verbal, nonverbal, or physical in nature. Implicit behaviors are closely associated with the subtleties of sexual harassment and often take the form of innuendoes. Examples include hints of something improper, indirect remarks, or gestures suggesting impropriety.

Third party sexual harassment means that the victim does not have to be the only person affected by the harassment behavior, but could also be anyone affected by the offensive behavior in the defined “workplace”—“an expansive term for military members that includes conduct on/off duty, 24 hours a day” (DoD Directive 1350.2).

3. Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or
4. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual’s work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.
 - a. A “hostile environment” occurs when service members or civilians are subjected to offensive, unwanted, unsolicited comments and behaviors of a sexual nature. If the behavior in question has the purpose (intent) or effect (impact) of unreasonably interfering with their work performance, then the environment is classified as “hostile.” A “hostile environment” brings the topic of sex or gender differences into the workplace. It does not necessarily include the more blatant acts of *Quid Pro Quo*. Rather, it normally includes those actions in the “gray areas” or the nonviolent behaviors which are gender based.
 - b. Assessing whether the behavior is appropriate or offensive must be done from the perspective of the recipient, not the alleged harasser. The primary concern is the victim’s perspective and not the intent of the alleged harasser. While the intent (purpose) of the alleged offender is given consideration, the effect (impact) of such behaviors on the subject or recipient may sometimes cause the intent to be irrelevant.
5. This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. “Workplace” is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day.
 - a. Work environment is defined according to DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, 20. It is the workplace or any other place that is work-connected, as well as the conditions or atmosphere under which people are required to work.
 - b. The Reasonable Person Standard Test has two components:
 - 1) Objective portion

The objective test requires a hypothetical exposure of a “**reasonable person**” to the same set of facts and circumstances—How would a reasonable person under similar circumstances react or be affected by such behavior?

If such “reasonable person” perceives the harassing behaviors as creating an intimidating, hostile or abusive work environment then the objective test has been met.

2) Subjective portion

The subjective test requires that the victim or subject perceives the harassing behaviors as intimidating or hostile or as creating an abusive work environment.

6. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment.

The definition of sexual harassment emphasizes supervisory and command responsibilities. Some examples of supervisory and command responsibilities include:

- a. Examining his/her own behaviors
 - b. Providing an environment free of intimidation, hostility and psychological stress
 - c. Controlling social interactions so that they do not interfere with productivity
 - d. Taking corrective action(s) whenever sexual behavior is displayed
 - e. Holding everyone responsible and accountable for their actions
 - f. Establishing and enforcing behavioral standards
 - g. Taking disciplinary action as appropriate
 - h. Examining the totality of the circumstances (e.g. nature of advances, and context of occurrence)
7. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment.

B. Types of Sexual Harassment

1. Quid Pro Quo

In a “*Quid Pro Quo*” sexual harassment situation, the person who is the harasser is usually a person who is in a position of power (e.g., supervisor, manager, and instructor). The victim is usually a person who feels s/he must respond to the sexual advance in order to gain something in return. It is important to note that it is not necessary for the victim to respond

or act upon the sexual advance for the sexual harassment offense under “*Quid Pro Quo*” to apply.

2. Hostile Environment

For workplace conduct to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, it need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim perceives, the work environment as hostile or offensive.

C. Behaviors that Constitute Sexual Harassment

1. Verbal

Verbal behavior refers to comments made to, about, and in the presence of a person. For example:

- a. Turning work discussions into sexual topics
- b. Sexual connotations or innuendoes while referring to someone as honey, baby, hunk, stud, darling, and etc.
- c. Telling lies or spreading rumors about a person’s personal sex life.
- d. Telling jokes or stories and making comments with sexual connotations
- e. Making sexual comments about a person’s clothing, body, or sexual activities
- f. Asking questions about a person's sexual life, fantasies, preferences or history
- g. Whistling or making catcalls at someone
 - 1) Although behaviors are not blatant or overt in nature, if they convey overtones or undertones that are suggestive in nature, it might result in sexual harassment. In terms of service policies and regulations, either suggesting or encouraging a subordinate to wear shorter or tighter clothing could also result in sexual harassment.
 - 2) It is difficult to determine the nature of the behavior that would constitute sexual harassment. Although a behavior may be very much unprofessional, if behavior does not have a sexual connotation, it does not constitute sexual harassment.

2. Non-verbal

According to the definition of sexual harassment, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated *unwelcome...gestures...* of a sexual nature is engaging in sexual harassment (DoDD 1350.2) Some examples are:

- a. Paying unwanted attention to someone by ogling or staring at their body
- b. Displaying sexually suggestive visuals (e.g., centerfolds, calendars, cartoons)
- c. Items depicting sexual parts of the body (e.g., ashtrays, coffee cups, figurines)
- d. Sexually oriented entertainment in organizations, base facilities, or officially sanctioned functions
- e. Sexually suggestive gestures with hands or through body movement (e.g., blowing kisses, licking lips, winking, grabbing crotch, lowering pants, raising skirts, etc.)
- f. E-mails, text messages, or any type of electronic communication that is sexual in nature.

3. Physical

Physical behavior refers to unwanted touching of an individual. For example:

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

D. Effects of Sexual Harassment

1. Work Related

The Supreme Court has recognized that harassment in the workplace is a violation of the Civil Rights Act, and although past cases have clarified employer responsibilities for preventing and correcting harassment, many other issues are uncertain.

Determining when social interaction becomes “unwelcomed” sexual harassment, and just how severe or widespread offensive conduct must be to constitute a hostile work

environment is not very clear. In the rest of this section we will examine in more detail individual, organizational, and economic effects of sexual harassment in the workplace.

a. Individual

- 1) Studies have shown that some of the negative job ramifications for victims of sexual harassment include:
 - a) decreased job satisfaction
 - b) decline in job performance
 - c) decreased motivation
 - d) decreased motivation
 - e) decreased morale
 - f) increased absenteeism
 - g) lowered productivity
 - h) impaired relationships between co-workers
- 2) As a result, commanders should not merely be concerned with whether steps have been taken to ensure that an affirmative defense can be raised in the event that a sexual harassment complaint is filed. Rather, they should address whether mechanisms are in place for evaluating the extent that employees perceive conduct of a sexual nature is offensive and the effect those perceptions have on their self-esteem and work performance.

b. Organizational

- 1) Many emotional factors may result when employees return to the workplace after filing a complaint, such as a rise in retaliatory actions. Types of organizational withdrawal include avoiding work duties (work withdrawal), job turnover, retirement, and etc. (job withdrawal). Some of the organizational effects of sexual harassment resemble individual effects and include:
 - a) lower productivity
 - b) damaged reputation
 - c) emotional factors
 - d) organizational withdrawal

- 2) Understanding the impact that sexual harassment can have on your unit will help you to help your commander improve command policy regarding filing and processing sexual harassment complaints and help design prevention programs.
- 3) Improving job attitudes will mediate the influence that sexual harassment has on organizational withdrawal.

c. Economic

- 1) The costs of sexual harassment to the economy are staggering. The EEOC has estimated that the monetary cost of sexual harassment for civilians in fiscal year 2011 was \$52.3 million. The costs to the military include things such as:
 - a) lost duty time
 - b) lost productivity
 - c) decreased unit morale/cohesion
 - d) mission accomplishment
 - e) medical treatment
 - f) reassignment costs
 - g) family impacts
 - h) suicide
- 2) Imagine the economic impact of the time spent on inquiries/investigations including investigators, the alleged harasser, the complainant, witnesses, and others, training stand-downs, unplanned losses such as the harasser and/or the complainant.

2. Effects on the Victim

a. Psychological

- 1) A victim is often not only affected by the sexual harassment itself, but also other related stress such as workplace gossip and a disrupted work history. Sexual harassment victims experience a wide variety of symptoms, including:
 - a) Decreased self-esteem and self-confidence
 - b) Difficulties with trust

- c) Depression
 - d) Anxiety
 - e) Fear of rape
 - f) Increased fear of crime in general
 - g) Seemingly “contradictory” emotional responses to harassment
 - h) The victim may regard sexual harassment as a shameful experience, which may lead to social isolation and/or alienation from co-workers who may have experienced similar harassment.
- 2) Those who experience sexual harassment may also experience intangible emotional costs inflicted by anger, humiliation, frustration, withdrawal, and dysfunction in work and family life.

b. Health-Related

In addition to the psychological abnormalities caused by sexual harassment, researchers have documented a variety of physical health complaints. Common physical health complaints include:

- 1) Headaches, neck, and back pain
- 2) Gastrointestinal disturbances
- 3) Tiredness/fatigue
- 4) Sleep disturbance
- 5) Weight loss and loss of appetite
- 6) Dental-related problems

c. Individual/Victim Coping Strategies

1) Detachment

To cope with sexual harassment, both victims and harassers may discount or invalidate the victim’s claim that sexual harassment has occurred or is occurring. A victim may minimize the situation by treating it like a job or deciding that the incident was really not important.

2) Denial

This is the most common form of discounting that victim's abuse. This means pretending the situation is not happening or trying not to notice that sexual harassing behaviors are taking place. Denial may take the form of trying to forget about the situation or incident in order to put the incident behind him/her.

3) Relabeling

This involves offering excuses for the harasser or interpreting the behavior as flattering. For example, "S/he is not really like that... S/he did not mean to harass me... S/he was only joking... Maybe I'm being a little too uptight."

4) Avoidance

The victim may ask to be transferred, use frequent leave, or go to sick call frequently to avoid the harassing situations.

E. Strategies to Combat Sexual Harassment

The commander and other leaders within your unit must have the attitude that sexual harassment is a serious problem that interferes with productivity and that it will not be tolerated.

Prevention is the best tool and as an EOA you play a pivotal role by assisting the commander with policy awareness, training, command climate assessments, complaints processing, and overall advisory assistance concerning the prevention of sexual harassment.

1. Proactive Strategies

Commitment from the top makes a difference, and when senior management is perceived as making the prevention of sexual harassment a top priority, this attitude of seriousness will be passed down and throughout the entire unit. The best approach will be positive and oriented toward addressing the issue or concern. Sexual harassment programs should be direct and not overly threatening, and should include everyone—employees at all levels. Proactive sexual harassment prevention strategies include the following:

- a. Addressing and stopping existing sexist or other behaviors of a sexual nature that may create an atmosphere conducive to sexual harassment. In most cases, employees will stop behaving in ways that offend others if they are informed about their behavior in private and in a respectful, non-threatening way.
- b. Ensuring organizational policy letters are up-to-date, outlining procedures on what to do in the event sexual harassment occurs. A written, posted policy statement regarding sexual harassment is a strong indicator of top management support.

- 1) Using bulletin boards for passing on information concerning prevention of sexual harassment. Bulletin boards must be visible to all members of the public (e.g., organizations, services agencies, and any other location that is visible to the public). Most important, be familiar with DoD, EEOC, and your Service's regulations and policies on sexual harassment.
- 2) Conducting sexual harassment prevention trainings, such as: workshops, seminars, guest speakers, symposiums, informal and formal group discussions, etc.). During the training, have individuals role-play in situations, and discuss individuals' differences in culture, personal space, socially accepted behaviors, and internalized values (enculturation).
- 3) Conducting unit climate assessments on a regular basis. Climate assessments are tools that assist commanders at all levels in determining their human relations climate. The program identifies those human relations factors, both positive and negative, that may affect mission readiness such as unit morale, equal opportunity and treatment, interpersonal relationships, and communications.

2. Reactive Strategies

- a. Once a sexual harassment complaint has been filed, there are reactive strategies you will need to assist your commander with:
 - 1) Ensure all actions/complaints are dealt with in a timely manner.
 - 2) Conduct appropriate follow-up actions and check for reprisal or retaliation.
 - 3) Based on reactive measures, you need to reengage and reemphasize proactive strategies.
- b. If you do nothing, most likely nothing will be done. The system is for you so use it. You will learn more about complaint processing procedures in your service specific training. Always refer to your Service's policies and procedures for specific guidance.

3. Techniques

Service members are encouraged to try to resolve acts of sexual harassment or to report them to the chain of command or other appropriate agencies. In order to do this, Service members must be trained on a variety of strategies they can use to prevent or resolve sexual harassment in the unit or work area. The following strategies can be a valuable tool in dealing with sexual harassment:

a. Direct Approach

- 1) Write down thoughts before approaching the individual involved. Confront the harasser and tell him/her exactly what behavior is offensive and unwanted and that it

must stop. Avoid verbal attacks. Instead, use common courtesy staying focused on the behavior being addressed and its impact. In most cases, the alleged harasser will stop behaving in ways that offend others if he/she is informed about offensive behavior in private, respectful, and non-threatening way.

- 2) Individuals should let the harasser know how they feel.
- 3) Individuals should let the harasser know that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues.

b. Indirect Approach

Send a letter to the harasser stating the facts (i.e., an objective description of the incident), specific behaviors that are offensive and unwelcome, personal feelings about the inappropriate behavior, expected resolution, and that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues. Subjects of sexual harassment should keep a copy of the letter for record in the event an informal/formal complaint is subsequently required.

c. Third Party Approach

- 1) Request assistance from another person (i.e., intermediary). Ask someone else (a co-worker, supervisor, or leader) to talk to the harasser on your behalf, or to accompany you to resolve the conflict.
- 2) A third party or intermediary does not speak for the subject. Instead, he/she relates specifically what behavior the subject wants stopped, and makes clear that continued behavior will result in reporting the incident to the chain of command.

d. Report the Harassment to the Chain of Command

- 1) *Chain of Command*: Report the behavior to immediate supervisor or others in the chain of command and ask for assistance in resolving the situation. The decision to report an incident of sexual harassment is often viewed as a last resort by most of the subjects. However, reporting does have its place even when the subject has been successful in stopping the harassment. The letter to the harasser becomes a valuable tool in the process of reporting sexual harassment to the chain of command.
- 2) *Filing an Informal/Formal Complaint*: Details of filing an informal/formal complaint are described in respective service regulations and instructions.
- 3) *Use Resources Appropriate for Your Branch of Service*. Familiarize yourselves with the details of your respective service policies on the prevention of sexual harassment and grievance procedures. Other sources of assistance include:
 - a) Local EO/EEO Office

- b) The Inspector General (IG)

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define sexual harassment.
- B. Describe types of sexual harassment.
- C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.
- D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.
- E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA-3300

SYSTEM vs. VICTIM FOCUS



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Reference materials from nonfederal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an equal opportunity advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context

Lesson Overview

Provide information so students understand that victim focus tends to focus on symptoms of problems while system focus tends to focus on the causes. Stress to students that it is imperative for leaders to be dual focused, to eliminate discrimination by focusing on causes as well as symptoms. Victim focus can be physical, psychological, or economic and tends to focus on symptoms of problems while system focus tends to focus on causes. Begin by defining key terms. Thoroughly discuss the process of blaming the victim and explain why the system rarely gets blamed. Use the Drawbridge Activity in the small group environment to explore the distribution of power and its effect(s) on our ability to focus on the system.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–System vs. Victim Focus
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective (TLO):

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how system victimization impacts mission readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define victim	K	CRT
B. Define victim focus	K	CRT
C. State the process of blaming the victim	K	CRT
D. State the ideological process of blaming the victim	K	CRT
E. Define system focus	K	CRT
F. Identify the method to prevent victim focus	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SYSTEM vs. VICTIM FOCUS**A. Victim**

Definition of Victim

In the “Handbook on Justice for Victims” printed in 1999, “victims” are defined in the broad sense as persons who, individually or collectively, have suffered harm.

Types of Harm

1. Physical or mental injury

- a. Physical injuries resulting from victimization may not always be immediately apparent. This may be particularly true in cases of domestic violence where the injuries occur on parts of the body that are normally clothed.
- b. Physical injuries may be a permanent effect of crime and there is evidence that this has a negative effect on long-term psychological recovery, since the physical scars serve as a constant reminder of the crime.

2. Emotional suffering

Anger is a reaction that some victims and helpers find difficult to deal with. It may be directed at other victims, helpers, bystanders, organizations and also at oneself. Among some groups and in some cultures there may be a feeling that it is wrong to express anger even when it is strongly felt. There may be pressure on victims to control their emotions.

3. Economic loss

The financial impact of crime is less well documented. Victims may incur costs in the following ways: repairing property or replacing possessions, installing security measures, accessing health services, participating in the criminal justice process, for example, attending the trial, obtaining professional counseling to come to terms with the emotional impact, taking time off work or from other income-generating activities, funeral or burial expenses.

4. Substantial impairment of fundamental rights

Through acts or omissions that are violations of national criminal laws or of internationally recognized norms relating to human rights.

Many victims face insensitive treatment by the police, prosecutors and court officials, thus causing a “second injury.” This applies particularly to certain especially vulnerable categories of victims, such as migrants, minorities and victims of sexual offenses, as well as refugees, prisoners of war, and civilian victims of war and civil strife.

5. Victimization

“Unwarranted singling out of an individual or group for subjection to crime, exploitation, tort, unfair treatment, or other wrong.” (Business Dictionary.com)

Victimization looks at how society responds to ‘victims’ and the ‘systems’ that deal with victims “Victim Focus” or “System Focus”.

B. Victim Focus

1. Definition of Victim Focus

Victim focus is a reactive problem-solving approach, which narrowly defines problems in terms of the victims. This viewpoint sees the cause of the problem as the victims themselves. We focus on and study the victims only, find out how we can fix them and then integrate them back into the system.

2. Victim Focus is Reactive

Sometimes this process is unavoidable. The concern enters when victim focus becomes the organizations primary means of problem solving. Why is it that in some of our organizations, we often seem to fix the same problem(s) again and again and the only difference often being the person presenting the concern? This practice may be partially linked to the way victims are viewed.

C. Process of Blaming The Victim

Steps involved with blaming the victim.

Step 1: Identify a social problem.

No one would argue that social problems are abundant and readily identifiable.

- a) Be structural or social in origin.
- b) Be of considerable magnitude.
- c) Appears as viable alternatives that society is able to provide (i.e. solutions).

Step 2: Study those affected by the problem and discover how they are different from the rest of society.

Many cultural beliefs associated with the protected “social order” stereotype victims while others help observers evaluate and assess victim behavior. So we

look at those who “have” the problem and separate them in some way as a special group that is different.

The different ones are seen as less competent, less skilled, and in short, less human. All the news reports and original files of early racial incidents at bases around the world identified the blacks as being different and the ones with the issues.

Step 3: Define the differences as the cause of the problem- by taking a very individualized focus, blaming the victim identifies- or even manufactures- traits that differentiate victims from the rest of us, (i.e., the poor are poor because they are unfit).

Step 4: Assign someone to initiate a humanitarian program to correct the impact of the differences.

D. Ideological Process Of Blaming The Victim

1. The belief system itself

The way of looking at the world, the set of ideas and concepts.

2. Systematic distortion of reality reflected in those ideas

Victims are viewed as numbers or statistics instead of individuals.

So if we determined earlier that victims are the cause of their own problems, we can easily view them as statistics that need to be addressed instead of members of a society affected by the very system they are a part of.

3. Distortions must not be a conscious and an intentional process

These beliefs and concepts are so widely accepted by society, it's not considered intentional – but merely in line with how things are “supposed to happen.”

4. Distortions, although not intentional, must serve a specific function

Maintaining the status quo in the interest of a specific group.

E. System Focus

1. Definition of System Focus

System focus is defined as “a problem-solving approach that broadly defines problems as being a part of or caused by the system, organization, society, or community.” We look

at the system which produces the victims and address the problem by determining how we can change or improve the system, as well as the victims, to prevent further problems. System focus is PROACTIVE.

2. Reasons System Focus is overlooked
 - a. Not a quick fix - Prevailing theories blame institutions, offenders, or victims. Intentionally or not, each one may amount much more to “system defending.”
 - 1) The law does not change socialization
 - 2) Easier to make victim conform - Victims often find themselves re-victimized by the process.
 - 3) Institution blaming focuses on regulatory failures. It pleads for greater resources, efficiency and power while asking victims to be more cooperative and supportive but not to expect too much against the intractable problem.
 - 4) Offender blaming finds the inherent traits either of all people or in a select group of evil people. It suggests we can be more vigilant in identifying, punishing and isolating the problem. Victims must be constantly on their guard and help root out problems.
 - b. Victim desires conformity - Victims often find themselves re-victimized by the process. If the victim thinks they will be re-victimized, perhaps the grievance procedures could be strengthened to protect victims’ rights.
 - c. System is a self-perpetuating process - The system tends to maintain the status quo.
 - 1) If the perception of the victim is they did something to facilitate the actions taken against them or if the reality for the victim is that there will be consequences for taking action – then the system will maintain its status quo.
 - 2) The purpose and intention of system focus does not relieve the victim of their responsibilities and contribution to the problem.

F. The Method to Prevent Victim Focus

The APIE is used as a method to prevent victimization

Use the APIE method to identify, process, and prevent victimization. The four steps of the APIE method are:

Step 1- Assess the symptoms and causes of the problem.

Roots are all the elements and behaviors that collectively characterize an organization. Roots determine how things work in a given organization.

During your assessment, you will find things out about the organization. The task here is to determine where change is needed – where a root may need to be removed, or tweaked, or added. The goal is to determine whether the roots support or hinder the efforts of the organization. Assessment is critical, since it provides the basis for planning change.

Step 2- Plan solutions to symptoms and causes

One of the most crucial and difficult steps in the process is identifying the actual problem. While this might seem to be an easy procedure, the key to defining the problem is locating the “real,” not associated symptoms. Problems usually are obscure, disguised, or locked inside some form of emotional distress relating to supervision, poor troop performance, or in other mission requirement.

- a. Contrast the current roots with the desired change/outcome.
- b. What should we be? The commander/manager driving the root modification is the change agent.
- c. Develop a full scale plan for deliberately and definitively bringing about the change.
- d. Changes must be direct and straightforward.

Step 3- Implement Changes

- a. Repeatedly articulate new solutions, elements, and behaviors.
- b. Create supportive traditions.
- c. Create appropriate heroes and heroines.
- d. Influence communication networks (formal and informal. i.e. Face book, etc...)
- e. Recruit new root guards.
- f. Reward change agents.
- g. Change the system

Step 4- Evaluate Changes

- a. Evaluate after a reasonable amount of time has passed.
(6 months – a year)

- b. Determine success of change.
 - 1) Was the real problem identified?
 - 2) Was the action taken appropriate?
- c. Determine if the change should be terminated (if so, return to planning stage).
- d. Reassess the organization.
 - 1) Use the same methods as in the original assessment (APIE).
 - 2) The main difference in the reassessment is that the focus is on expected outcomes from the planning stage.

APIE (acronym)

Assess the symptoms and causes of the problem.

Plan solutions to symptoms and causes

Implement Changes

Evaluate Changes

SUMMARY

The following topics were covered in this lesson:

- A. Define victim
- B. Define victim focus
- C. State the process of blaming the victim
- D. State the ideological process of blaming the victim
- E. Define system focus
- F. Identify the method to prevent victim focus

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 3350

RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY/ACCOMMODATION



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding religion and its diversity, especially within your unit, will help you assist leaders when they are faced with issues of religious accommodation and discrimination. This course includes one lesson of instruction: Religious Diversity/Accommodation. Within this lesson are topics of content that address the sample behaviors for the course objective. Each topic includes non-graded progress checks to review and reinforce key teaching points.

Recommended Reading

1. DoD Instruction 1300.17- Accommodations of Religious Practices within the Military Services
2. Religious Guidelines in the Federal Workplace

References

1. Department of Defense. (2009). DoDI 1300.17, *Accommodation of religious practices within the military services*. Washington, D.C.
2. Department of Defense. (2012). *Department of Defense Instruction. (DoDI) 1000.29, DoD Civil Liberties Program*.
3. Department of Defense. (2007). DoDI 1300.06, *Conscientious objectors*.
4. Department of Defense. (1997). DoDD 1350.02, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*.
5. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. (2008). *EEOC compliance manual (915.003)*. Washington, D.C.
6. Secretary of the Navy. (2008). SECNAVINST 1730.8B , *Accommodation of religious practices*. Department of the Navy, Office of the Secretary, Washington, D.C.

7. The White House Office of the Press Secretary. (1997). *Guidelines on religious exercise and religious expression in the federal workplace.*
8. U. S. Air Force Instruction. (2010). AFI 36-2706, AFRCSUP1_I, 2005, *Military Equal opportunity (MEO) program.*
9. U. S. Army Regulation. (2010). AR 600-20, *Army command policy.* Headquarters, Department of the Army, Washington, D.C.
10. U. S. Coast Guard Instruction. (1994). COMDTINST M1730.4B , *Religious ministries within the Coast Guard.*
U. S. Department of Transportation, Washington, D.C.
11. Department of Defense (2009). USMEPCOM Regulation 601-23, United States Entrance Processing Command, *Personnel procurement enlistment processing.* Chicago, IL.

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Star Power activity

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Religious Diversity
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how power and privilege impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define religion as described in DoD Directive 1350.2	K	CRT
B. Describe how DoD addresses religious accommodation requests	K	CRT
C. State how to recognize religious discrimination	K	CRT
D. Identify strategies to combat religious discrimination in the military	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY/ACCOMMODATION**A. Definitions**

1. The Department of Defense places a high value on the rights of members of the Military Services to observe the tenets of their respective religions, or no religion at all.
2. It is DoD policy that states accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on military necessity to include mission accomplishment, military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.
3. DoD Directive 1350.2 defines religion as:
"A personal set or institutionalized system of attitudes, moral or ethical beliefs, and practices that are held with the strength of traditional religious views, characterized by ardor and faith, and generally evidenced through specific religious observances."
4. Derivation (*DoD Religion Definition Origin*)

This definition developed as a result of two Supreme Court cases that dealt with conscientious objectors, *U.S. v. Seeger*, 380 U.S. 163 (1965) and *Welsh v. U.S.*, 398 U.S. 333 (1970). The Court decided it was unconstitutional to confine conscientious objector status only to those who are religious in the traditional theistic sense (e.g., Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, Jewish, Muslim), when those who follow non-theistic religious faiths (e.g., Buddhists). The court also decided that non-religious men and women may also hold passionate and ethically-based objections to serving in combat or in the military. In coming to this conclusion, the Justices broadened the definition of religion to be used by the Court, as well the scope of those protected by that definition.

5. **Functional** Definition of Religion.

It seeks to convey the substance of what religion does, what it looks like in action, rather than telling us what religion is (which would be a **substantive** definition). Because of its functional nature, the definition focuses on the dynamics of belief and the level of commitment one has to a set of beliefs. As a result, the definition embraces individuals and groups. It embraces those who hold individual spiritual views, large groups and organizations that profess theistic beliefs (e.g., the Roman Catholic Church, Sunni and Shi'a Islam, Judaism), and, as noted earlier, protects those who profess atheistic beliefs as well. The following instructions and regulations include the same functional definition:

- ✓ AR 600-20 (*Command Policy*);
- ✓ SECNAVINST 5350.16A (*Equal Opportunity Within the Department of the Navy*);
and the
- ✓ AFI 36-2706 (*Military Equal Opportunity Program*).
- ✓ U.S. Marine Corps is guided by SECNAVINST 5350.16A.

6. Faith Groups

- a. The Establishment Clause of the First Amendment of the U. S. Constitution (“*Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof*” or “*abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.*”) has been interpreted to mean, in part, that the Federal Government (including the military) may not decide which religions are legitimate and which are not.
- b. The Internal Revenue Service possesses a list of faith groups, but this list includes only those groups whose members have requested tax-exempt status. Not all faith groups desire or request such status.
- c. Data reflected by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) reflects only what service members voluntarily elect to share and so cannot be considered definitive or exact. This information is collected only at Military Entrance Processing Stations (MEPS) and is not updated, except at the specific request of the service member.
- d. Various DoD instructions (e.g., DoDI 1336.5, E4.A2, DoDI 7730.54, and DoDI 1300.18 [E7.A2]) include lists of faith groups, but these are for software coding purposes only; they are neither definitive nor exclusive.
- e. Chaplain representation reflects only those faith groups who choose to endorse chaplains and have put forward candidates who meet DoD standards regarding education, physical fitness, age, etc
- f. The Veterans Administration (VA) maintains a list of faith group symbols that may be placed on federally-funded grave markers, but this list reflects only those faith groups whose members have applied for inclusion of their symbol(s) on the list. As of 2011, a total of 48 symbols have been approved.

7. Chaplains

- a. Chaplains are one of this nation's first religious accommodations in the military.
- b. Since the American Revolution, chaplains have served in the Armed Forces, seeking to ensure that all men and women in uniform and in the DoD have the opportunity to worship— or not— in accordance with their faith and conscience.
- c. Chaplains are endorsed by their faith group as men and women willing to serve in the religiously pluralistic DoD setting, respecting the religious rights of all.
- d. Chaplains and their assistants are the only people in the DoD with whom military personnel may share confidential information without fear of disclosure, regardless of the content of the conversation.

8. Oaths

- a. All who take an oath of office in the DoD to "support and defend the Constitution of the United States," are taking part in a ceremony that involves two issues of religious—diversity and accommodation.
- b. Some religious people feel constrained to avoid swearing an oath, believing such an utterance violates religious tenets. Thus, all military and DoD civilian personnel are given the option of either swearing or affirming.

9. Conscientious Objector

- a. Conscientious objector status began as a religious accommodation and is most frequently used by men and women of faith.
- b. Military members may seek this status without citing a religious motive or possessing religious beliefs.

10. Clergy-Penitent Privilege

- a. A privileged communication is one made by a service member to a chaplain or chaplain's assistant that will not be disclosed in a court of law without specific permission from the service member.
- b. The parameters are outlined in the Manual for Courts Martial, Part III (Military Rules of Evidence), Section V (Privileges), Rule 503 (p. III-24.), Rule 503, which states that communications between a service member and chaplain, or chaplain's assistant, will not be disclosed in a court of law without specific permission from the service member.
- c. Service members need to be aware that to obtain the protection of the privilege, the communication made to the chaplain or chaplain's assistant must (1) be made to the chaplain or chaplain's assistant in his/her official capacity; (2) be intended to be a private communication; and (3) be made as a matter of conscience or a formal act of religion.
- d. DoD Instruction 1300.06 (Conscientious Objection), paragraph 7.2, specifically disallows privileged status to communications between a chaplain and service member that take place in the course of the mandatory interview during the conscientious objector application process.

11. Worship

- a. Worship services are accommodated except when precluded by military necessity.

- b. If the time required for religious worship falls within normal duty hours or duty rosters, the service member may request exception from those hours and rosters but must be prepared to perform alternative duty or duty hours.
- c. Commanders may grant ordinary leave as an option for a service member's request to observe lengthy holy periods or days.

12. Federally-funded Burial/Headstones

- a. The Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) furnishes, upon request and at no charge to the applicant, a headstone or marker for the grave of any deceased eligible veteran in any cemetery around the world, regardless of their date of death.
- b. For eligible veterans who died on or after Nov. 1, 1990, the VA may also provide a headstone or marker for graves that are already marked with a private headstone or marker. When the grave is already marked, applicants have the option of applying for either a traditional headstone or marker or a new device.
- c. The VA maintains a list of faith group symbols that may be placed (carved or engraved) upon the headstone or marker. Symbols are added to this list as faith groups submit requests.

B. Accommodations

DoDI 1300.17 states that military departments will accommodate individual expressions of sincerely-held beliefs (conscience, moral principles, or religious) of servicemembers unless they have an adverse effect on military readiness, mission accomplishment, unit cohesion, and good order and discipline.

1. All requests for accommodation of religious practices will be assessed on a case-by-case basis.
2. Each request must be considered and based on:
 - a. sincerely-held beliefs of the requester,
 - b. its unique facts,
 - c. the nature of the requested religious accommodation,
 - d. the effect of approval or denial on the service member's exercise of religion,
 - e. and the effect of approval or denial on mission accomplishment, including unit cohesion.
3. Accommodation Procedures:

Military commanders should consider the following factors when determining whether to grant a request:

- a. The importance of military requirements in terms of mission accomplishment, including military readiness, unit cohesion, good order, discipline, health, and safety;
- b. The religious importance of the accommodation to the requester;
- c. The cumulative impact of repeated accommodations of a similar nature;
- d. Alternative means available to meet the requested accommodation;
- e. Previous treatment of the same or similar requests, including treatment of similar requests made for other than religious reasons.

If a waiver of current Service policy is required to approve a request, the decision authority rests with the Secretary concerned.

4. Common Religious Accommodation Request

a. **Time Off for Religious Observances, Rituals, Holidays**

When considering such requests, military leaders should refer to DoD Instruction 1300.17 for guidance. With regard to civilian requests for time off for religious reasons, military leaders and/or civilian supervisors should refer to the rules outlined in 5 U.S.C. 5550a, Subpart J—Adjustment of Work Schedules for Religious Observances, which states that Federal employees are entitled to time off to observe religious holidays, exercises, and functions. For more information on this Title 5 provision, see the section on "Religious Accommodation of Civilian Federal Employees" on the DEOMI website (www.deomi.org, under Religious Diversity).

b. **Religious Apparel**

DoDI 1300.17 states that "under Public Law 100-180, section 508 [reference (c)], members of the Armed Forces may wear visible items of religious apparel while in uniform, except under circumstances in which an item is not neat and conservative or its wearing shall interfere with the performance of the member's military duties."

- 1) Individual Service uniform/grooming implementing regulations are the authority per law and DoD policy.
- 2) Members may wear items of religious apparel while in uniform, except when the items would interfere with the performance of military duties or the item is not neat and conservative.

- 3) When evaluating religious accommodation requests regarding grooming (e.g., hair length and styles) and body art, factors to consider include whether approving the accommodation would:
 - a) Impair the safe and effective operation of weapons, military equipment, or machinery;
 - b) Pose a health or safety hazard to the service member wearing the religious apparel and/or others;
 - c) Interfere with the wear or proper function of special or protective clothing or equipment (e.g., helmets, flak jackets, flight suits, camouflaged uniforms, protective masks, wet suits, and crash and rescue equipment);
 - d) Otherwise impair the accomplishment of the military mission.

c. Dietary Requirements

Some faith groups have religious tenets that prohibit eating specific foods or prescribe how food should be prepared. These dietary restrictions are normally prohibitions against specific foods rather than requirements to eat only a few select foods.

d. Medical Requirements

Service members may request accommodation of these beliefs and practices, using the chain of command and, particularly with regard to waivers of immunization, the combined instruction entitled "Immunizations and Chemoprophylaxis." In addition, the SECNAVINST 1730.8B (Accommodation of Religious Practices) addresses the issue of DNA samples.

5. Accommodating Requests

- a. DoD Policy - According to DoDI 1300.17, "Requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline."
- b. Note the wording of DoDI 1300.17: "Requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders. ..." The word *should* is here to emphasize the fact that commanders should first think "yes" in response to such requests, rather than rejecting them without due consideration. Commanders must be able to explain how granting an accommodation may have an adverse impact upon military readiness, safety, or good order and discipline.

- c. Requests for religious accommodation, however, are not guaranteed. Operational needs or safety concerns may dictate that commanders deny such a request. You can play a role in assisting the commander to make a wise decision, especially to the degree that you are familiar with the DoDI 1300.17 and the other regulations and instructions that address religious accommodation.
- d. Civilian Policy—These rules and regulations attempt to apply secular standards to faith issues. The policy is trying to address religion using reason: "Federal law requires an agency to accommodate employees' exercise of their religion unless such accommodation would impose an undue hardship on the conduct of the agency's operations..." (Supreme Court quote) *Guidelines on religious exercise and religious expression in the federal workplace, 14 August 1997.*

6. Uncommon Request

In 1996, Congress passed a law that allowed for ceremonial use of peyote, for sacramental purposes only, by members of the Native American Church. The Federal Government, including the Military Services, was directed to accommodate peyote usage as an element of religious practice under strict conditions. This public law, and all the DoD regulations and instructions regarding it, apply only to peyote. No other hallucinogenic drugs may be used by military members or federal workers for religious purposes. And it is important to remember that peyote may only be used by *bonafide* members of the Native American Church.

7. Decision Making Factors

a. Importance of Military Requirement

For commanders, the military mission is paramount, so s/he will take into consideration such things as unit cohesion, standards, and readiness when considering requests for religious accommodation. At the same time, s/he must remember that the DoDI 1300.17 urges commanders to think "yes" first, rather than "no."

b. Importance to Requester

Determining the importance of the request is subjective, so care must be taken on the part of EOAs and commanders to ensure that this is given due consideration.

c. Cumulative Impact

It is important for EOAs and commanders to consider each request individually and in conjunction with the other factors before making a final decision.

d. Alternatives

What alternatives exist that might meet the requested accommodation? Ask the requester! Chances are this is not the first time he/she has requested the

accommodation. Religious accommodations often must be requested anew at each duty station, or with every new commander.

e. Previous Treatment of Similar Requests

It can be helpful to do some research, talk with other EOAs, talk with chaplains, to see how other accommodation requests have been addressed.

8. White House Guidelines

a. Section 1 - Religious Exercise and Expression in the Federal Workplace

- 1) Religious expression
- 2) Religious discrimination
- 3) Accommodation of religious exercise
- 4) Establishment of religion

b. Section 2 - Guiding Legal Principles

- 1) Religious expression
- 2) Discrimination in terms and conditions
- 3) Coercion of employees' participation or non-participation in religious activities
- 4) Hostile work environment and harassment
- 5) Accommodation of religious exercise
- 6) Establishment of religion

c. Section 3 - General:

These guidelines govern the internal management of the civilian executive branch and are not intended to create any new law or equity by a party against the United States, its agencies, its officers, or any person.

9. Restrictions

Some of the same issues that commanders seek to accommodate must, when mission needs dictate; religion practices must either be postponed or restricted. These include not only worship activities, but might also include, for example, requiring Jewish personnel, who normally wear the yarmulke, to cease doing so if in a position where such headgear might constitute a safety hazard; requiring those who have waivers of immunization for religious reasons to receive shots against an imminent threat of widespread contagion; requiring those who are normally excused from working or standing duty on their Sabbath to do so; and so on.

C. Discrimination

Religious discrimination is behavior in which a person or group is treated differently because of what they do or do not believe. This behavior can be seen in the following ways:

1. **Discounting**

This occurs when another person's religious practice or values—dissimilar to one's own—are dismissed, or discounted, as less important. This can translate into denial of that person's opportunity to practice his/her own beliefs, or a tendency to think a person is trying to gain special privileges.

2. **Religious Jokes and Slurs**

These are similar to racial or ethnic jokes, with a religious theme.

3. **Mandating**

Overtly or covertly requiring a person to participate in a religious service or public prayer (e.g., at a staff meeting or mandatory formation). Mandating worship, prayer, or any other religious behavior constitutes discrimination against those who do not wish to worship, pray, or engage in religious behavior.

4. **Stereotyping**

Religion is as much a source of stereotypes as race, gender, and other factors.

5. **Exclusion**

Refusing to associate with people because of their religious beliefs.

6. **Ignoring and Indifference**

- a. Ignoring—Failing to recognize and address legitimate religious needs, such as providing alternative services or considering the religious or worship needs of individuals of faith, or the needs of those with no faith.
- b. Indifference—Lack of concern for those with religiously-focused concerns, to include those who wish to be free from religion.

7. **Harassment**

Religious speech, to include sharing one's faith with others, is as free and protected as any other speech. Where that freedom and protection ends, however, is when evangelizing or proselytizing activities conducted by a service member becomes harassment.

D. Strategies to Combat Religious Discrimination

As an EOA, you have a responsibility to be conversant with religious issues within your unit. A number of strategies exist to ensure you can discuss religious accommodation and/or discrimination issues with your commander and other leaders with intelligence and insight

EOA involvement can prevent or help to resolve religious accommodation and discrimination issues. This will create greater unit cohesion and better morale.

1. Do some research on various faith groups, or get together with a unit member whose faith is new to you and learn and have knowledge on what that person believes and practices.
2. Be aware and capable of advising about religious issues within your unit, or the military as a whole, as well as national trends.
3. Research unit religious demographics and keep commanders aware of issues that pertain to the religious groups within your unit.
4. Research unit religious demographics and keep commanders aware of issues that pertain to the religious groups within your unit.
5. Work with unit chaplain.
6. Stress to commanders and other unit leaders the:
 - a. Importance of religious faith, and the accommodation thereof
 - b. Rights of those who do not profess a religious faith (atheists, agnostics, humanists).
 - c. Importance of understanding DoDI 1300.17 and regulations, policies, and directives as these apply to possible or actual religious discrimination.
7. Ensure all unit members understand the overarching importance of the military mission.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define religion as described in DoD Directive 1350.2.

- B. Describe how DoD addresses religious accommodation requests.
- C. State how to recognize religious discrimination.
- D. Identify strategies to combat religious discrimination in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 3700

SEXUAL ASSAULT PREVENTION AND RESPONSE (SAPR)



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Lesson Overview

The lesson is divided into two segments, lecture and scenarios. The lecture will provide information for participants to understand the definitions and differences between sexual assault and sexual harassment, to clarify EOA's role, and to identify reporting options and requirements. The lesson incorporates a series of scenarios designed to elicit discussion with students (while remaining in the auditorium) to determine the required course of action for their role as EOAs.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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17. Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office. (2015, January 12). *SAPRO website*. Retrieved from <http://www.sapr.mil>
18. Under Secretary of Defense (Personnel and Readiness). (2014, February 1). Department of Defense Instruction 6495.02. *Sexual assault prevention and response program procedures*, Change 1.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Handout of Service SAPRO links (Embedded in Student Guide)
3. Handout of Sexual Assault Flow Chart (See Student Guide)
4. Handout of DEOCS 4.0 (See Student Guide)

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation—Sexual Assault Prevention and Response
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide, students will know how sexual assault affects military readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe SAPR policies in the DoD.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the difference between sexual harassment and sexual assault.	K	CRT
C. Discuss the myths and misconceptions associated with sexual assault.	K	CRT
D. Describe negative effects of sexual assault on military readiness.	K	CRT
E. Recognize reporting options for sexual assault victims.	K	CRT
F. Recognize strategies to prevent sexual assault	K	CRT
G. Identify sexual assault referral agencies.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SEXUAL ASSAULT PREVENTION AND RESPONSE**A. SAPR Policies in the DoD**

1. Oversight of the Department's Sexual Assault Prevention and Response programs is the responsibility of the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office, or SAPRO.

The DoD SAPR mission is to prevent and respond to the crime of sexual assault in order to enable the military readiness and reduce—with a goal to eliminate—sexual assault from the military.

2. SAPRO:

- a. Develops policy and programs to improve prevention efforts
- b. Sets training standards and assesses whether those standards have been met
- c. Enhances treatment and response to victims, and ensures system accountability
- d. Collaborates closely with services and numerous outside organizations to fully implement those policies and programs

3. DoD SAPR Strategic Plan Lines of Effort

- a. Prevention—Deliver consistent and effective prevention methods and programs.
- b. Accountability—Achieve high competence in holding offenders appropriately accountable.
- c. Advocacy/Victim Assistance—Deliver consistent and effective victim support, response, and reporting options.
- d. Assessment—effectively standardizes measure, analyze, assess, and report program progress.

4. DoD SAPR Strategic Plan Objectives

- a. Prevention—Cultural imperatives of mutual respect and trust, professional values, and team commitment are reinforced to create an environment where sexual assault is not condoned, tolerated or ignored.
- b. Investigation—Investigative resources yield timely and accurate results.
- c. Accountability—Perpetrators are held accountable appropriately.

- d. Advocacy/Victim Assistance—DoD provides high quality services and support to instill confidence and trust, strengthen resilience, and inspire victims.
- e. Assessment—DoD incorporates responsive, meaningful, and accurate systems of measurement and evaluation into every aspect of the SAPR program.

B. Differences between sexual harassment and sexual assault

1. Definition of Sexual Harassment

Sexual Harassment—A form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, request for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

- a. Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly, a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or,
- b. Submission to or reflection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or,
- c. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

This definition emphasizes that this workplace conduct is actionable as an “abusive work environment” harassment that can result in concrete psychological harm to the victim and be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive the work environment as hostile or offensive. (“Workplace” is an expansive term for Military members and can include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day.) Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a Military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment. Similarly, any Military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment. *DoDD 1350.2*

2. Definition of Sexual Assault

Intentional sexual contact characterized by the use of force, threats, intimidation, or abuse of authority or when the victim does not or cannot consent. The term “sexual assault” includes a broad category of sexual offenses consisting of the following specific UCMJ offenses:

Rape, sexual assault, aggravated sexual contact, abusive sexual contact, forcible sodomy (forced oral or anal sex), or attempts to commit these acts. *DoDD 6495.01 (Ch 1 Apr 30, 2013), USCG COMDTINST 1754.10C.*

3. Examples of Sexual Harassment

- a. Verbal comments
- b. Obscene or sexually explicit media
- c. Non-verbal actions
- d. Physical touching
- e. Unwanted requests to perform sexual acts or sexual favors

4. Examples of Sexual Assault

- a. Grabbing without permission
- b. Making someone give or receive oral sex
- c. Touching a person while incapacitated
- d. Threatening or coercing someone to have sex
- e. Touching with an object without consent
- f. Having sex with someone without consent

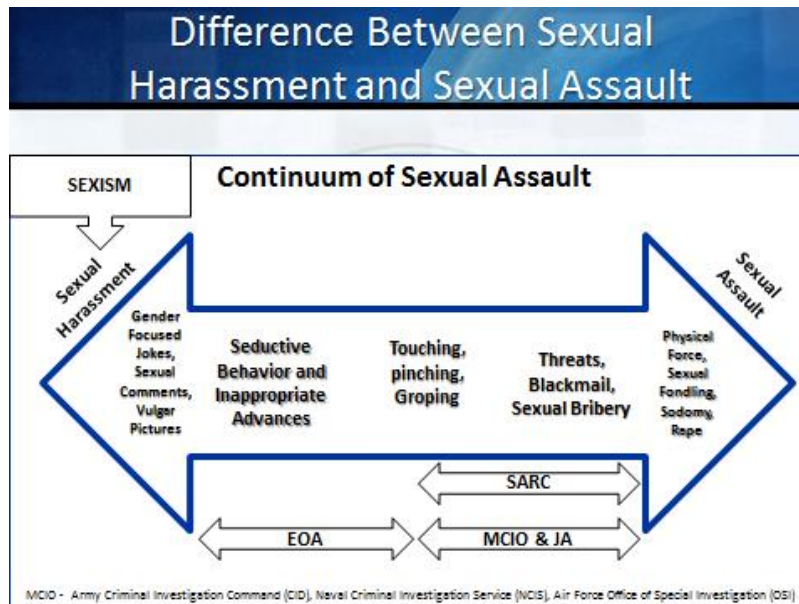
5. Consent

- a. Words or overt acts indicating a freely-given agreement to the sexual conduct at issue by a competent person.
- b. An expression of lack of consent through words or conduct means there is no consent.
- c. Lack of verbal or physical resistance or submission resulting from the accused's use of force, threat of force, or placing another person in fear does not constitute consent.
- d. A current or previous dating relationship by itself, or the manner of dress of the person involved with the accused in the sexual conduct at issue, shall not constitute consent.

Consent is not given when a person used force, threat of force, coercion or when the victim is asleep, incapacitated, or unconscious. Consent is a critical concept regarding sexual assault.

According to research, alcohol is a significant factor in sexual assault incidents in the military, similar to trends at colleges and universities. The link between extreme alcohol use and sexual assault in the military is clear. In an article that summarizes numerous research efforts that were conducted for over a decade, the connection between excessive use of alcohol by college students and sexual assault is well documented. This research describes the connections between alcohol abuse and sexual assault among college students, but is also applicable to the military. Dr. Abbey states that at least 50 percent of sexual assaults among college students are associated with alcohol use. She concludes that "because of the strong association of alcohol use and sexual assault, programming and intervention of these two areas should be coordinated."

The Sexual Assault ("S") Continuum



This continuum is very useful, not only in identifying how assaults may occur, but also in giving some warning signals before they happen. This is important to you, as EOAs for several reasons. First and foremost, as we stated in the introduction, as EOAs you are not part of the Sexual Assault Response Team, so it is important for you to know when behaviors move from harassment into assault, and when and how to make a referral or report. But as EOAs, you have responsibilities regarding sexual harassment. And it is in addressing sexual harassment that you can play a role in preventing sexual assault, and also be a strategic partner to your commanding officer in ensuring the climate is free of sexual harassment.

- a. The continuum begins with sexism and sexist attitudes that many, if not most, of us learn in childhood and are often reinforced by our society, environment, and culture in adulthood. Briefly defined, sexism is those attitudes or behaviors, based on stereotypes of traditional sexual roles that can lead to devaluation or discrimination against a person because of their sex or gender. There appears to be a link between what is learned in our early stages of development concerning our sexist behaviors that perpetuate forms of sexual harassment or degradation of the opposite sex. Obviously, not everyone who grows up with sexist attitudes winds up sexually harassing or assaulting others. Many “outgrow” or control these attitudes, but for some, sexism can predispose them to harassment and even assault.
- b. Sexual harassment can include jokes, comments, vulgar pictures, unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. While sexual harassment can involve physical contact, it can also involve verbal or non-verbal manifestations of a sexual nature. Sexual harassment is handled by EOAs. That is clearly in your line of responsibility. You are trained to address it, and you are clear on the policies and regulations regarding it.

- c. Sexual harassment can involve unwanted touching; however, touching is the “middle area” of the continuum where sexual harassment moves toward sexual assault. That difference is non-consensual, physical contact or threat to force submission, sexual assault is characterized by use of force, physical threat, and or abuse of authority, or when the victim is unable to consent or incapacitated.
- d. On the far end of the spectrum, any of the behaviors that fall under sexual assault are the domain of the Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC), or the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Victim Advocate (SAPR VA), and your best course of action is to hand off to the SARC.

C. Sexual Assault Myths and Misconceptions

There are numerous myths and misconceptions regarding sexual assault. Most sexual assault myths shift blame from the perpetrator to the victim; as a result, victims are less likely to report assaults or receive adequate care.

Some of the most challenging myths involve male sexual assault. Male victims of sexual assault contend with myths of male strength and sexuality, which leads many to believe that “real men” do not get raped and that males raped by other men must be homosexual. This is an example of victim-blaming. In fact, in the United States, 5 to 10 percent reported rapes are of males. With such low numbers of male sexual assaults among the general population, civilian terminology and sexual assault prevention and response programs remain focused principally on female victims. This terminology and these programs have been adopted by the military with little consideration of the fact that the Armed Forces are comprised of 85 percent males and 15 percent females. This focus on female victims in a predominantly male environment makes it all the more difficult for male sexual assault victims to seek assistance; likewise, within the military, incidents involving male victims, as is also true of female victims, are under reported.

Historically and across all cultures, the act of sexual assault is more about power and control than sexual gratification.

D. Negative Effects of Sexual Assault on Military Readiness

1. Individual

Beyond the physical wounds of sexual assault, victims’ psychological reactions can be prolonged and harmful such as:

- a. PTSD
- b. Fear and anxiety associated with reporting barriers, confusion, embarrassment, shame, and self-blame

- c. Difficulty sleeping
- d. Lack of concentration
- e. Depression

Victims of sexual assault may be unable to perform their assigned duties due to medical treatment or counseling, or if relocated from the unit to ensure their safety. Victims who continue to serve in the same unit with their assailant are likely to have diminished abilities to perform their duty due to concerns over personal safety and potential re-victimization.

2. Unit

- a. A unit's military readiness is highly dependent on the quality and quantity of its personnel. Sexual assault directly and indirectly diminishes readiness, adversely affecting the units of both victims and assailants. These impacted Service members are frequently absent from duty because of medical, legal, investigative, and administrative matters. Their absences affect unit divisions of labor, productivity, teamwork, their co-workers and cohesion.
- b. Sexual assault also has a negative impact on recruiting and retention in the military services. Service members won't re-enlist if they view the military as a hostile and non-supportive environment, and fewer young people will join the military if they are concerned about a climate that tolerates sexual violence and assault.

E. Strategies to Prevent Sexual Assault

- 1. SAPRO plays a key role in developing DoD's sexual assault prevention strategy.
 - a. DoD's sexual assault prevention is more than risk management.
 - b. It takes as broad community approach encompassing all personnel at every level to end sexual assault throughout the DoD.

Strategies to Prevent Sexual Assaults

Objective: To deliver consistent and effective prevention methods and programs.

Endstate: Cultural imperatives of mutual respect and trust, professional values, and team commitment are reinforced to create an environment where sexual assault is not tolerated, condoned, or ignored.

★ Leaders are the "center of gravity" for prevention efforts

Spheres of Influence

Social-Ecological Model

Key Means – Resources	Key Ways – Objectives	Supporting End states
DoD Benchmark Prevention Programs and Research	Develop DoD national benchmark prevention program that sets the example for civil society to follow	Acceptance and endorsement of the values shared by DoD
Directives, strategies, and policies	Institutionalize sexual assault prevention practices and programs throughout Department	Institutionalized culture & values, supported by policies
Leader mentorship and unit climate	Influence personal values, attitudes, and behaviors	Establishment and maintenance of a culture/climate which supports the prevention of sexual assault
Education, skills building, & training	Promote healthy and supportive relationships between peers, partners, family, and friends	An environment in which Service members' networks support a culture of sexual assault prevention
Education, skills building, & training	Promote healthy social-emotions relationship skills	Identify, act, and intervene to prevent inappropriate behaviors associated with sexual assault

Excerpted from the 2014-2016 DoD Sexual Assault Prevention Strategy

The DoD has launched a serious effort to get its people to engage in active bystander intervention to prevent sexual assault.

- c. Active bystanders take the initiative to help someone who may be targeted for a sexual assault by a predator.
 - d. Active bystanders also take the initiative to help friends who aren't thinking clearly from becoming perpetrators of a crime.
 - e. Intervention doesn't mean that you only step in to stop a crime in progress; rather, these steps are early intervention, before the crime began.
2. Commanders play a central role in this strategy and can make a difference in the fight against sexual assault by:
 - a. Creating an environment of dignity and respect, and intolerance of sexual violence.
 - b. Setting the right standards and vigorously enforcing those expectations.
 - c. Encouraging troops to demonstrate the courage to identify and correct inappropriate behavior regardless of the perceived cost to their social standing.

3. Though sexual assault prevention is more than risk management, commanders and senior enlisted leaders understand they are responsible for mitigating the sexual assault risks. Some include:
 - a. Gender separation in barracks and dormitories.
 - b. Installation of cameras and additional lighting.
 - c. Enacting curfews and increasing the number of safety patrols.

Commanders also recognize that social marketing campaigns, including the use of sexual assault prevention campaign posters, and consistent leadership messages on sexual assault are critical to prevention efforts.

4. Equal opportunity professionals can exert considerable influence by:
 - a. Keeping commanders aware of their organization's climate through ongoing assessments and assisting them in formulating action plans for resolution.
 - b. Helping them foster an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust, and teamwork.
 - c. Being a change agent by dispelling sexual assault myths and misconceptions.

Myths and misconceptions if left unchecked, pave the way to more violent incidents. If faulty attitudes and beliefs that lead to sexual assault can be stopped and awareness and education be introduced, sexual assault can decrease dramatically.

F. Reporting Options for Sexual Assault Victims

1. Unrestricted
 - a. Command and law enforcement are notified.
 - b. An investigation is initiated.
 - c. Legal proceeding usually follows if there is sufficient evidence.

In situations where a victim wants to participate in the military justice process, a victim makes an Unrestricted Report. However, the victim can access care and services without participating in the military justice system.

- d. A SARC shall be notified, respond or direct a SAPR VA to respond; assign a SAPR VA.

- e. Victim is offered healthcare treatment and a SAFE.
- f. If a victim elects this reporting option, a victim may not change from an Unrestricted Report to a Restricted Report.

2. Restricted

- a. For victims of sexual assault who wish to confidentially disclose the crime to specifically identified individuals without triggering the official investigative process.
- b. Victims receive healthcare treatment and the assignments of a SARC and a SAPR VA.

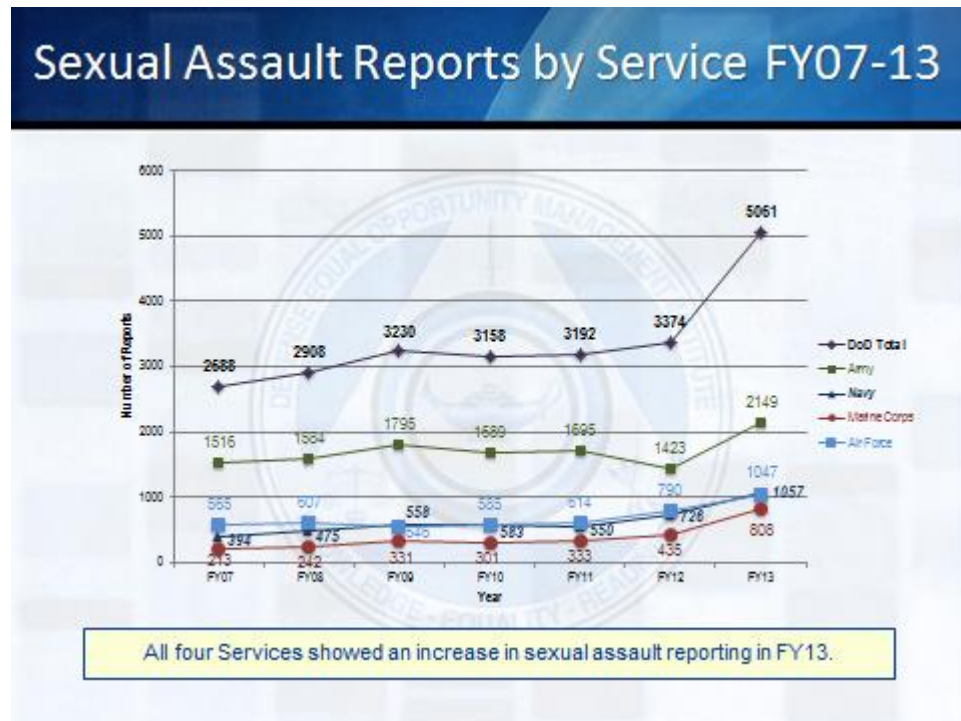
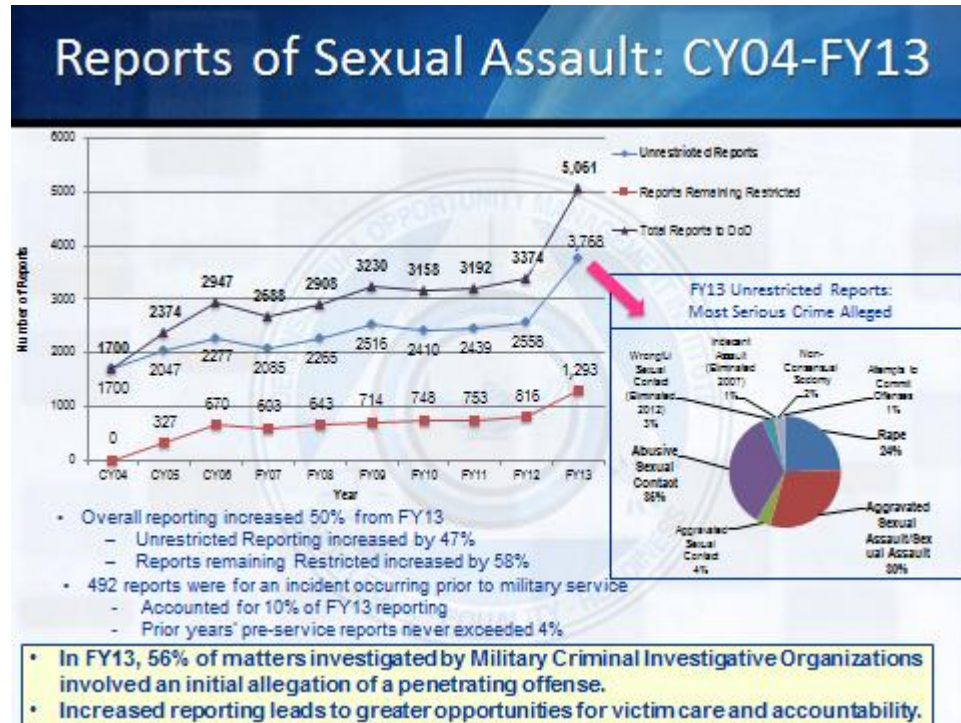
Victims who desire restricted reporting under this policy must use one of the following reporting avenues: SARC, SAPR VA, or healthcare personnel.

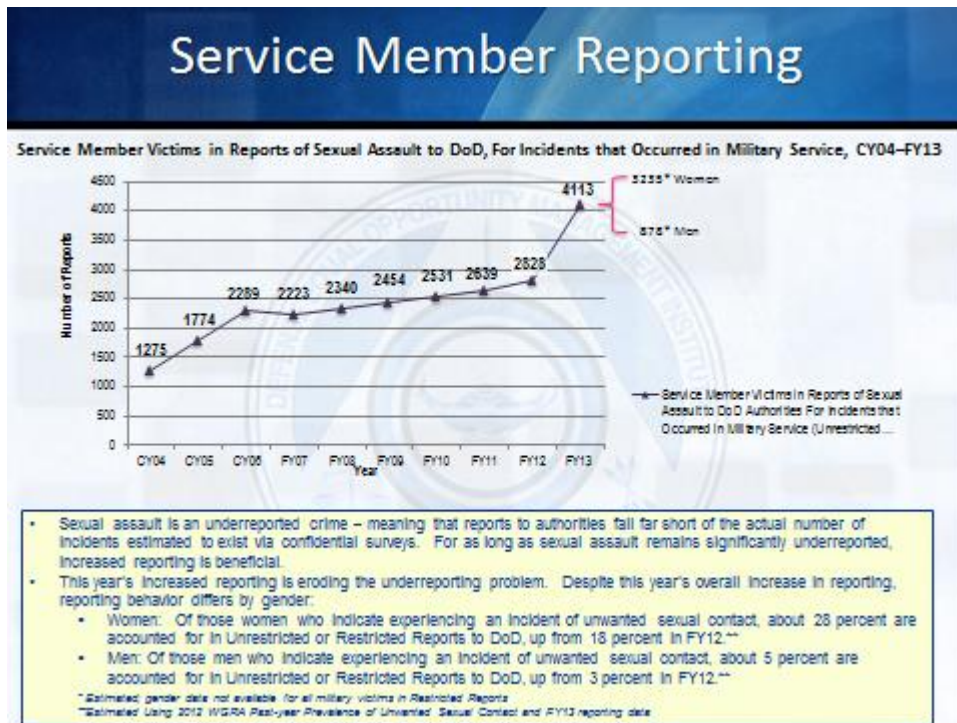
- c. Restricted reporting is not anonymous reporting, however, when a victim discloses the matter to anyone other than a SARC, VA, or medical provider, the communication is not protected.

If the sexual assault is disclosed to a friend who is in law enforcement or chain of command, the report becomes unrestricted. If a victim elects this reporting option, a victim can change from a Restricted Report to an Unrestricted Report at any time.

3. Who is eligible?

- a. All Service members, including victims prior to enlistment or commissioning (unrestricted and restricted reporting) except for cases that fall under FAP (e.g. dependents 17/below, or when perpetrated by a family member, or domestic/intimate partner.) Note: DoD policy currently does not cover retirees.
- b. Adult military dependents (unrestricted and restricted reporting) except for cases that fall under FAP (e.g. dependents 17/below or when perpetrated by a family member, or domestic/intimate partner.)
- c. Non-military individuals (unrestricted and restricted reporting only): DoD civilians and their adult family members, and DoD contractors stationed OCONUS and eligible for treatment in the MHS.





G. Sexual Assault Referral Agencies

1. Department of Defense (DoD) Safe Helpline is a groundbreaking crisis support service for members of the DoD community affected by sexual assault. Safe Helpline provides live, one-on-one support and information to the worldwide DoD community. The service is confidential, anonymous, secure, and available worldwide, 24/7 by click, call or text—providing victims with the help they need anytime, anywhere.



WWW.Safehelpline.org

Safe Helpline

Live Help 24/7

Call 877-995-

5247

VOIP 24/7

Info by Text

Text Zip Code or

Installation/Base Name to

55-247 (inside the US) or

202-470-5546 (outside US)

2. Safe Helpline services (click, call, and text) are owned by the DoD Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office (SAPRO) and are operated through a contract the Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network (RAINN), the nation's largest anti-sexual violence organization. However, your information will remain confidential. RAINN will not share your name or any other personally-identifying information with SAPRO or your chain of command, unless required by law.
3. The SHL Mobile Application capability affords those Service members OCONUS or in deployed combat areas resources, self-care plans, and various coping exercises, such as breathing and meditation. In addition, it provides a Voice-Over-Internet Provider (VOIP) feature that allows a survivor to connect to the DoD SHL 24/7 with no charge from anywhere in the world.
4. Transitioning Service members (TSMs): Safe Helpline staff is specially trained to focus on the unique challenges faced by TSMs, which will allow them to provide appropriate resources to TSMs who are victims of sexual assault. A veteran-specific resource dashboard includes benefits, resources, and referrals available 24/7. Additionally, TSMs will be able to text their location to be connected with VA resources.
5. Each service has their own website dedicated to assist in referring victims of sexual assault.
 - Army SHARP
<http://www.sexualassault.army.mil/>
 - Navy SAPR
http://www.cnicy.navy.mil/ffr/family_readiness/fleet_and_family_support_program/sexual_assault_prevention_and_response.html
 - Marine Corps Community Services
https://www.manpower.usmc.mil/portal/page/portal/M_RA_HOME/MF/Sexual%20Assault%20Prevention
 - Air Force SAPR
<http://www.sexualassaultpreventionresponse.af.mil/index.aspx>
 - National Guard SAPR
<http://www.jointservicessupport.org/sapr/default.aspx>
 - Coast Guard SAPR (State Laws)
<http://www.sapr.mil> or http://www.uscg.mil/worklife/rape_sexual_assault.asp
 - United States Department of Defense
<http://sapr.mil>
6. Referral agencies an EOA can refer a victim of sexual assault to:

- a. Sexual Assault Response Coordinator/ Sexual Assault Prevention and Response
Victim Advocate

Military Criminal Investigative Organization as applicable

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe SAPR policies in the DoD.
- B. Recognize the differences between sexual harassment and sexual assault.
- C. Discuss the myths and misconceptions associated with sexual assault.
- D. Describe negative effects of sexual assault on military readiness.
- E. Recognize strategies to prevent sexual assault.
- F. Recognize reporting options for sexual assault victims.
- G. Identify sexual assault referral agencies.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA-4000

CULTURAL AWARENESS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson plan are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material should not be taken out of context or used for any other purpose than intended. Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense (DoD) or other U.S government source, DEOMI does not endorse any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson provides an introduction into race, ethnicity, and culture in America. The Cultural Awareness lesson introduces the student to the race and ethnic groups designated by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB). This lesson also introduces the student to the concept of culture and how people adapt to cultural differences. The lesson explores the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity which explains six levels of how people react to different cultures. The lesson then introduces the 3C concept, Cross Cultural Competency, and uses the 3C bulls-eye to describe the levels of cultural competence. This lesson is an introductory lesson to the race and ethnic studies portion of the EOAC.

Recommended Reading

Office of Management and Budget (OMB), *Federal Register*, October 30, 1997.

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2. Dept. of Defense 3C Cross Cultural Competence, <http://www.defenseculture.org/>
3. Farley, John E., Majority-Minority Relations, Prentice-Hall, 1995.
4. Parrillo, Vincent N., Strangers to These Shores, Seventh Edition, Pearson Education Inc., 2003
5. U.S. Army and Marine Corps Counterinsurgency Field Manual, (2007)
6. U.S. Office of Management and Budget; Standards for the Classification of Federal Data on Race and Ethnicity; *Federal Register*, August 28, 1995.

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Cultural Awareness
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objectives

Given examples, non-examples, reading assignments, and a study guide know how cultural awareness impacts mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define race and ethnicity	K	Q
B. List the OMB race and ethnic groups	K	CRT
C. Describe the concept of culture	K	CRT
D. Describe how people adapt to other cultures	K	CRT
E. Describe the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)Describe	K	CRT
F. Describe Cross Cultural Competency (3C)	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test Q = Question & Answer SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

CULTURAL AWARENESS**A. Race and Ethnicity**

1. Race

a. Anthropological perspective.

"A division of human beings identified by the possession of traits that are transmissible by descent and that are sufficient to characterize persons possessing these traits as a distinctive human *genotype*." DoD Directive 1350.2 (2003, p. 19)

b. "... a group of people who are generally considered to be physically distinct in some way (e.g., skin color, hair texture, or facial features such as size and shape of the head, eyes, ears, lips, nose, color of eyes) from other groups and are generally considered by themselves and/or others to be a distinct group (Farley, 1995).

c. Race as a social construct.

When demographic information is collected, the racial categories represent a social-political construct for respondents to consider themselves to be and "generally reflect a social definition of race recognized in this country."

2. Ethnicity

a. *Ethnicity*, as noted by Parrillo, is a cultural concept in which a large number of people who share learned or acquired traits and close social interaction regard themselves and are regarded by others as constituting a single group on that basis.

b. Ethnicity differs from race in that members within a racial category may identify with one or more ethnic groups based on cultural or national origin characteristics (e.g., customs, traditions, language) either retrained or passed on through generations.

c. Ethnic groups sometimes live within the same communities and maintain many of their traditional cultural features.

B. OMB Race and Ethnic Groups

1. Race/Ethnic Groups and OMB

a. The Office of Management and Budget (OMB) developed the five race and two ethnic groups to provide a common language to promote uniformity and comparability of data collected for research.

b. OMB defines the concept of race as outlined for the US Census as not "scientific or anthropological" and takes into account "social and cultural characteristics as well as

- ancestry", using "appropriate scientific methodologies" that **are not** "primarily biological or genetic in reference."
- c. Five race groups
 - 1) American Indian or Alaska Native
 - 2) Asian
 - 3) Black or African American
 - 4) Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - 5) White
 - d. Two ethnic groups
 - 1) Hispanic or Latino
 - 2) Not Hispanic or Latino

C. Concept of Culture

1. Culture

- a. According to Parrillo in his book, *Strangers to These Shores*, culture is: Physical or material objects as well as the nonmaterial attitudes, beliefs, customs, lifestyle, and values shared by members of a society and transmitted to the next generation.
- b. According to the U.S. Army and Marine Corps Counterinsurgency Field Manual, culture is: A “web of meaning” shared by members of a particular society or group within a society.
- c. Attributes of Culture
 - 1) A system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and artifacts that members of a society use to cope with their world and with one another
 - 2) Learned, through a process called enculturation
 - 3) Shared by members of a society; there is no “culture of one”
 - 4) Patterned, meaning that people in a society live and think in ways forming definite, repeating patterns

- 5) Changeable, through social interactions between people and groups
 - 6) Internalized, in the sense that it is habitual, taken for granted, and perceived as “natural” by people within the society
2. Cultural adaptation describes how people adapt to other cultures
 - a. Assimilation. The process of re-socialization that seeks to replace one’s original worldview with that of the host culture.
 - b. Adaptation. The process whereby one’s worldview is expanded to include behavior and values appropriate to the host culture.

D. Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)

1. Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)
 - a. Ethno-centric. Defined as using one’s own set of standards and customs to judge all people, often unconsciously.
 - b. Ethno-relative. Refers to being comfortable with many standards and customs and to having an ability to adapt behavior and judgments to a variety of interpersonal settings.
2. Ethno-centric Stages
 - a. Denial. At this stage people are unable to construe cultural differences in complex ways.
 - b. Defense. People at this stage have more ability to construe cultural difference, but they attach negative evaluations to it.
 - c. Minimization. People at this stage bury cultural differences within already-familiar categories of physical and philosophical similarity.
3. Ethno-relative Stages
 - a. Acceptance. People at this stage enjoy recognizing and exploring cultural differences.
 - b. Adaptation. At this stage, people use knowledge about their own and others’ cultures to intentionally shift into a different cultural frame of reference. They can empathize or take another person’s perspective.
 - c. Integration. People at this stage attempt to reconcile the sometimes conflicting cultural frames that they have internalized.

E. Cross Cultural Competency(3C)

1. Cross Cultural Competency (3C)

- a. 3C is a set of culture-general knowledge, skills, abilities, and attributes (KSAs) developed through education, training, and experience that provide the ability to operate effectively within a culturally complex environment. 3C is further augmented through the acquisition of cultural, linguistic, and regional proficiency, and by their application in cross-cultural contexts. ~ Draft DoD Policy
- b. 3C is a set of knowledge, skills, and attributes that enables leaders and soldiers to adapt and act effectively in a cross-cultural environment. ~ Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC)
- c. 3C is the ability to quickly and accurately comprehend, then appropriately and effectively act, in a culturally complex environment to achieve the desired effect. ~ Air Force Culture and Language Center (AFCLC)
- d. Navigating cultural differences can present operational, strategic, and tactical challenges to our forces.
- e. Effective leaders and operators must be able to adapt across these cultural lines and differences daily.

2. 3C Model

- a. Self. It is important to understand your own beliefs, and personal and cultural values as one way of appreciating multicultural identities.
- b. Unit / Joint Agency. In order to communicate, cooperate, or lead such teams, one must have the cross-cultural competence to work with and lead individuals who are different from themselves
- c. Coalition / Host Nation. Effective coordination and integration of these commands depends upon understanding and addressing differences effectively to create a truly integrated team
- d. Adversary. Lack of cultural knowledge about the adversary can have grave consequences for military war fighters, civilians, and our nation as a whole

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define race and ethnicity
- B. List OMB race and ethnic groups
- C. Describe the concept of culture
- D. Describe how people adapt to other cultures
- E. Describe the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)
- F. Describe Cross Cultural Competency (3C)

END OF LESSON

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Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 6000

GENERAL EOA DUTIES



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding your role and responsibilities as an EOA is extremely important to the success of the EO Program. This lesson covers the major roles of the Equal Opportunity Advisor and factors that contribute to a successful Equal Opportunity Program.

Recommended Reading

None

References

1. DODD 1350.2
2. United States Army. (1988). *Procedures for investigations officers and boards of officers (AR 15-6)*. Department of the Army.
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7. United States Marine Corps. (2002). *Equal Opportunity Advisor*. Marine Corps Order 5354.3B. Department of the Navy.

Student Instructional Materials

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–General EO Duties
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples and a study guide know how Equal Opportunity Advisor duties impact the military environment with no less that 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOS)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the EO Program	K	CRT
B. Identify the Roles and Responsibilities of the EO program	K	CRT
C. Identify the elements that contribute to a successful EO program	K	CRT
D. Identify KSAOs associated with EO duties	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

GENERAL EOA DUTIES

A. EO Program Description

The EO program is designed to promote an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible.

The commanding officer is responsible for implementing an EO program in accordance with the DoD and Service directives. With the EO program, the commanding officer formulates, directs, and sustains a comprehensive effort to maximize human potential and to ensure fair treatment of all unit members based on merit, fitness, and capability to support mission accomplishment.

A strong EO environment creates an environment where unit members can interact with a strong sense of equal opportunity and awareness of others leads to an environment where unit members are more productive, team-oriented, and better able to understand and accomplish their mission.

The goal of the EO program is to ensure that all of organization's members are able to work as a team to support mission accomplishment, cohesion, and readiness

B. Roles and Responsibilities

1. **Advisor:** An EOA provides advice to commanders on the EO program, its policies, procedures, and issues that affect the EO climate of a unit. In addition, the EOA provides guidance and assistance to commanders, unit leaders, service members, subordinate commands and civilian employees.
2. **Trainer and Educator:** An EOA trains and educates commanders, leaders, and service members on the EO program, policies, procedures, and issues that impact the EO climate and unit readiness.
3. **Assessor:** An EOA assists commanders and other leaders on assessing the EO climate of a unit or organization including determining whether the climate is healthy and positive. The EOA will also provide recommended action to improve unhealthy or negative climates.
4. **Change Agent:** An EOA is the commander's change agent for implementing changes to the EO program and other related areas that affect the command climate of the organization.

C. Elements For a Successful EO Program

1. Commanders and leaders are responsible for unit EO

2. Commanders and leaders must promote harmony
3. Commanders and leaders must support individual and cultural diversity
4. Commanders and leaders must ensure that discipline is maintained
5. Commanders and leaders must provide fair and equal treatment of unit members and employees

D. EOA Proficiencies

1. An EOA must be knowledgeable of the following areas:
 - a. Mission and unit
 - b. Policies, procedures, and regulations
 - c. Organizational and socialization systems
 - d. Problem-solving methodology and organizational assessment
 - e. Background on topics relating to human relations (past and present)
 - f. Self and others
2. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following skills:
 - a. Communication
 - b. Observation
 - c. Instructions and persuasion
 - d. Team building and teamwork
 - e. Assessing, planning, implementing and evaluating (APIE)
 - f. Problem Solving
3. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following abilities:
 - a. Flexibility
 - b. Expression, both written and oral
 - c. Problem sensitivity

- d. Concentration
4. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following other characteristics or work styles:
- a. Professionalism
 - b. Objectivity
 - c. Maturity
 - d. Open-mindedness

SUMMARY

- A. Describe the EO program
- B. Identify the Roles and Responsibilities
- C. Identify the Elements that contribute to a Successful EO Program
- D. Identify KSAOs associated with EO duties

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 6050

BYSTANDER INTERVENTION



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

In the Armed Forces and society, it is important to realize and value of unspoken, spoken, and observed behaviors. Frequently these behaviors solidify desirable and undesirable responses. This lesson will inform personnel on human relations matters critical to an effective workforce and mission readiness. Specifically, this lesson will enlighten students on key terms associated with bystander intervention, actions associated with passive vs. active bystanders; and bystander intervention strategies. Active bystander intervention strategies and efforts are fundamental to the Department of Defense and available at <http://myduty.mil/index.php/prevention/active-bystander>.

Recommended Reading

None

References

1. OSD SAPR MyDuty.mil. *Active Bystander*. Retrieved from <http://myduty.mil/index.php/prevention/active-bystander> .
2. Levine, M. & Crowther, S. (2008). The responsive bystander: How social group membership and group size can encourage as well as inhibit bystander intervention. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*.
3. Rowe, M. (2008). Micro-affirmations and micro-inequities. *Journal of the International Ombudsman Association*.
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5. Scully, M. & Rowe, M. (2009). Bystander training within organizations. *Journal of the International Ombudsman Association*.

6. Webster's II New College Dictionary. (2001). Houghton-Mifflin, New York, New York.
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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation—Bystander Intervention
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how power and privilege impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define key terms associated with Bystander Intervention.	K	CRT
B. Recall behaviors associated with passive and active bystanders.	K	CRT
C. Identify Bystander Intervention strategies.	K	CRT
D. Define privilege.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

BYSTANDER INTERVENTION**A. Key Terms**

1. Bystander

Not only do active bystanders take action to prevent unlawful discrimination, sexual harassment, and sexual assault, they also take the initiative to help friends who aren't thinking clearly from becoming perpetrators.

- a. Bystanders can highlight positive acts that might otherwise be invisible or overlooked. They can redirect or de-escalate negative acts that might be problematic. Bystanders might be peers or teammates. They might be subordinate or senior to the person whose comment or behavior warrants reaction.

Bystander: A witness to an event (Webster II New College Dictionary)

- b. Intervention doesn't mean that you only step in to stop a crime in progress; rather, early intervention occurs before the crime or discriminatory act begins.

A bystander could be anyone who sees or otherwise becomes aware of behavior that appears worthy of comment or action.

2. Bystander Intervention

Bystander intervention is assessing a situation to determine what kind of intervention, if any, might be appropriate.

- a. An active bystander will often intervene if another person is in need of help; they will often do this for complete strangers, sometimes even at great personal risk.
- b. Bystander intervention can also mean stepping in, acknowledging, and recognizing positive behaviors (Levine & Crowther, 2008).
 - 1) Recognition of socially desirable behavior—In order to foster productive and inclusive behavior, it is important to encourage and commend good teamwork, excellent performance, and productive human interactions within the workplace.
 - 2) All groups can benefit from the practice of micro-affirmations, which are defined as: “apparently small acts, which are often ephemeral and hard-to-see, events that are public and private, often unconscious but very effective, which occur wherever people wish to help others to succeed.”
 - 3) Recognition of unacceptable behavior—By the same token everyone in the workplace or community is important in discouraging and dealing with unethical, bullying, and discriminatory behavior. A bystander may be able to pivot a

situation—from one where there is awkward silence, exclusion, or hurt—to one where there is support, both for individuals, and for an organization or community's values of inclusivity.

3. The ABCs of Bystander Intervention

There are three components to active bystander intervention (associated with sexual assault). Referred to as the ABCs:

- a. **Assess for safety.** Ensure that all parties are safe, and assess whether the situation requires calling authorities. When deciding to intervene, your personal safety should be the number one priority. When in doubt, call for help.
- b. **Be with others.** If safe to intervene, you're likely to have a greater influence on the parties involved when you work together with someone or several people. Your safety is increased when you stay with a group of friends who you know well.
- c. **Care for the victim.** Ask if the victim of the unwanted sexual advance, attention, or behavior is okay.
 - 1) Does he or she need medical care?
 - 2) Does he or she want to talk to a Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC) to see about reporting the matter?
 - 3) Ask if someone he or she trusts can help him or her get safely home.

4. Bystander Effect

The bystander effect (also known as bystander apathy) is a psychological phenomenon where persons are less likely to intervene in a situation when others are present than when they are alone. (Levine, M. & Crowther, S., 2008)

5. Diffusion of Responsibility

Closely related to bystander effect is diffusion of responsibility.

- a. This is a social phenomenon that tends to occur in groups of people above a certain critical size when responsibility is not explicitly assigned

The more people that are present, the less accountable any of those people feel for their actions (or inaction) (Levine & Crowther, 2008)

B. Passive vs. Active Bystander Intervention

1. Passive Bystander

- a. Passive means: not active.
- b. For the context of this training, a passive bystander refers to an individual or group who should be doing something, but is not. (Levine & Crowther, 2008)

2. Active Bystander

- a. The person who witnesses discriminatory behavior or other behavior that could lead to a sexual assault, recognizes it as such, and takes it upon him or herself to do something about it. (<http://myduty.mil/index.php/prevention/active-bystander>)
- b. Learn how to recognize indications and always be aware of what is going on around you. Look out for situations that could require some intervention. As a bystander, it is much easier to recognize and encourage positive social behavior. It takes some practice and courage to intervene and discourage or stop unacceptable behavior.
- c. Take the initiative of a situation that makes us uncomfortable, we may try to dismiss it as not being a problem. You might tell yourself that the other person will be fine, or that he or she or is able to defend him or herself. This is not a solution! The person may need your help more than you think

3. Passive vs. Active Bystanders

Many people do not intervene when they encounter discriminatory behavior or in a potentially dangerous situation because they are looking to others for cues on how to act, or they believe someone else will intervene. But as a professional or a member of the community, you should intervene responsibly.

- a. In 1968, researchers Darley & Latane conducted an experiment in which a student pretended to have a seizure and they recorded how often others stopped to help.
- b. When only one bystander was watching the scene, the student was helped 85 percent of the time.
- c. However, if there were five bystanders, the student was only helped 31 percent of the time (Latane, B., & Darley, J. Bystander "Apathy," American Scientist, 1969, 57, 244-268).

4. Why Bystanders Don't Act

- a. In emergency situations, many things prohibit bystanders from intervening:
 - 1) If no one else is acting, it is hard to go against the crowd.

- 2) People may feel that they are risking embarrassment (What if I'm wrong and they don't need help?).
 - 3) They may think there is someone else in the group who is more qualified to help.
 - 4) They may think that the situation does not call for help since no one else is doing anything.
- b. Bystanders often hesitate to act because:
- 1) They fear loss of relationships with the problem person or with others who may disapprove of action.
 - 2) They fear retaliation, especially if the problem person is powerful.
 - 3) They fear embarrassment, especially if they may not be believed or they may be viewed as troublemakers, or as violating other community norms.
 - 4) They feel a lack of competence or uncertainty about what action would be best.
 - 5) They believe someone else will take action (perhaps someone else with more authority or expertise) (Rowe, M., Wilcox, L., & Gadlin, H.)

With each person taking cues from people around them, a common result is that no action is taken. What can be done about this problem? As professionals and members of the community, we all have a responsibility to help each other.

5. Bystander situations

- a. Rude, inconsiderate, unprofessional behavior (comments, jokes)
- b. Inappropriate or offensive humor (tasteless jokes, innuendos)
- c. Meanness or bullying (based on appearance, size)
- d. Violation of ethical standards (questionable behavior)
- e. Harassment (based on race, gender, sexual orientation)
- f. Unfair or discriminatory behavior (actions based on race color, religion, sex, disability, age, national origin)
- g. Inappropriate advances (sexual harassment or assault)
- h. Threats of violence (domestic issues, intimidation)

- i. Dangerous behavior (excessive drinking, self-harm)
- j. Escalating or destructive conflict (sexual assault, suicide, physical altercations)

C. Bystander Intervention Strategies

Avoid being a passive bystander! Intervene regardless of what others are doing and don't worry about being wrong; it is better to be wrong than to have done nothing at all.

Be on the lookout for situations that may require some intervention. Learn how to recognize indications and always be aware of what is going on around you

As a bystander, it is much easier to recognize and encourage positive social behavior. It takes some practice and courage to intervene and discourage or stop unacceptable behavior (e.g. discriminatory behavior) (<http://myduty.mil/index.php/prevention/active-bystander>)

Strategies

There are many strategies associated with Active Bystander Intervention:

1. Direct Action
 - a. Talk to a friend to ensure he or she is doing okay.
 - b. Make up an excuse to help the friend get away from someone.
 - c. Call the police.
 - d. Recommend to a bartender or party host that someone has had too much to drink.
 - e. Point out someone's disrespectful behavior in a safe and respectful manner that tends to de-escalate the situation.
 - f. Remove a friend from a risky situation quickly.

2. Safety First

Despite the fact that most of you wear a uniform, no one is asking you to take the part of law enforcement; your personal safety is key.

Before you act, you should think about the following:

- a. How can you keep yourself safe in this situation?
- b. What are all the options available to you?

- c. Who else might be able to assist you in this situation?
- d. What are the pros and cons of acting?
- e. Decide how to help.
- f. Be friendly.
- g. Be firm.
- h. Avoid violence.

<http://myduty.mil/index.php/prevention/active-bystander>

* Adapted from University of New Hampshire's "Bringing in the Bystander." More information is available from: <http://www.unh.edu/preventioninnovations>

When in doubt, trust your gut. Instincts are there for a reason.

When a situation makes us feel uncomfortable, it is generally a good indicator that something is not right

It is better to be wrong about the situation than do nothing. Many people feel reluctant to intervene in a situation because they are afraid of making a scene or feel as though a person would ask for help if it were needed.

3. Don't Second-Guess Yourself

Concerning discriminatory acts or the possibility of sexual assault, you have the responsibility to intervene. Avoid the following thoughts:

- a. "No one else is helping; it must not be a problem."
- b. "Someone else will recognize this behavior."
- c. "People who are sober don't think this is a problem, maybe I'm wrong?"
- d. "Someone else is really responsible and they are not intervening... why should I?"

Many people do not intervene in a potential situation because they are looking to others for cues on how to act or they believe someone else will intervene.

4. Situational Awareness

- a. Know how and when to intervene in a potential situation takes practice and courage.

- b. The most effective time to act might be later, not on the spot, and you may want to get advice before taking steps.
 - c. You should not choose a course of action that puts you or anyone else at risk of harm. Know your own limits and "comfort zone," and use common sense.
5. Here are some "after the act" strategies you can use:
- a. Privately support an upset person—Help someone who has been hurt or offended, and/or prevent further injury or offense. Listen supportively. Provide information about resources available to the aggrieved person.
 - b. Talk privately with the inappropriate person—Give clear feedback and express your opinion in a way that allows the inappropriate actor to save face.
 - c. Report the incident, with or without names—Get help for someone better placed to intervene. Make sure leaders and responders are aware of what is going on

<http://myduty.mil/index.php/prevention/active-bystander>

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Key Terms
- B. Passive vs. Active Bystanders
- C. Bystander Intervention Strategies

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA-6100

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Workforce diversity and inclusion are critical components of a 21st century workforce. Inclusion and diversity training is one tactical component of a diversity strategy. Diversity Management training provides the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and tools to assist Service Members in the professional behaviors needed in a diverse and inclusive working environment. This is important for creating and sustaining change that fosters a more creative, inclusive, respectful, and productive workforce and workplace.

It is critical for the student to understand how important their role is in contributing to a diverse and inclusive workforce. As an Equal Opportunity Advisor, you must support your organization and command to identify in the aggregate the diversity within the DoD to enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness. Within this lesson, instructors must first define diversity management. Instructors must ensure students recognize the differences between Affirmative Action, EO/EEO, and Diversity Management. Students must also comprehend the barriers to diversity and describe some strategies to support diversity in the workplace. The 'Logic of Behavior' activity will follow the lesson and be conducted in the small group room. The students will answer three questions as a group and post them on Chart Packs. The purpose of this activity is to explore the realities of majority/minority status.

Students are also expected to demonstrate appropriate 'social skills' during activities. These skills are associated with 'affective' objectives (see Plan of Instruction) and evaluated using DEOMI's Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation (ISDE) form. Ensure ISDE #3 is placed on the schedule AFTER this lesson and activity.

Required Reading

None

References

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2. Army Diversity Office (2010). Army Diversity Information Paper
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18. United States Government Accountability Office. (2005). *Diversity management: Expert-identified leading practices and agency examples* (GAO-05-90). Washington D.C

19. Van Knippenberg, D., & Schippers, M. C. (2007). *Unity through diversity: Value in diversity beliefs, work group diversity, and group identification*. *Group Dynamics Theory, Research, and Practice*, 11(3), 207-222.

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Diversity Management 6100
2. “Who’s On Your Team” Video (Used as Attention step in the Introduction)
3. Computer and monitor

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide comprehend how diversity management can enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define diversity management	K	CRT
B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management	C	CRT
C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace	C	CRT
D. Identify the barriers to diversity management	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

A. Diversity Management

1. Definition of diversity management according to Military Leadership and Diversity Commission (MLDC)

Definition of Diversity Management: The creation of an equitable and inclusive environment that enhances the contribution of all members to fulfill the organization's mission; where differences are recognized, understood, and valued; and is accomplished through communication, education, policies, programs, selection, retention, mentoring, leadership, and individual accountability. (MLDC, 2013)

2. Definition of diversity management according to DoDD 1020.02

The plans made and programs undertaken to identify in the aggregate the diversity within the Department of Defense to enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness (DoDD 1020.02, 2009).

3. USAF Diversity Policy

The Air Force will develop and maintain comprehensive diversity initiatives to enhance the all-volunteer Total Force, to include active duty, Guard, Reserve, and civilians. The initiatives will:

- a. Ensure all qualified personnel are welcome in America's Air Force.
- b. Educate and train all personnel on the importance of diversity, including mutual respect, thus promoting an Air Force culture that values inclusion of all personnel in the Total Force and views diversity and inclusion throughout the workforce as a force multiplier in accomplishing the mission of the Air Force.
- c. Ensure that all personnel in the Total Force understand they are valued and have the opportunity to achieve their full potential while contributing to the mission of the Air Force.
- d. Establish effective diversity training, mentoring, and professional development that provide the tools for personnel to navigate career progression.
- e. Provide cultural awareness training to enhance organizational capabilities.
- f. Assess and report progress on these initiatives

4. ARMY Diversity Policy

The Army's future plans are reflected in a vision to become the national leader in embracing the strengths of diverse people in an inclusive environment by investing and managing talent, valuing individuals, and developing culturally astute Soldiers and civilians who enhance our communities. The Army will pursue an aggressive, but comprehensive strategy that assures:

- a. Leader commitment.
- b. Managed talent across our diversity.
- c. The best available diversity training and education.
- d. Inclusive environments sustained by informed leaders.

5. USN Diversity Policy

The Department of the Navy Diversity Policy Statement released in August, 2007. We value our people. Our commitment is the foundation for building and maintaining a high quality workforce. We fully expect our leaders to demonstrate this commitment by aggressively eliminating barriers to success for all our people and seeking new ways to diversify talent pool. In our continuous pursuit of excellence, all personnel will share responsibility ensuring that the talents and capabilities of each member are recognized, valued, and used in a manner that contributes to mission accomplishment. In an era when our flexibility, adaptability, critical thinking are paramount to our readiness, a well-managed, highly diverse workforce is imperative to achieving operational excellence.

6. USMC Diversity Policy

The Commandant of the Marine Corps released the following diversity policy: Our leaders must ensure that all Marines, Sailors, and civilians are provided equal opportunity to develop their skills, advance, and contribute to the overall effectiveness of our Corps. By encouraging everyone who is part of our Marine Corps team to reach his or her full potential, we allow our Corps to capitalize on the wide variety of talents and ideas available.

7. USCG Diversity

Diversity Strategic Plan

This Diversity Strategic Plan challenges Coast Guard men and women, active duty, reserve, civilian and Auxiliary, to join in changing the face of our Service to better reflect the diverse fabric of American society. Our recent record of excellence across our mission set, combined with a strong legacy of superior service, has resulted in the Coast Guard achieving unprecedented relevance in the minds of the American people. To ensure that we remain a premiere organization, it is imperative that we continue to progress toward the strategic goal

of constructing a workforce that is reflective of our Nation's diverse composition. Our people are our greatest strength and we must capitalize on that fact by establishing an inclusive environment that respects and values the perspective of diverse individuals, acculturating those influences, and combining them with our proven core values to build our workforce of the future. In this way, we can achieve our goal of organizational excellence and continue to be the nation's front line maritime safety and security agency. By including representation, ensuring equal access, and providing opportunity to all facets of our society, we will continue to achieve relevance in the minds of the American public whom we so ably serve.

B. Recognize the Difference Between Affirmative Action, EO (MEO), EEO, and Diversity Management

1. Affirmative Action

Affirmative Action focuses on prevention and/or correcting discriminatory practices concerned with numbers of minorities and women. It is an attempt to rectify past discrimination against certain groups of people. It requires that organizations affirmatively seek them out; however, it does not set goals or require that individuals be hired.

2. Military Equal Opportunity (MEO)

Equal Opportunity in the military is based upon policy. The DoD MEO Program shall:

- a. Promote an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. In this environment, Service members shall be evaluated only on individual merit, fitness, and capability. Unlawful discrimination against individuals or groups based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin is contrary to good order and discipline and counterproductive to combat readiness and mission accomplishment and shall not be condoned.
- b. Use the chain of command as the primary and preferred channel to identify and correct unlawful discriminatory practices; process and resolve complaints of unlawful discrimination, including sexual harassment; and ensure that human relations and MEO matters are taken seriously and acted upon as necessary.
- c. Identify and resolve MEO problems through formulating, maintaining, and reviewing MEO action plans with established objectives and milestones, including a process for accountability in personnel management.
- d. Provide periodic, mandatory education and training in human relations and MEO at installation and operational unit commands, during pre-commissioning programs and initial entry training, and throughout professional military education systems as part of the overall effort to achieve MEO within the Department of Defense.

- e. Ensure that all on-base activities and all off-base activities are available to all military members and their families regardless of race, color, religion, age, disability, sex, or national origin as permitted by law and DoD policy.

3. Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO)

Equal Employment Opportunity is based upon law. Unlike affirmative action, EEO laws are used as deterrents to future wrongs and as corrective action if a wrong is committed. The DoD Civilian EEO Program shall:

- a. Maintained within the Department of Defense as an essential element of readiness vital to the accomplishment of the DoD national security mission.
- b. Develop and implement programs to promote diversity and ensure EEO in the DoD civilian workforce at all grade levels, in every occupational series, and in every major organizational element, in accordance with EEOC and OPM guidance and consistent with law, specific circumstances, and the needs of the Department of Defense.
- c. Ensure civilian EEO program activities for the DoD workforce are integrated fully into the civilian personnel management and data systems.
- d. Prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on race, sex, color, national origin, age, religion, disability, or reprisal for previous EEO activity through the establishment of a discrimination complaint processing and resolution system in accordance with EEOC guidance; and prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on marital status, sexual orientation, status as a parent, genetic information, limited English proficiency, political affiliation, or other prohibited non-merit factors through other separate discrimination complaint processing and resolution systems when required by applicable laws and regulations.
- e. Identify and eliminate barriers and practices that impede EEO for all employees and applicants for employment, including sexual and non-sexual harassment in the workforce.
- f. Identify and eliminate barriers at work sites, including architectural, transportation, and other barriers affecting people with disabilities.

4. Diversity Management Policy

- a. In August of 2011 Executive Order 13583 was signed into order by the President of the United States in order to promote the federal workplace as a model of equal opportunity, diversity, and inclusion. Previous steps were taken to promote a diverse federal workforce, for example:
 - 1) Executive Order 13171, October 2000 ordered to promote Hispanic employment in the federal workforce

- 2) Executive Order 13518, November 2009 ordered to promote Veterans employment in the federal workforce
 - 3) Executive Order 13078, March 1998 ordered to promote individuals with disabilities in the federal workforce
- b. Managing Diversity is different from Affirmative Action
- 1) Managing diversity focuses on maximizing the ability of all employees to contribute to organizational goals. Affirmative action focuses on specific groups because of historical discrimination, such as people of color and women.
 - 2) Affirmative action emphasizes legal necessity and social responsibility; managing diversity emphasizes business necessity.
 - 3) In short, while managing diversity is also concerned with underrepresentation of women and people of color in the workforce, it is much more inclusive and acknowledges that diversity must work for everyone.
 - 4) The U.S. Federal Government has stated, "To realize more fully the goal of using the talents of all segments of society, the Federal Government must continue to challenge itself to enhance its ability to recruit, hire, promote, and retain a more diverse workforce."

C. Benefits of Diversity in the Workplace

1. Workplace Benefits
 - a. Increases management skills to meet rapidly changing market conditions, reduce turnover, increase productivity, and improve image, reputation and brand
 - b. Strengthens advocacy competence and confidence for addressing issues
 - c. Builds trust with all team members
 - d. Sharpens skills to inform, inspire and initiate conversations to involve all team members in the inclusion process
 - e. Fosters team work innovation by advancing, refining and implementing creative ideas

2. Technology Benefits

- a. Advances in technology and the advent of a global economy are bringing the people of the world closer together than ever before. As a result, businesses, educational systems and other entities are investigating ways to better interact with everyone. This includes being able to attract and retain the best and most qualified workers.
- b. Technology can increase diversity in the workforce through global connections. These connections can increase the participation of under- represented groups in all organizational settings.
- c. Networking technologies have made both asynchronous and real-time communications between different regions and countries feasible, and have created new forms of work and collaboration.

D. Barriers to Diversity Management

1. Poor Communication

As the DoD maintains its global initiatives, the workforce becomes more linguistically and culturally diverse. You may find yourself working with individuals whose native language is not English. In order to avoid confusion and a lack of teamwork, which can cause low morale; organizations need to implement openness, so every federal employee can discuss ideas, challenges, and strategies to overcome this barrier.

2. Stagnate Service Culture (Organizational Culture)

Organizations, such as the Department of Defense, with its long history and established cultures may not recognize the need for diversity in their organization. Senior leaders may not understand the need for diversity, especially if the organization is already excelling in its mission. To overcome these smokescreens, everyone; especially senior leaders, must recognize the benefits of a diverse workforce and develop strategies to increase diversity in the workplace.

3. Inadequate Skill Development

Skill preparation and career planning can also be barriers to diversity. Different cultures, societies and countries do not necessarily prepare their workforce in the same manner. Individuals from different cultures have vastly different values, including working values, which can cause conflict within the organization. (University of California at Berkley's National Center for Research in Vocational Education)

Proper assessment of all incoming workers and additional training can combat this barrier to diversity in the workplace.

4. Inaccurate Perceptions

- a. Threat- In today's environment, people may be embarrassed to show ignorance about other cultures, may not want to invest time and energy in learning about those cultures, or may perceive diversity initiatives as a threat to job security. (Barak, 2005)
- b. Failure-The thought or belief that you cannot succeed because others like you have not succeeded.

5. Prejudice and Discrimination

The main barriers have to do with managers' and employees' attitudes and behavior. Specifically, prejudice (biased views) and discrimination (biased behaviors), either overt or covert, are at the core of the barriers for implementing inclusive policies in the workplace.

E. Strategies for Implementing Diversity Management

1. Diversity Management Strategies

- a. Commitment to Change - "Perhaps the single most important element of successful management improvement initiatives is the demonstrated commitment of top leaders to change." (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para 2)
- b. Leadership Responsibility - Leaders and managers within organizations are primarily responsible for the success of diversity management. (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para 2)
- c. Resources - They must provide the visibility and commit the time and necessary resources. (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para 2)
- d. Communication - Communicate the organization's support for diversity in newsletters, policy statements, speeches, meetings, and Web sites. (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para 2)

2. Top Diversity Management Practices (GAO Report 2005, pg. 4 and 8)

- a. Top Leadership Commitment: A vision of diversity demonstrated and communicated throughout an organization by top-level management.
 - 1) Implement a policy on EEO and diversity management, which states the organization "must offer opportunities for all persons to develop to their full potential in the pursuit and support of science with diversity management integrated into all facets of the" organization. (National Institute of Health; NIH)
 - 2) Leads by example.
 - 3) Discusses the importance of diversity in public meetings and to the employees.

- 4) Writes an article on diversity for the organization's newsletter.
- 5) Provide leadership and a working environment that enable all to reach their full potential. (U.S. Coast Guard; USCG)

b. Strategic Plan

Diversity needs to be part of an organization's strategic plan. Have a diversity strategy and plan that are developed and aligned with the organization's strategic plan. (GAO 2005, pg 4 and 9)

- 1) Enabling goal stating, "To recruit, develop, and retain a competent, committed, and diverse workforce that provides a high quality service..." (Department of Veterans Affairs; VA)
- 2) Enabling goal stating, "Will recruit, support, and retain a knowledgeable, diverse, engaged, and continuously learning workforce." (VA)
- 3) Objective goal stating, "Ensure a high quality, diverse and motivated workforce." (Federal Drug Administration; FDA)
- 4) Strategic Action Plan stating three strategic goals:
 - a) "Eradicate discrimination in the workplace by enforcing federal EEO laws, regulations, and policies;
 - b) Promote inclusion and diversity in all levels of the workforce; and
 - c) Empower individuals so that they may participate and contribute to their fullest potential."

c. Diversity Linked to Performance

The understanding that a more diverse and inclusive work environment can yield greater productivity and help improve individual and organization performance. (GAO 2005, p. 4 and 10)

d. Measurement

A set of quantitative and qualitative measures of the impact of various aspects of an overall diversity program. (GAO 2005, p. 4, 10, and 11)

- 1) Quantitative workforce data can evaluate the effectiveness of the organization's diversity management efforts and progress it is making in those efforts.

- 2) Qualitative data be can derived from interviews, focus groups, and surveys for identifying employee perceptions, i.e., questions on climate, organization commitment, promotions, job satisfaction, supervision, etc.
- 3) Measure progress in the diversity strategy by reviewing sick leave, complaints, grievances, accessions, and attrition. (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration; NOAA)
- 4) Identify successes and areas that need improvement, and develop a process for action planning. (NOAA)
- 5) If an issue cannot be resolved, elevate it to the next management level to see if it can be resolved there. (Director, NOAA)

e. Accountability

The means to ensure that leaders are responsible for diversity by linking their performance assessment and compensation to the progress of diversity initiatives. (GAO 2005, p. 4 and 15)

- 1) Leadership submits narrative descriptions of accomplishments for the year, including a narrative for a critical element that promotes EEO and workforce diversity programs. (NIH)
- 2) Executives write a narrative describing action they had taken in relation to complying with relevant EEO laws, regulations and organizational policies as well as monitoring a subordinate manager's EEO and diversity management programs. (NIH)

f. Succession Planning

An ongoing, strategic process for identifying and developing a diverse pool of talent for an organization's potential future leaders. (GAO 2005, p. 4 and 17)

- 1) Implement a Web-based individual development plan system for individuals who are already in management positions to identify their skills, training, areas of expertise, and areas of development focus. This system ensures that all potential candidates for higher level or more specialized jobs are following a plan to enable them to fill vacant positions and lead the organization into the future. (U.S. Postal Service)
- 2) Forecast the need for potential future leaders. Develop a process for identifying high-performing nonsupervisory employees and provide those employees with a formal mentoring program, experiential leadership opportunities, and exposure to all facets of the organization's operations. (VA)

g. Recruitment

The process of attracting a supply of qualified, diverse applicants for employment. (GAO 2005, p. 4 and 19)

- 1) Develop a recruitment tool kit to include various recruitment sources for minorities and diverse populations by state, with a list of minority-serving institutions, and professional minority organizations. (Federal Aviation Administration; FAA)
- 2) Develop a Web-based recruitment source that provides multicultural recruitment advertising and exposure in promoting employment opportunities nationwide. (FAA)

h. Employment Involvement

The contribution of employees in driving diversity throughout an organization. (GAO 2005, p. 4, 20, 21, and 23)

- 1) Develop a Diversity Advisory Board (DAB) with an advisory council that focuses on people. The strategic plan has four objectives. (National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)
 - a) Increased awareness of diversity values and sensitivities by the senior management, managers, and staff.
 - b) Retention of existing diversity and work-life enhancement.
 - c) Active promotion of outreach and creation of a visible network of connections or routes to the organization.
 - d) Recruitment and workforce planning for enhanced diversity.
- 2) Have a mentoring program for new or young employees and especially for retaining minorities and that the mentoring program is consciously trying to foster relationships. (NIH)
- 3) Create a community outreach program initiatives by educating the community about the agency and the functions it performs. (NIST)
 - a) Actively reach out to local schools through mentoring and tutoring programs that help students with their class work, raise their awareness of scientific careers, and increase community involvement.
 - b) A student Volunteer Program which provides high school and college students a learning experience and exposure to career opportunities by volunteering in your organization

i. Diversity Training to Inform and Educate Management and Staff

- 1) Set up interactive training modules on EEO and diversity management available online to all
- 2) Conduct diversity refresher training each year

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define diversity management.
- B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management.
- C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace.
- D. Identify the barriers to diversity management.
- E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 6150

SPECIAL OBSERVANCES



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to provide the learner with an introduction to what is involved in conducting a Special Observance function.

Strategy

Identification of the types of Special Observance events recognized by the Department of Defense (DoD) and a discussion on how to prepare for a Special Observance event will provide the background knowledge needed for an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA) to conduct, or assist in conducting a Special Observance function. A 30 minute Special Observances video is part of the lecture.

Recommended Reading/Viewing

DEOMI Organizing Observances video available on the DEOMI intranet at: www.deomi.org

References

1. Guide for Organizing Observances available for download from http://www.deomi.org/downloadableFiles/guide_for_observe.pdf
2. Planning Observances for Military Audiences from <http://www.ushmm.org/remembrance/dor/military>
3. Jewish Virtual Library: Holocaust Memorial Day from <http://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/Judaism/yomhashoah.html>
4. History of National Women's History Month from <http://www.nwhp.org/whm/history.php>
5. About Asian Pacific Heritage Month from <http://asianpacificheritage.gov/about.html>

6. About Hispanic Heritage Month from http://www.biography.com/hispanic-heritage/hh_about.jsp
7. What is National Disability Employment Awareness Month? from <http://www.dol.gov/odep/topics/ndeam/>
8. The Creation of National American Indian and Alaska Native Heritage Month from <http://www.bia.gov/DocumentLibrary/HeritageMonth/>
9. DEOMI special observances www.deomi.org

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI Student Study Guide
2. “How to Conduct a Special Observance,” a 16-minute, continuous-play video available for viewing on the DEOMI intranet at: \\deomi-2\Public\Broadcasts\Special_Observances.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® Slide Presentation–Special Observances
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide, know the Special Observance events recognized by the DOD and how to prepare for Special Observances functions. Each student must obtain a minimum passing score of 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify Special Observance events	K	CRT
B. Identify how to prepare for Special Observance event	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

SPECIAL OBSERVANCES

A. Special Observance Events

The following Special Observances are identified by month.

1. Martin Luther King, Jr. Birthday

- a. To honor the civil rights leader, Martin Luther King, Jr., and to allow Americans to reflect on racial equality and democratic principles.
- b. Month: January
- c. Dates: 3d Monday
Note: Martin Luther King's birthday is 15 Jan but in keeping with federal guidance, it is celebrated on the third Monday in Jan.
- d. Observance: Martin Luther King, Jr. Birthday
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 98-144, Nov 1983 (Federal Holiday)
- f. Rationale: Since the first King Holiday on January 20, 1986, the observance has been an occasion for people to remember Dr. King's life and dedicate themselves anew to implementing his dreams.

2. African-American/Black History Month

- a. Observed entire month of February.
- b. Month: February
- c. Dates: 1-28/29
- d. Observance: African-American / Black History Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 99-244, Feb 1986
- f. Rationale: In 1926 African-American scholar Carter Godwin Woodson organized the first Negro History Week; focused attention on black experience in the United States. In 1986, Congress officially designated February as National Black (Afro-American) History Month.

3. Women's History Month

- a. Observed entire month of March.

- b. Month: March
 - c. Dates: 1–31
 - d. Observance: Women’s History Month
 - e. Authority/comment: Public Law 100–9, Mar 1987
 - f. Rationale: The Education Task Force of the Sonoma County (California) Commission on the Status of Women initiated a "Women's History Week" celebration in 1978. President Ronald Reagan proclaimed the week beginning 7 Mar, 1982 of that year to be Women’s History Week. Since 1987, Congress expanded the observance, requesting the President to proclaim March of each year as Women’s History Month.
4. Days of Remembrance
- a. Recognizes victims of the Holocaust.
 - b. Month: April/May
 - c. Dates: Sunday to Sunday for Week Incorporating Yom Hashoah
 - d. Observance: "Days of Remembrance" for victims of the Holocaust
 - e. Authority/comment: Public Law 96–388, Oct 1980
 - f. Rationale: To learn, reflect, and never forget what happened to the millions silenced during the Holocaust.
5. Asian American and Pacific Islander Heritage Month
- a. Observed entire month of May.
 - b. Month: May
 - c. Dates: 1–31
 - d. Observance: Asian American and Pacific Heritage Month
 - e. Authority/comment: Public Law 101-283, May 1990; 102–450, Oct 1992
 - f. Rationale: Commemorates the immigration of the first Japanese to the United States on May 7, 1843 and to mark the anniversary of the completion of the transcontinental railroad on May 10, 1869.

6. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Pride Month (LGBT Pride Month)
 - a. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Pride Month (LGBT Pride Month) is currently celebrated each year in the month of June to honor the 1969 Stonewall riots in Manhattan. The Stonewall riots were a tipping point for the Gay Liberation Movement in the United States.
 - b. Month: June
 - c. Dates: 1-30 June
 - d. Observance: LGBT Pride Month
 - e. Authority/comment: Executive order 11246 (June 2014) & Office of Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity (ODMEO) memorandum (May 2013)
 - f. Rationale: In the United States the last Sunday in June was initially celebrated as “Gay Pride Day,” but the actual day was flexible. In major cities across the nation the “day” soon grew to encompass a month-long series of events. Today, celebrations include pride parades, picnics, parties, workshops, symposia and concerts, and LGBT Pride Month events attract millions of participants around the world. Memorials are held during this month for those members of the community who have been lost to hate crimes or HIV/AIDS. The purpose of the commemorative month is to recognize the impact that lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender individuals have had on history locally, nationally, and internationally.
7. Women’s Equality Day
 - a. Celebrated on August 26.
 - b. Month: August
 - c. Dates: 26 August
 - d. Observance: Women’s Equality Day
 - e. Authority/comment: Joint Resolution of Congress, 1971
 - f. Rationale: Commemorates 26 Aug, 1920 passage of the 19th Amendment granting women right to vote, and the Women’s Strike for Equality, a strike/protest held on 26 Aug, 1970.
8. Hispanic Heritage Month

- a. Observed every year between 15 Sep and 15 Oct
 - b. Month: September/October
 - c. Dates: 15 Sep-15 Oct
 - d. Observance: National Hispanic Heritage Month
 - e. Authority/comment: Public Law 100–402, Aug 1988
 - f. Rationale: Celebrates culture and traditions of U.S. residents who trace their roots to Spain, Mexico, and the Spanish-speaking nations of Central America, South America, and the Caribbean.
9. National Disability Awareness Month
- a. Observed entire month of October.
 - b. Month: October
 - c. Dates: 1–31
 - d. Observance: National Disability Employment Awareness Month
 - e. Authority/comment: US Code 121 as of 26 Jan 1988
 - f. Rationale: Conceived in 1945 as National Employ the Physically Handicapped Week; scope has been expanded. Currently increases public's awareness of contributions and skills of American workers with disabilities & highlights specific employment barriers that still need to be removed.
10. National American Indian Heritage Month
- a. Observed entire month of November.
 - b. Month: November
 - c. Dates: 1–30
 - d. Observance: National American Indian Heritage Month
 - e. Authority/comment: Public Law 102–188, Mar 1992
 - f. Rationale: Educates public about the heritage, history, art, and traditions of the American Indian and Alaska Native people.

C. Preparing for a Special Observance Event

1. Budgetary Requirements

- a. Prepare a budget for each observance.
- b. “Funding should be reviewed by the organization’s legal office to ensure compliance with Service-Specific, DoD, and Joint Ethics Regulations and Federal laws. This includes fund raisers by Special Observance committees and/or Special Observance private organizations **PRIOR** to conducting on a military establishment.”
- c. Budget: an essential element in the success of the programs.
- d. Upon approval, phase funds into the event’s fiscal quarter. **Note: Not all EO offices control a budget. Check with the command budget/resource officer for guidance on funding.**

2. Materials for Planning a Special Observance

- a. Most important elements: planning and coordinating.
- b. Make use of locally available resources (e.g., staff, library personnel, local community).

3. Duties and Responsibilities of Organizing Personnel and Committees

- a. Project Officer - Oversees overall planning, coordination, and execution. May be the EOA. Use coordination checklist & Guidance for Organizing Observances.
- b. Observance Scheduling Committee -Suggests timeline and prepares a schedule.
- c. Planning Committee -Develops proposed agenda of events and activities including estimated costs.
- d. Finance Committee -Determines funding available from the Resource Management office.
- e. Publicity Committee -Plans, develops, and implements publicity programs to increase awareness.
- f. Education Committee – Plans, develops, and implements educational programs to increase awareness of historical and cultural accomplishments and achievements
- g. Luncheon/Banquet Subcommittee – Coordinates dates and obtains reservations
- h. Protocol-- Responsible for guest speaker(s)

4. Planning and Coordination

Following information is based upon extensive experience in the planning and conduct of commemorative observances & is not necessarily accomplished sequentially:

- a. Calendar of Events: Contact appropriate installation/local organizations (e.g., Public Affairs; Morale, Welfare and Recreation; command section; etc.) to compare calendar of events for installation /command activities.
- b. Determine availability of suitable facilities.
- c. Verbally brief your commander, chief of staff, or appropriate supervisor of the general plan.
- d. Compose rough drafts:
 - 1) Publicity release
 - 2) Observance program outline
 - 3) List of guest speakers
 - 4) Description of event
 - 5) Structure of planning committee(s)
 - 6) Funding requirements
 - 7) Introductory message from the commander
 - 8) Draft letter to proposed keynote speaker
 - 9) Memo to commander, summarizing the plan
 - 10) Present proposal to the commander
 - 11) Proceed with the program after commander approval
 - 12) Ensure planning committee members cover all aspects of the observance
 - 13) Secure advance copy of speaker's presentation, if applicable
 - 14) Send copy of complete package to the commander and others

5. After the Observance

- a. Obtain copies of publicity coverage.
 - b. Compile an After Action Report.
6. Video

“How to Conduct a Special Observance”

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify Special Observance events
- B. Identify how to prepare for a Special Observance event

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
January, 2015

EOA 6200

COMPLAINT PROCESSING



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will build upon knowledge of interview skills. It will provide the necessary framework for students to conduct an intake interview and identify the roles and responsibilities of the EOA. The lesson will briefly describe the general guidelines for processing military equal opportunity/equal employment (EO/EEO) complaints.

Recommended Reading

1. Department of Defense Directive 1350.2 *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*, Chapters 4 and 5. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/135002p.pdf>
2. Air Force Military Equal Opportunity *Intake Interview Guide*

References

1. Department of Defense. (2003, November 21). *Department of Defense Directive 1350.2, Department of Defense military equal opportunity (MEO) program*, Chapters 4 and 5. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/135002p.pdf>
2. Department of Defense. (25 April, 2013). *Department of Defense Instruction 4000.19, support agreements*. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/400019p.pdf>
3. Air Force Military Equal Opportunity *Intake Interview Guide*

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI Student Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Projection screen
2. PowerPoint® slide presentation—Complaint Processing
3. Computer
4. Complaint Processing video

Terminal Learning Objective

Given the equal opportunity (EO) complaint process, the learner will know how the major components of the EO complaint process impact mission effectiveness with a minimum score of 70% on a criterion-referenced test.

Enabling Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the roles and responsibilities of the EOA in the EO complaint process.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the major components of the EO complaint process.	K	CRT
C. Describe the major components of the EO complaint intake interview.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

COMPAINTS PROCESSING

A. Roles and Responsibilities

1. Service/Agency References Governing the Complaint Process Include:
 - a. Department of Defense (DoD)
 - (1) DoD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*
 - (2) DoD 4000.19, *Department of Defense Instruction Support Agreements* (2013).
 - b. United States (U.S.) Army
 - (1) AR 600-20, *Army Command Policy*
 - (2) TC 26-6, *Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook*
 - c. U.S. Air Force
AFI 36-2706, *Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*
 - d. U.S. Navy
OPNAVINST 5354.1, *Navy Equal Opportunity Policy*
 - e. U.S. Marine Corps
MCO P5354.1D, *Marine Corps Equal Opportunity Manual*
 - f. U.S. Coast Guard COMDTINST M 5350.4C, *U.S. Coast Civil Rights Manual*
2. Definitions
 - a. EO Complaint: An allegation of unlawful discrimination based upon the five protected categories made either orally or in writing. The five protected categories are:
 - 1) Race
 - 2) Sex
 - 3) Religion
 - 4) National Origin
 - 5) Color
 - b. EO Complainant:

- 1) DoDD 1350.2 defines Service members as complainants
- 2) Depending on the Service, EO complainants may include:
 - a) Active duty, Reserve, or Guard members
 - b) Retired Service members
 - c) Family members
3. Avenues to Address Complaints:
 - a. Informal: an allegation of unlawful discrimination or sexual harassment, made either orally or in writing, which is not addressed through formal channels.
 - b. Formal: an allegation of unlawful discrimination or sexual harassment that is submitted in writing to the authority designated for receipt of such complaints in Service implementing regulations.
 - c. Non-EO Complaints: other complaints an EOA must be familiar with besides EO complaints (e.g., abuse of authority).
4. Referral Agencies for non-EO complaints:
 - a. Chaplain
 - b. Inspector General (IG)
 - c. Housing Referral Office
 - d. Provost marshal
 - e. Legal services
 - f. Appropriate contracting or vendors office
 - g. Armed Forces Disciplinary Control Board
 - h. Community liaison
 - i. Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC)
5. EEO Complaints:
 - a. Employment-based

- b. Derived from Federal Statutes (e.g., laws)
- c. Uses the appellate system for resolution.
- d. EEO complaints can be filed by Government employees, former employees and job applicants.

B. EO Complaint Process Components

1. The Intake Interview Contains the Following Four Elements:
 - a. Greeting
 - b. Body
 - c. Closing
 - d. Follow-up
2. Processing the Complaint
 - a. Each Service's specific reporting requirements are unique; all require complaints, formal and informal, to be reported.
 - b. EOAs will perform the following tasks in order to process the report:
 - 1) Initial reporting/notification
 - 2) Interim reporting
 - 3) Monitoring
 - a) Timelines
 - b) Administrative procedures
 - c) Victim focus and reprisal
 - c. Victim Focus and Reprisal Definitions
 - 1) Victim Focus
 - a) The tendency to see the complainant as the problem instead of searching for the root cause of the issue.

- b) Victim focus is reactive and concentrates on the symptoms of the problem, not the root cause.
- 2) Reprisal
 - a) Taking or threatening to take an unfavorable personnel action or withholding or threatening to withhold a favorable personnel action.
 - b) Any other act of retaliation, against a member for making or preparing a protected communication.

3. Outcome of the Complaint

- a. One of the following outcomes will result:

- 1) Substantiated
- 2) Unsubstantiated

- b. Appeal Process

4. Following-up on the Complaint

When following-up, the EOA will perform (depending upon service):

- a. Interviews
- b. Observations
 - 1) Look for reprisal
 - 2) Look for effectiveness of corrective measures
- c. Documentation
- d. Final report
- e. Archiving the complaint
 - 1) Formal vs. informal
 - 2) Hard copy filing
- f. Data entry

C. Intake Interview

1. Open the Interview

Greet the interviewee promptly and cordially by:

- a. Establish a rapport with the interviewee.
- b. Establish procedures of the interview.
- c. Explain the limits of anonymity/confidentiality.
- d. Acknowledge the time limitations.
- e. Explain the purpose of note taking.
- f. Explain resolution avenues, if applicable.

2. Body

During the body of the interview you should do the following:

- a. Allow the interviewee to tell his/her story.
- b. Ask open-ended questions.
- c. Maintain control of the interview.
- d. Maintain strict impartiality.
- e. Maintain appropriate eye contact.
- f. Paraphrase the interviewee at times.
- g. Listen attentively.
- h. Accept/acknowledge interviewee's feelings.
- i. Use selective and flexible techniques.
- j. Maintain positive non-verbal communications.

3. Closing the Interview

When closing the interview you should do the following:

- a. Summarize the information gathered.
 - b. Ask if interviewee has anything to add.
 - c. Explain the procedures of the complaint process.
 - d. Discuss reprisal.
 - e. Discuss future follow-up.
 - f. Extend appreciation to interviewee.
4. Follow-up on the Interview

Follow-up on the interview only if needed (i.e., witnesses, supervisors). However, it is considered best practice to follow-up with the complainant.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the roles and responsibilities of the EOA in the EO complaint process.
- B. Recognize the major components of the EO complaint process.
- C. Describe the major components of the EO complaint intake interview.

CLASS 15-1
EQUAL OPPORTUNITY ADVISOR COURSE
STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)



Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute
Patrick AFB, FL
January, 2015

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This study guide will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor. The content is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this study guide should not be taken out of context.

CONTENTS

NOTE: Materials found within this document are FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY. They are not authorized for use in local training programs.

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How to Use This Student Guide

This guide is to be used during classroom instruction and as a study tool to prepare for test sessions. It contains instructional objectives and materials for each of the topical areas.

Each lesson provides a lesson emphasis, instructional objectives, and reference materials that will guide your study. The guides are organized to generally follow the lesson/course outline. However, the instructor may on occasion vary the order of the presentation during the lesson or present the material not included in the guide.

Each student, therefore, should take thorough notes of the lecture content throughout the course, but not rely solely upon graphic reproductions for the course content.

Effective Habits for Studying

Try to develop and appreciate the following habits:

1. Take responsibility for yourself.
2. Responsibility is recognition that in order to succeed you can make decisions about your priorities, your time, and your resources.
3. Center yourself around your values and principles.
4. Do not let friends and acquaintances dictate what you consider important.
5. Put first things first.
6. Follow up on the priorities you have set for yourself, and do not let others or other interests distract you from your goals.
7. Discover your key productivity periods and places.
8. Choose the morning, afternoon, evening, and study spaces where you can be the most focused and productive. Prioritize these for your most difficult study challenges.
9. Consider yourself in a win-win situation—you win by doing your best and contributing your best to a class, whether for yourself, your fellow students, and even for your teachers and instructors. If you are content with your performance, a grade becomes an external check on your performance, which may not coincide with your internally arrived at benefits.
10. First, understand others and then attempt to be understood.
11. When you have an issue with an instructor (e.g., a questionable grade, an assignment deadline extension), put yourself in the instructor's place. Now ask yourself how you can best make your argument given his/her situation.
12. Look for better solutions to problems. For example, if you do not understand the course material, do not just reread the material, try something else! Consult with your trainer, a tutor, an academic advisor, a classmate, or a study group.
13. Look to continually challenge yourself.

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
February, 2015

EOA 6250
INTRODUCTION TO
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an organizational assessment to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The organizational assessment allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with understanding the human relations climate, and it must be taught toward the end of the course. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment, the process associated with an organizational assessment, identify the planning and preparation strategies associated with an organizational assessment and the different organizational assessment tools, as well as, analyze and interpret organizational assessment data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Recommended Reading:

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. Secretary of the Air Force. (2011, October). *Air Force Instruction 36-2706, equal opportunity program military and civilian*, Chapter 12. Washington, DC: Department of the Air Force.
2. Chief of Naval Operations (2011, September 20). OPNAVINST 5354.1 *Navy equal opportunity (EO) policy*. Washington, DC: Department of the Navy.
3. CNET 9210, Command Assessment Team Indoctrination Course
4. Department of the Army (2008). *Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), commander's equal opportunity handbook*, Chapter 4. Washington, DC: Department of the Army

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9. Lusthaus, C., Adrien, M., & Anderson, G. (2002). *Organizational assessment: A framework for improving performance*. Ottawa, ON, CAN: IDRC Books.
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11. NAVEDTRA 7542, *Command assessment team information guide*.
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13. United States Coast Guard. (May 2010). *COMDTINST M5350.4C, Coast Guard Civil Rights Manual*. Washington, DC: Homeland Security.
14. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOARCC Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. Inbrief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Outbrief Checklist

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide, understand the elements of an organizational assessment and its processes with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define organizational assessment.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the purpose of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
C. Recall factors of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
D. Identify the basis to conduct an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
E. Identify the types of organizational assessments.	K	CRT
F. Recall the organizational assessment process.	K	CRT
G. Identify the planning associated with an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
H. Recall all aspects of the commander's in-brief.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATION ASSESSMENT (OA)

A. Define Organizational Assessment

To better understand the nuances of an organizational assessment, we must first look at its objectives (purpose, factors, basis, and types). First, a description of an organizational assessment

1. Organizational Assessment

- a. An *Organizational Assessment* is a *systematic* procedure to gather data about an organization. It provides insight as to how the organization is functioning to meet its mission. (*Commander Handbook, Chap 4*)
- b. The perception of one's work environment is the concept of organizational climate (Zhang & Liu, 2010). This is the foundational tenet of an organizational assessment.
- c. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- d. Organizational Assessment is based on process and procedures used by commanders to obtain a "snapshot" of an organization (unit). It presents information on the perceptions members have in areas like; organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR.

PART 1:

B. Purpose of an Organizational Assessment

Purpose of the Organizational Assessment

The main purpose of conducting an organizational assessment is to gather information on an organization to assist managers (commanders, etc.) in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members that may affect mission readiness. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization's climate.

C. Factors of an Organizational Assessment

1. Factors Associated with an Organizational Assessment

1. Climate factors

Organizational assessment within the DoD measure climate factors associated with:

- 1) Organizational effectiveness

- 2) EO/EEO Fair Treatment
- 3) Perceptions of sexual harassment/discrimination
- 4) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR)

These factors or topic areas breakdown into more specific areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

2. Command's Climate factors

1) Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you don't know where you are, a map won't be much help! An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

2) Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

3. Control Factors

Consideration should also be given to some controlling factors that help define the OA process.

- a. Time
- b. Space
- c. Personnel
 - a) Military members
 - b) Civilian members
 - c) Host nation employees
- d. Current OPTEMPO

Availability of personnel

e. Unit Location

Accessibility

f. Automation capabilities

Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version

g. Survey team size

The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.

h. Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)

a) EOA's experience and/or training

b) Commander/leadership commitment

c) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program

2. Positive Climate Factors

An organizational assessment identifies climate factors that affect mission readiness.

An organization's health encompasses a set of measurable factors residing in the work environment, based on the collective perceptions of the people who work in the environment.

Some measurable factors include:

- a. Staff morale (positive)
- b. Training and professional development
- c. Work force demographics (inclusive)
- d. Reenlistments

3. Negative Climate Factors

Among other things, an OA can identify climate factors that diminish mission readiness.

There are indications that a command climate is not healthy in ways that could impact the mission.

- a. Prevalence of sexual or racial jokes

- b. Polarization of groups
- c. Poor personal appearance
- d. Poor military comportment (behavior/attitude)
- e. Increased number of unauthorized absences
- f. Low morale
- g. Low trust in leadership

D. Basis to Conduct an Organizational Assessment

1. The Basis to Conduct an Organizational Assessment

There are many reasons (basis) to conduct an “Organizational Assessment” they are:

- a. Directed by higher authority
 - 1) National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA)
 - 2) USD Memo (25 July 2013)
- b. Commander-requested
- c. Following regulatory requirements:
 - 1) Army – AR 600-20 Chapter 6 (30 days after assuming command, six month point, annually thereafter)
 - 2) Navy – OPNAVINST 5354.1F (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - 3) Air Force – AFI 36-2706 (120 days after assuming command,, annually thereafter)
 - 4) Marines – MCOP 5354.1D (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - 5) Coast Guard – COMDTINST M5350.4 within 120 days after change of command and annually thereafter.
- d. An OA *is not* used

- 1) In place of a complaint/incident clarification/investigation
- 2) To determine the competency level of an individual
- 3) As a mechanism to terminate employment

E. Identify the Types Of Organizational Assessment

1. The types of Organizational Assessment

There are various assessment options in the scope of an OA.

a. Informal

An OA can be based on an informal process such as an:

- 1) Out-and-About
- 2) Daily Observations

b. Formal

A more formal process, which uses pre-prepared assessment tools and follows strict guidelines include:

- 1) Surveys (DEOCS)

F. Recall the Organizational Assessment Process

1. The organizational assessment process

The organizational assessment process begins with activities to determine the health of the organization.

As an EOA, it is your job to assess the organization to fully understand its climate. This assessment can be conducted in many ways including document review, organizational sensing, focus groups, interviewing, and/or surveying.

The OA process normally includes tasks such as:

- a. Planning and Preparation (Assessment Strategy)
- b. Data Gathering (to include, not inclusive)

- 1) Observation of individuals/groups
 - 2) Surveying individuals
 - 3) Interviewing individuals/groups
 - 4) Reviewing records and reports
- c. Analyzing and interpreting information and data

This is where all the data is processed and interpreted to identify validated concerns for the commander.

- d. Creating Organizational Assessment reports

After all data have been analyzed, the results are conveyed to the commander in an understandable and useful manner.

All findings and recommendations must be presented in a way that maintains confidentiality of individuals participating in the assessment.

- e. Follow-up

After changes or recommendations are implemented, a follow-up assessment should be conducted to determine their effectiveness, as well as, identify any modifications needed. This may also include another climate assessment.

G. Planning Associated with an Organizational Assessment

Working and communicating with leaders and managers is critical in the OA process.

1. Planning strategies.
 - a. EOAs must be aware of OA guidance and have some idea of what leaders seek to learn.
 - b. Having a clear picture of the desired outcome will help define the processes and resources necessary to conduct the assessment.
 - c. During the planning phase, the commander and EOA should adopt specific strategies and sequence to follow during the assessment process.
 - 1) These strategies should not be established as hard and fast rules, but should serve more as a guide throughout the assessment process.

2. Planning Considerations

There are many variables and elements that can impact the OA planning and preparation process. These are the factors that can affect the OA process.

These include the OA team, commander's goals, resources available, etc.

a. The OA Team

The OA team may consist of a single individual or can include a team consisting of several members. The number of team members will vary according to local mission, priorities, and staffing.

b. Assessment domain (scope) of the OA.

- 1) Sample population (people)
- 2) Intangible factors
- 3) Organization (mission/goals)
- 4) Technology
- 5) Commander's goals
- 6) Environment
- 7) Resources

3. Planning Details

When developing your OA, there are certain areas that require specific and sometimes detailed attention:

a. Leadership

- 1) The assessment must include all levels of the organization; most important is leadership influence and impact on the organization.

b. Focus

- 1) Keep the assessment focused on the organization.

c. Method(s)

- 1) Use more than one method to gather information:

- Surveys (DEOCS)
- Interviews
- Observations
- Records & Reports

H. Aspects of the Commander's In-Brief

A well prepared in-brief will include the following:

1. Purpose of the In-brief

The purpose of the in-brief is to identify the commander's expectations, guidance, and intent beyond Service requirements.

2. Reason for the assessment

- a. Requested
- b. Directed by higher headquarter
- c. Regulatory guidance

3. Established timelines (beginning to end)

A well prepared in-brief will include established timelines to begin and complete the organizational assessment

4. Additional points to cover with the commander

- a. Advise commander on assessment tools and the strengths/limitations of the assessment.
- b. Provide commander with a copy of the survey instrument for review. Identify what additional questions will be included in the survey.
- c. Describe how the survey will be distributed and collected.
- d. Request appointment of liaison officer or senior commissioned officer to serve as a point of contact.

- e. Establish the specifics for the out-brief. Getting this information up-front will make preparing and providing the assessment findings at the out-brief easier.
 - 1) Date and time
 - 2) Location
 - 3) Equipment needed for out-brief
 - 4) Commander's preference- formal briefing vs. desk side
 - 5) Attendees- who from the command will attend the out-brief

SUMMARY

The following topics were covered in this lesson:

- A. Define organizational assessment.
- B. Recognize the purpose of an organizational assessment.
- C. Recall factors of an organizational assessment.
- D. Identify the basis to conduct an organizational assessment.
- E. Identify the types of organizational assessment.
- F. Recall the organizational assessment process.
- G. Identify the planning associated with an organizational assessment.
- H. Recall all aspects of a commander's in-brief.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
February, 2015

EOA 6250-1

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT

DEOMI ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE SURVEY (DEOCS)



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an "Organizational Assessment" to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The DEOCS is a commander's management tool that allows EOAs to proactively assess critical organizational climate dimensions that can impact the organization's mission. Additionally, it allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the process associated with understanding the complete administration and analysis of the DEOCS. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of the DEOCS; the process associated with ordering and administering the survey, the on-line survey itself, as well as, analyzing and interpreting survey data.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. Air Force Instruction 36-2706, October 2011, Equal Opportunity Program Military & Civilian, Chapter 12
2. CNET 9210, Command Assessment Team Indoctrination Course
3. COMDTINST M5350.4C (May 2010). *Coast Guard Civil Rights Manual*
4. Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook. Washington, D.C. Chapter 4
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18. U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral Sciences. Version 3.0, 1998. Available online at: <http://www.hqda.army.mil/ari/surveys/trainmod.shtml>
19. NAVEDTRA 7542, Command Assessment Team Information Guide
20. OPNAVINST 5354.1 Series Navy Equal Opportunity (EO) Policy
21. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses Steps and Process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–Perceptions
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide, students will know how perceptions impact unit readiness and mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
I. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment survey.	K	CRT
J. Identify the planning, preparation, and administration associated with the DEOCS.	C	CRT
K. Recall factors and items associated with the DEOCS.	K	CRT
L. Identify the key aspect of the DEOCS report.	C	CRT
M. Analyze and interpret the DEOCS report.	AN	CC
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test		
W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (DEOCS)**A. FOUNDATIONAL OBJECTIVES OF AN ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT SURVEY**

To better understand the nuances of an organizational assessment, we must first look at its objectives (purpose & topic areas). First, a description of an *Organizational Assessment*.

1. Organizational Assessment

Determining the "health" and functioning effectiveness of an organization by examining such factors as morale, teamwork, and communication. This is accomplished through some or all of the following: group and/or individual interviews, observations, surveys or questionnaires, and reviews of records and reports.

DoDD 1350.2, August 18, 1995

- a. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- b. An organizational assessment not only fulfills the DoD and NDAA requirements, it helps provide Commanders a "snapshot" of an organization (unit) during a specific period of time. It presents information on the feelings, perceptions, and thoughts of unit members in areas like; organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR

2. Purpose of the DEOCS

- a. The main purpose of conducting a *DEOCS* is to gather information on an organization to assist Commanders, in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization's climate
- b. The DEOCS will:
 - 1) Assist commanders at all levels in assessing the command's EO climate.
 - 2) Provide commanders insight into other personnel issues that may impact unit effectiveness.
 - 3) Identify positive and negative factors that may affect mission readiness.

3. Topic Areas Associated with a DEOCS

The DEOCS is voluntary survey designed to assess the “shared perceptions” of respondents about formal or informal policies and practices. It measure climate factors associated with (1) Organizational Effectiveness, (2) EO/EEO/ Fair Treatment, (3) Perceptions of Sexual Harassment/Discrimination, and (4) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR).

These topic areas breakdown into more specific (factor) areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

a. Command’s Climate factors align with:

1) Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you don't know where you are, a map won't be much help! An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

2) Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

B. Planning, Preparation, and Administration

1. Planning Control Factors

When a request or requirement for a DEOCS is presented, some considerations must be thought out to ensure the assessment is successful or participation is maximized.

i. Time

j. Personnel

1) Military members

2) Civilian members

3) Host nation employees

k. Current OPTEMPO

Availability of personnel

l. Unit Location

Accessibility

m. Automation capabilities

Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version

n. Survey team size

The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.

o. Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)

- 1) EOA's experience and/or training
- 2) Commander/leadership commitment
- 3) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program

2. Preparing for the DEOCS

DEOCS are requested by a variety of personnel: EOAs, CMEOs, EOLs, EORs, etc. If you are responsible for the administration of a DEOCS and/or are going to serve as the survey administrator, there is some key information you must determine prior to making your request:

a. What will be the survey dates?

- 1) Start / End dates
- 2) Extend survey option

b. How does the Commander want the unit broken up, if needed?

- 1) Single DEOCS
- 2) Sub-breakouts

c. What kind of password option should we use?

- 1) Email Password
- 2) Print Passwords

- d. Does the Commander want LDQs/SAQs?
 - 1) LDQs
 - 2) SAQs
- e. Paper Survey option
 - 1) Start / End Dates
 - 2) Written Comments

Additionally, the below information is required to actually make your request:

A minimum of 16 assigned personnel are required to conduct a DEOCS assessment, requests with fewer than 16 completed surveys will not be processed.

Information required in processing a DEOCS assessment:

- a. Unit Identification Code (UIC) (**USN, USMC, and USA Only**)
- b. Personal Accounting Symbol (PAS) (**USAF Only**)
- c. Operational Facilities (OPFAC) (**USCG Only**)
- d. Mailing address for organization
- e. Branch of service
- f. Service component
- g. Name/rank/grade of Survey Administrator
- h. E-mail of Survey Administrator
- i. DSN phone number of Survey Administrator
- j. Commercial phone number of Survey Administrator
- k. Name/rank/grade of Commander/Director
- l. E-mail of Commander/Director
- m. Name/rank/grade of Commander's Supervisor

- n. E-mail of Commander's Supervisor
 - o. Number and type of Passwords required to take online survey
 - p. Ten Locally Developed Questions (LDQ) (**OPTIONAL**)
 - q. Five Short Answer Questions (SAQ) (**OPTIONAL**)
3. Making the DEOCS request and Administration

Once all administrative information is gathered, go to www.deocs.net and make your request by filling in all needed data fields.

Upon submission of your request, the DEOCS Support Team reviews and either contact the Administrator for corrections or to approve the request. This will happen within 72 hours.

Administration of the DEOCS has several key steps. Ensure the requesting Commander is aware of the process and updated throughout the assessment.

- a. SAAS Account
 - 1) Purpose
 - a) Account login info
 - b) SAAS Account/Report Closer
 - 2) Functionality of SAAS
 - a) Passwords
 - b) Completion Rates
 - c) Request Report

C. DEOCS Factors and Survey Items

1. DEOCS Main Topic Areas

The survey focuses on four primary areas: Military Equal Opportunity (EO), Civilian Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), Organizational Effectiveness (OE), Perceptions of Discrimination/Sexual Harassment and Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR).

The survey is then broken down into 23 climate factors that pose questions that survey takers respond to using a four-point scale (strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree). The core survey contains 95 items/questions. Each factor has anywhere from three to four items each.

- a. DEOCS Climate Factors
 - 1) Organizational Effectiveness (OE)
 - a) Organizational Commitment
 - b) Trust in Leadership
 - c) Organizational Performance
 - d) Organizational Cohesion
 - e) Leadership Cohesion
 - f) Job Satisfaction
 - g) Diversity Management
 - h) Organizational Processes
 - i) Help Seeking Behaviors
 - j) Exhaustion/Burnout
 - 2) EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - a) Hazing
 - b) Demeaning Behaviors
 - c) Favoritism
 - d) Racial Discrimination
 - e) Sex Discrimination
 - f) Religious Discrimination
 - g) Sexual harassment
 - h) Racist Behavior

- i) Sexist Behaviors
 - j) Age Discrimination (Civilian only)
 - k) Disability Discrimination (Civilian only)
 - 3) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR)
 - 4) Perceptions of Discrimination & Sexual Harassment
- b. Taking the Survey
- 1) Individuals will login to the DEOCS using a password provided by the survey administrator. The survey can be accessed from any computer or device that has Internet capability.
 - 2) Survey must be completed in one sitting. (There is no save and return capability). Additionally, there is no count down timer; however, the survey will disconnect after 1.5 hours.
- c. The demographics section will be the first area respondents will encounter.
- 1) Sex (Male/Female)
 - 2) Hispanic Declaration
 - 3) Race
 - 4) Reside (On/Off Base)
 - 5) Deployed
 - 6) Employment Status (Mil/Civ/Other)
- d. DEOCS Anonymity
- 1) Respondent's anonymity is very important. Individuals can enter the survey with minimal identification by selecting "Decline to Respond" (Hispanic & Race) and "Other" in the employment status. The only demographic item that must be answered is "sex"
 - 2) The survey will not display group data any time fewer than five members of that demographic completes the survey.

- 3) Respondents' anonymity is protected when completing the online survey by using a computer-generated, untraceable password. In addition, no personally identifying information (PPI) is collected.

e. Survey Structure

After the demographics section, the respondent then enters the actual factor areas.

- 1) Organizational Effectiveness
 - a) 37 total items
 - b) Display on one page
 - c) Once completed with OE items respondents can enter written comments
- 2) EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - a) 30 total items
 - b) Display on one page
 - c) Civilian only items
 - d) Once complete with EO items, respondents can enter written comments
- 3) SAPR
 - a) 9 total items
 - b) 20 Sub items /questions
- 4) Perceptions of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment
 - a) 1 item
 - b) 3 to 6 sub items/questions

After the SAPR and Discrimination section, respondents can enter written comments. They are also presented the opportunity to enter any additional comments.

The final section provides locally developed and short answer questions that were selected by the requesting unit. If there are no LDQs or SAQs, the survey terminates after the additional comments area.

- 5) LDQ and SAQ areas

- a) Up to 10 LDQs
- b) Up to 5 SAQs

D. Key Aspects of the DEOCS Report

1. The DEOCS Report

The DEOCS is one of the tools EOAs use to collect data from commands to help provide the Commander with essential information regarding their command climate. The DEOCS is typically the first step in the data gathering process. The responses that are provided within the DEOCS, both standard scale responses, as well as written comments, provide a picture of the climate and help determine what focus groups questions and groupings may be needed to validate DEOCS results.

This section will breakdown the DEOCS report:

a. Demographics display (Section II)

1) Minority/Majority

For the majority/minority subgroup categories, the majority category includes all respondents who listed their race as “White,” and their ethnicity as “not Hispanic.” All other respondents are included in the minority subgroup.

2) Race

- a) American Indian
- b) Asian
- c) Black
- d) Native Hawaiian
- e) White
- f) Two or More
- g) Declined

The race-ethnic classification system used on DEOCS is consistent with current Office of Management and Budget (OMB) guidelines.

3) Ethnicity

- a) Not Hispanic
- b) Hispanic
- c) Declined
- 4) Gender
Men/Women
- 5) Category (rank/Grade)
 - a) Junior Enlisted (E1-E6)
 - b) Senior Enlisted (E7-E9)
 - c) Junior Officer (O1-O3)
 - d) Senior Officer (O4 & above)
 - e) Junior Civilian (Grades 1-8)
 - f) Senior Civilian (Grades 9-SES)

b. Perceptions of Discrimination (Section III)

This section addresses whether members of the organization experienced discrimination and sexual harassment, directed from members of the organization, during the last 12 months; whether they reported the incident; and their satisfaction with how the reported incident was resolved.

Question:

Within the past 12 months, I have personally experienced an incident of discrimination or sexual harassment within my current organization.

(Mark all that apply) Response Scale:

- 1) Racial/national origin/color
- 2) Sexual Harassment
- 3) Gender (sex)
- 4) Religion

- 5) Age
- 6) Disability
- 7) Equal pay
- 8) Genetic information
- 9) Pregnancy
- 10) Retaliation
- 11) NO, did not experience discrimination

If a respondent answers “Yes” to any of the categories, then this section has additional breakdowns:

- a) Experienced discrimination based on race/national origin/color
Majority/Minority
- b) Experienced discrimination based on gender (sex)
Men/Women
- c) Actions taken following incident of discrimination:
 - i. Filed formal complaint
 - ii. Reported incident to EO/EEO
 - iii. Reported to supervisor
 - iv. Confronted individual
 - v. Did not report
- d) How satisfied are you with how your issue was or is being resolved?
Very satisfied; very dissatisfied scale
- e) If you did not report the incident to anyone in your chain of command, please indicate your personal reasons why.
 - i. The incident would not be taken seriously

- ii. The incident would not be believed
- iii. Lack of privacy/confidentiality
- iv. Fear of reprisal
- v. Lack of support from chain of command
- vi. Other
- vii. N/A

c. Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR) (Section IV)

This section addresses members' perceptions of the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) climate within your organization. Specifically, this section includes members' perceptions of the following topic areas:

- 1) Perceptions of Safety.
- 2) Chain of Command Support
- 3) Publicity of SAPR Information
- 4) Unit Reporting Climate
- 5) Perceived Barriers to Reporting Sexual Assault
- 6) Unit Prevention Climate
- 7) Restricted Reporting Knowledge

This part of the report begins by displaying the overall **Unit Summary** information pertaining to the 7 SAPR climate factors within an organization, compared to the DEOMI database for their Service.

The “Unit Summary” is located in both section IV and VI of the DEOCS report. These two areas only differ by the factors that are being displayed.

- a) Results display above average, average, and below average using a green, blue, and red coding scheme, respectively. Above average indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly more favorable than the perceptions commonly held across your Service. Average indicates that the perceptions of your members are similar to that of the perceptions commonly held across your Service. Below average indicates that the perceptions of

your members are markedly less favorable than those held across your Service.

The organization's average is displayed along with its respective Service branch average.

- b) The display is a simple horizontal bar chart with the averages located to the right of the bar. Simply put, the longer the line, the better the unit's average (positive).

It is important to note the "Range of "Near Service" Average" is located under each factor. This range displays how close or far your unit is from the next color coding.

- c) We determined the Near Service Average cut scores for each Service based on a distribution of climate factor averages from all units in each Service branch (Army, Navy, Air Force, etc.) that completed the DEOCS during a specific timeframe. These scores are updates semiannually so that they track any data trends.
- d) The "Unit Summary" area within SAPR gives you a quick snapshot of how the command is doing in relations to their Service. This information is then followed up with addition (specific) information about each SAPR factor in the order the factors are listed in the unit summary area.

Specific data or responses associated with the SAPR factor are then displayed on individual tables and figures throughout the SAPR section. These tables and figures have detailed information that is explained prior to and after each graphic.

d. Climate Factor Subgroup Comparisons

The climate factor subgroup comparison provides a demographic summary chart of the **SAPR, OE, and EO/EEO Climate variables**. Results display *above average*, *average*, and *below average* using a green, blue, and red coding scheme, respectively. *Above average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly more favorable than the perceptions commonly held across your Service. *Average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are similar to that of the perceptions commonly held across your Service. *Below average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly less favorable than those held across your Service.

- 1) These three charts provide the organization with a snapshot of their results by all DEOCS factors and demographic category.
- 2) The averages displayed within the color coding boxes, represent the "Range of "Near Service" Average" that is located in the Unit Summary area.
- 3) This display allows you to determine what factor is trending below average, average, or above average by demographic group.

- 4) Knowing this information is key to understanding how personnel perceive their command climate. It also provides a starting point for you to determine the positive and negative trends. Once you can see what factors are scoring low and by what demographic, you can then go to the Section VII, DEOCS Summary of Survey Item Results and determine what specific questions have a high unfavorable score. This will assist you in determining potential focus group/interview questions.

e. Survey Item Results

Section VII of the DEOCS report shows responses to the individual climate factor questions. It turns the four-point response scale into a two-point favorable/ unfavorable scale and displays the results using a percentage. Additionally, it provides the overall factor results using a percentage as well.

One key difference between this section and section V, Climate factor subgroup comparison. The comparison area determines a color code and average and presents that against your Service. Section VII is only the results of your organization responses—no comparison, just actual results.

f. LDS/SAQ/Written Comments

1) Locally Developed Questions

- a) Worded in a positive manner
- b) Worded as a comment
- c) Strongly agree/disagree scale
- d) Up to 10 LDQs on any one DEOCS
- e) Sub breakouts will all use the same LDQs

2) Short Answer Questions

- a) Open ended question to elicit a comment
- b) Use up to 1,000 characters
- c) Responses are provided verbatim to Commander
- d) No PII

3) Written Comments

- a) Provided after each topic area
- b) Use up to 1,000 characters
- c) Responses are provided verbatim to Commander
- d) No PII

E. Analyze and Interpret the DEOCS

The proper analysis of the DEOCS is critical in helping leadership understand their command climate.

The key to moving forward with the assessment is identifying both the positive and negative findings within the main subject areas.

1. Purpose for analyzing data - Identify organizational strengths and areas that need improvement
 - a. Strengths: Data that suggests a strong majority of unit members express favorable views about an issue or organizational practices or policies.
 - b. Areas of improvement: Data that suggests a sizeable minority (i.e., 20% or more) of the unit members harbor unfavorable views about an issue or organizational policies or practices.
2. Analyzing and Interpreting the DEOCS
 - a. As already discussed, a command climate assessment is not just surveying an organization. Commanders need a clear understanding of their unit members' perceptions, and different methods are needed to accomplish this.
 - b. It is the EOAs job to identify the positive and negative factors that affect that climate and, by extension, mission. **In almost every case, EOAs will start the assessment process by administering the DEOCS.**
 - c. Compare the sample of DEOCS respondents to the population of the unit. Are some groups underrepresented? Are some groups overrepresented?
 - d. Beginning with the demographic data, you can see how many members of your organization completed the DEOCS. Moreover, you can see who in your organization completed the DEOCS, in terms of group membership. This can be important, not just because it shows who completed the DEOCS, but also who didn't.

If only a small percentage of the organization participated in the DEOCS, your confidence in the results will be lower than if you had a large majority of the organization complete the DEOCS.

- e. Review section III Perceptions of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment. This shows perceptions of these incidents in the workplace during the past 12 months, actions taken to address them, and members' satisfaction with issue resolution.
 - 1) Remember, these are just perceptions, not official formal complaints. Members determine what constitutes an "incident." This could be a simple comment all the way to a discriminatory action.
 - 2) The goal here is to identify that these perception exists, what type of discrimination, and the pervasiveness.
 - 3) Additionally, the series of questions in this area allows you to provide a clearer picture to the commander. You are not just telling them that members perceive discrimination, you are able to provide further clarification: actions taken to address them or any barriers to not addressing, and members' satisfaction with issue resolution.
 - 4) Finally, review the comments areas to validate or find examples of discrimination that can help explain perceptions.
- f. The SAPR section (section IV) displays a tremendous amount of information. Start by reviewing the unit summary of all seven factors. This will give you a snapshot of how each factor is trending. After the unit summary data, the section takes each factor one at a time and displays specific data regarding that factor and the questions associated with them. This breakdown will be shown graphically, through a table or figure. Analyzing this section will simply take the EOA to read the presented data in that section and make note of any inconsistencies or trends.
- g. Section V, Climate Factor Subgroup Comparison (SAPR, OE, EO). This area displays color coding broken-down by factor and demographic grouping. Identifying scoring in this area is very easy; however, the EOA has to be able to explain scoring. Caution must be given to this section as many people will simple look at the three displays and assume everything is told on these three pages. EOAs must be able to connect section V, VI, VII to gain a clear picture or view of the respondents' perceptions.
- h. Section VI, Overall Unit Summary will show you how the unit surveyed compares to their Service. This again will help you validate the previous section by showing whether the organization as a whole garnered an average rating for any factors. Average scores are displayed to the right of the bar chart. The actual cut-scores are viewable underneath each factor display. The Service average is the mean within the

- “Near Service Average.” This display allows commanders to see how close or far away they are from the next level (average).
- i. Section VII, Response to Survey Items displays a favorable/unfavorable breakout for each question by factor. Additionally, it allows you to assign an overall percentage to each question and factor. Age and Disability Discrimination only display federal civilian responses.
 - j. Analyzing all data is crucial to understanding the unit’s perceptions. Once the data portion of the report has been analyzed, you have to turn your focus to the LDQs, SAQs, and written comments.
 - k. The final areas within the report to review include the LDQs, SAQs, and additional comments. While reviewing the latter two sections, you want to look for comments that help explain climate factor findings (e.g., below average scores and above average scores). This way, when you inform or brief the commander on positive and negative finds revealed by the survey, you can provide specific comments associated with those areas. This will also assist you with developing interview/focus group questions.
 - l. Your comment analysis should focus on clarifying survey results to allow for a better understanding of responses. Additionally, survey and comment analysis helps you to determine what focus group/interview questions are needed to validate survey findings. Finally, when presenting your findings to the commander, it is much easier to lump your comment analysis into themes. Meaning, you take the top 2-3 most common responses.
 - m. Comments are provided verbatim and cannot be modified. There will be occasions when comments reveal UCMJ violations. These comments should be brought to the commands attention for action.

3. Final Analysis

The final analysis consists of consolidating data from all assessment tools. The DEOCS survey will always be the primary means of gathering information and determining the unit’s positive and negative perceptions.

Results and findings are now pulled together to provide leadership with a means to address any negative concerns that impact the mission or continue the positive trends.

- 1) DEOCS – identified concern areas through survey responses and comments
- 2) Observations- observed behaviors or spoke to unit members
- 3) Focus Group/Interviews – clarified or validated survey, observation, and/or Commander’s concern areas

4) Records & Reports - clarified or validated survey/ observation concerns

How results are reported or briefed depends on your Service Specific requirements. This will be explained during the Service Specific portion of the course.

Commander out-briefs and/or reports should provide information that was obtained or observed during your assessment. Your brief or report should speak to the totality of all four assessment areas, and how each area either validates or invalidates the survey results, comments, interviews, or the unit commander's initial perceptions.

Showing a complete picture and providing both positive and negative findings will display your objectivity, competency, and skill as an EOA.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment survey.
- B. Identify the planning, preparation and administration associated with the DEOCS.
- C. Recall factors and items associated with the DEOCS.
- D. Identify the key aspect of the DEOCS report.
- E. Analyze and interpret the DEOCS report.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
February, 2015

EOA 6250-1
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)
RECORDS AND REPORTS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor. The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skills in reviewing records and reports when conducting an organizational assessment. Reviewing records and reports allows EOAs to provide commanders with an insight into the command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with reviewing records and reports. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of reviewing records and reports, the process associated with records and reports, as well as, analyze and interpret records and reports data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook. 2008. Washington, D.C._ Chapter 4
2. Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S. E., & Slocum, J. W. (2005). *Management: A competency-based approach*. Mason, Ohio: Thomson/South-Western.
3. Lusthaus, C.; Adrien, M (Editor); & Anderson, G. (Editor). (2002). *Organizational Assessment: A Framework for Improving Performance*. Ottawa, ON, CAN: IDRC Books
4. Triola, Mario F. (2002). *Essentials of Statistics*. Shortened version of Elementary Statistics (8th ed.). Addison-Wesley Publishing.
5. Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1984). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
6. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Capstone activity
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses Steps and Process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers
3. Videos: Ordering a DEOCS

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide; appraise an organizational climate with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT). Students are also required to obtain a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the purpose of records and reports.	K	CRT
B. Recall advantages of records and reports.	K	CRT
C. Recall disadvantages of records and reports.	K	CRT
D. Identify the sample use of records and reports.	K	CRT
E. Recall records and reports data analysis and interpretation.	K	CRT
<p>The Introduction and Summary should each take approximately 10% of the total formal lecture time. K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation</p>		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
<p>Capstone Activity A. Analyze and interpret organizational assessment data. B. Develop an in-brief (homework.) C. Conduct an in-brief. D. Conduct Analysis/Translate data (OA data provided). E. Create report (Executive Summary with findings, recommendations, issues, concerns, action plan, etc...). F. Prepare an out-brief (homework). G. Conduct an out-brief.</p>	<p>Provide knowledge and skills associated with DEOCS analysis and organizational assessment strategies.</p>	

OA RECORDS AND REPORTS

A: Recall the Purpose of Records and Reports Assessment

Records and reports are used to identify “hard” or unchangeable data about the command. This data is used to prove or disprove, support or non-support, or quantify perceptions from other data sources.

Some data will be qualitative (unit logs, policy, regulations, etc.) while others are numerically based (awards, discipline, promotions, etc.)

Significant information is filed in a variety of formats. During the OA records review, the EOA may look at different areas, not limited to:

1. Retention rates
2. Discipline rates
3. Equal Opportunity complaints (formal & informal)
4. Awards and decorations
5. Local promotions
6. Policy letters (qualitative data)
7. Training records
8. Key duty positions (will vary by Service)

B: Recall the Advantages of Records and Reports

Advantages of records and reports:

1. Unchangeable (if available)
2. Easily expressed for comparison (ratio, percentage, etc.)
3. Easily accessible
4. Easily interpreted and compared with other data sources

C: Recall Disadvantages of Records and Reports

Disadvantages of records and reports:

1. Might not be available
2. Might not be accurate
3. Might require extensive search of records to obtain needed data.

D: Recall the Sample Use of Records and Reports

Depending on the type of record and report used in the OA process, the analysis may be simple or time consuming.

Records might require data to be consolidated and synthesized, proportions or rates per thousand computed, and/or compared over time to same or similar data.

For numerically-based data, there are various methods for computing the statistics: percentages and rates per thousand.

Percentage differences do not determine causes or imply any intent to discriminate.

1. Percentage

- a. This method is useful to depict changes in what happens to individuals as a result of normal functions of the system. It can be used to identify and provide valuable insights of institutional practices, which are operating to the disadvantage of a particular group of people.
- b. To compute a percentage, take the population you are reviewing, divide it by the total population and multiply it by 100.

$$\left(\frac{\text{\# of population in review}}{\text{\# of total population}} \right) 100$$

2. Rate per thousand

- a. This method allows the EOA to better compare specific groups, to compare data during a timeframe or fluctuating unit populations, or helpful when comparing data within large unit population.
- b. To compute rate per thousand, take the population you are reviewing, divide it by the total population of that group, and multiply it by 1,000.

$$\left(\frac{\text{\# of occurrences in review}}{\text{\# of population in that group}} \right) 1000$$

E: Recall Records and Reports Data Analysis and Interpretation

It is important that the EOA look at various levels within the data when comparing it. The EOA may find, or fail to find, the indicators necessary to support, fail to support, or refute the other data sources if the appropriate level of data are not analyzed.

After the data is processed, interpret and translate it into meaningful terms. Put the data into words that identifies where the findings suggest a concern/issue.

SUMMARY

After processing all the activities, the student should have a better comprehension and fuller understanding on how to apply their knowledge as they prepare to perform their duties.

Students should now be able to:

- A. Recall the purpose of records and reports assessment.
- B. Recall advantages of records and reports.
- C. Recall disadvantages of records and reports.
- D. Recall the sample use of records and reports.
- E. Recall records and reports data analysis and Interpretation.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
February, 2015

EOA 6250-2

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)

INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS



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Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in conducting interviews and observations in order to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. Interviews and observations allow EOAs to provide commanders with an insight into the command climate from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the skills and steps associated with conducting interviews and observations. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives, the process, as well as identify the planning and preparation strategies.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOARCC Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. Commanders Guidance
 - b. Interview Process
 - c. Interview/Observation Worksheet

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment:

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide, know the interview and observation processes used to facilitate an organizational climate with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the purpose of an interview.	K	CRT
B. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the individual interview.	K	CRT
C. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the group interview.	K	CRT
D. Recall logistical considerations of conducting interview.	K	CRT
E. Recall how to determine the number of interviews.	K	CRT
F. Recall determining the sample element.	K	CRT
G. Recall the types of interview questions.	K	CRT
H. Recognize interview error and bias.	K	CRT
I. Recall the purpose of using observations.	K	CRT
J. Recall advantages and disadvantages of using observations.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

OA INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS

A. Recall the Purpose of an Interview

Interviews - a conversation designed to gather information for a specific purpose. (Shiplely 1996, p. 1)

1. Purpose of conducting an interview
 - a. Collect data for diagnosis – Interview data supplements and expands data gathered by surveys, reports, and observations.
 - b. Clarify data generated – Interviews assist the EOA in checking his/her understanding sources of perceptions held by the members of the organization being assessed.
 - c. Increase personal ownership of the diagnosis – Because individuals are personally involved in the diagnosis through the face-to-face interview, they have the tendency to develop a feeling that what they have to say counts in the diagnosis.
 - d. Examine situations – Examine a specific problem, conflict, or issue concerning the interviewee and explore various possible resolutions.
2. There are two types of interviews: the *individual* interview and the *group* interview (focus group).

B. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of the Individual Interview

An individual interview is carried out in a private face-to-face, one-on-one situation between the interviewer and the interviewee

1. Advantages of an *individual* interview:
 - a. Flexibility: A skilled interviewer can search out relevant issues that appear or develop as the interview progresses. This may yield valuable information.
 - b. Involvement: One-on-one interviews may produce a greater sense of involvement and commitment among interviewees and lead to more direct and honest answers.
 - c. Clarity: Since the interviewer takes an active role in helping the respondent understand questions, there is less chance the questions will be misunderstood.
 - d. Intimacy: One-on-one interviews are intimate; therefore, they may lead to more direct and honest answers.
2. Disadvantages of an *individual* interview:

- a. **Time:** Individual interviews that involve a large number of interviewees can take a great deal of time.
- b. **Sample size:** As pointed out before, time limitations make it difficult to interview a large number of people. This may limit the final sample size (or representation of the group) and the breadth of information obtained. The process of drawing conclusions from limited samples may then be difficult; thus, affecting the validity of the interviews.
- c. **Validity:** Such things as the interviewer's lack of experience, improperly used techniques, questionable interpretation, and small sample sizes may invalidate the data. Also, responses from interviewees may not be honest, and different individuals may directly contradict each other.
- d. **Training:** It is far easier to teach a person to administer a survey than to be an effective one-on-one interviewer.

C. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of the Group Interview

A group interview (focus group) is an informal discussion carried out with a selected group of people using one or more interviewers, in order to address specific topics relevant to the situation at hand. Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members.

1. Advantages of a group interview:

- a. **Time:** Because more than one person is being interviewed, more information may be gathered using the same amount of time devoted to an individual interview.
- b. **Determine commonality of perception:** If numerous people share the same perception, this may help validate the perception. At the same time, commonly-held perceptions may be the product of organizational folklore, and not possess any basis in fact (i.e., group think).
- c. **Sharing of information:** The group interaction will often provide elaborated responses and encourage the sharing of ideas, including proposed solutions. One comment may serve as a lead-in to other comments or information critical to the assessment.
- d. **Formal communication check:** The group interview can provide a check on the information channels and patterns in a unit, by revealing how well or poorly information gets passed.

2. Disadvantages of Group interviews may include
 - a. Trust: If there is no trust between the group and the interviewer, among the group members themselves, or within the organization, the interview will not likely produce valuable information.
 - b. Expectations: Some members of the group may see the interview as an opportunity to expose others for policy violations. Such conversations are categorically off limits, and any such comments require the facilitator to stop the interview, remove the individual, and contact leadership about the allegations.
 - c. Threat: A senior member may perceive a group interview as a threat to his/her position or program.
 - d. Limited interviewer skills: The success of a group interviewer depends on the interviewer's skills in handling group situations, behaviors, and dynamics. The interview team must maintain respect/rapport and engage in effective listening, while accurately capturing the predominant perceptions and concerns expressed by the group

D. Recall Logistical Considerations of Conducting an Interview

The setting provides the atmosphere and sets the tone to facilitate participants' comfort and willingness to disclose information. The following factors should be considered:

1. Room size
2. Room condition
3. Room setup/seating arrangement – pick a room where you have a reasonable expectation of privacy and a lack of interruptions.
4. Group interview seating arrangement – seating arrangements are dictated by the number of participants and room size. It is all about being flexible.
5. Individual interview seating arrangement – dictated by the interview location.
6. Location – the setting is more than just the physical room. It should provide for a reasonably intimate and comfortable environment. The interview should run without interruptions. Arrangements should be made so phones or people not participating do not interrupt the interview.

E. Recall How to Determine the Number of Interviews

1. How many *group* interviews need to be conducted?

The exact number of group interviews that are needed to adequately address the key issues within the command may be difficult to determine. However, that determination is made based upon the need to collect more data to help clarify issues or concerns.

2. How many *individual* interviews need to be conducted?

The number of personal interviews depends on the size of the command. With very large commands, it becomes progressively difficult to conduct a large number of interviews.

F. Recall Determining the Sample Element

1. Developing a sample

This helps ensure the results are valid, which enhances the assessment's value to leadership.

- a. **Step 1:** determine interview type and purpose
- b. **Step 2:** random sampling

Ideally, a randomly selected sampling provides a representative sample of the unit's population. However, in small units, there may be a very limited number of members representing a specific group, and a random sampling may fail to adequately include individuals in that demographic group. When this is the case, it may be necessary to consciously select members of these groups, to ensure their input is secured.

- c. **Step 3:** confirm sampled group is demographically representative; adjust as needed

2. Determine number of interview participants

There should be an adequate number of interviews to properly reflect the range of participants who need to be interviewed, based on survey findings, in order to characterize the issues.

- a. Group interview

The optimum number is 8–15. The group needs to be large enough so that individuals are less likely to monopolize the session. At the same time, the group needs to be small enough so that everyone has the opportunity to discuss issues they feel are important, within the established session time limit.

- b. Individual interview

An individual interview involves a single interviewee.

3. Determining demographics

The EOA needs to randomly select candidates, so that a properly represented group (i.e. with adequate numbers of minorities, women, junior enlisted, etc.) is created.

G. Recall the Types of Interview Questions

Questions play a major role in facilitating. Questions invite participation and get people to think about issues from different perspectives. The skill of questioning techniques is not as simple as it seems. The interview should allow for the development of questions tailored for specific needs.

There are several different types of questions.

1. Direct questions

Ask explicitly for a reply on a specified topic. Use the who, what, when, where, why strategy. This is more likely to be directed at a specific individual.

2. Open-ended questions

Elicits a more complete response and more effective participation. It requires more than a “yes” or “no” answer. The majority of your lead-off questions should be open-ended questions to stimulate as many responses as possible.

3. Narrow questions

The interviewer selects the subject matter to discuss.

4. Paraphrased questions

The interviewer repeats the other person’s last response in his/her own words and then follows with a question seeking additional, related information.

5. Leading questions

These are statements followed by a suggestion of what the answer should be.

6. Yes/No questions

Yes/no questions are similar to leading questions. They look for a specific answer/response to a particular area of interest.

7. Loaded questions

A loaded question encourages a specific response taking the respondent in a direction the facilitator wants to go.

8. Closed questions

Requires a direct answer. Can be used at the end of the interview too. Usually begins with “is, can, will, could, should, did, does, do, etc.

9. Polling questions

An uninvolved focus group member (e.g., participant that is quiet or displaying body language that signals a lack of interest or an unwillingness to participate) is a challenge. To encourage quiet or withdrawn group members, it is helpful to use a polling technique in order to elicit each participant’s feelings about a particular issue. Avoid serial questioning (e.g., asking each participant to comment in the same order on every issue).

H. Recognize Interview Error and Bias

In personal interviews there are many ways in which 'errors' can be made by both the respondent and the interviewer, and this can lead to 'bias' in the results. The objective of the interviewer should be to minimize the likelihood of such bias arising.

1. Interviewee induced bias

a. Faulty memory

Some respondents may answer a question incorrectly simply because they have a poor memory.

b. Exaggeration and dishonesty

There can be a tendency on the part of some respondents to exaggerate claims about their conditions and problems if they think it will further their cause and lead to improvement in their well-being.

c. Courtesy bias

In interview situations it is quite possible that one will come across the problem of courtesy bias, i.e. the tendency for respondents to give answers that they think the interviewer wants to hear, rather than what they really feel. The respondents may not wish to be impolite or to offend the interviewer, and may therefore endeavor to give 'polite' answers.

It is also possible for the interviewer him or herself to introduce bias into an interview, and this must be avoided at all costs.

2. Interviewer induced Bias

a. Desire to help the respondent

The interviewer may become too sympathetic to the problems and conditions of the respondent, and this can affect the conduct of, and results obtained from, the interview.

b. Reactions to responses

When respondents give answers, the interviewer must be careful not to 'react.

There are many potential opportunities for bias to creep into the results of group discussions.

3. Specific group potential biases

- a. Some participants may feel they cannot give their true opinions due to the psychological pressure on them arising from their concern as to what other members of the group may think. Some may feel tempted to give opinions that they feel will be respected by the group.
- b. The presence of one or two 'dominant' participants may repress the opinions of others. Some may not feel confident about expressing an opinion.

I. Recall the Purpose of Using Observations

Observation is the act of recognizing and noting a fact or occurrence often involving measurement with instruments. (Webster pg 802)

Purpose of observation in organizational assessment:

1. A means to observe a unit during its usual daily activities in real time.
2. Observation can be directed at hypotheses testing (e.g., to determine if specific behaviors occur in the workplace), hypothesis formulation (e.g., to identify why certain sentiments were expressed in the survey), or evaluating unit climate (e.g., whether the workplace environment is cooperative, competitive, hostile, etc.). Observations can be adapted to realize any of these ends by making a different set of choices concerning recording methods.

J. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Observations

1. Advantages of using observation as a data collection method:

- a. Provides data about behavior itself, rather than reports of behavior. Observation data has relatively high face validity. While people in the organization may doubt the validity of questionnaire responses and may attempt to deny the validity of interview data by arguing that people did not answer truthfully, well-documented observational data can accurately identify workplace behaviors that indicate interpersonal dynamics and practices that can impact morale, productivity, and retention.
 - b. It is a real-time data collecting device rather than a retrospective collection device. Self-reports mostly describe behavior that has occurred in the past. Because people tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later, their reports of those events can become distorted. Observation deals with behavior that is occurring now. People tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later.
 - c. It's a flexible method. In all but the most structured observation schemes, the observer can modify what he or she is observing, as the situation requires. While structure is helpful for producing measurable data, it introduces the danger of selective observation. The respondent enjoys behavioral flexibility, but you really don't. In observation, you can change your collection methods if the dynamics of the arena change. Observation, therefore, enables one to discover existing patterns of behavior previously unknown to the people in the organization.
 - d. It removes the temptation for the respondent to provide biased answers. It does not depend on the willingness of the respondent to honestly complete the questionnaire or contribute during an interview.
 - e. It reduces selective learning. The observer is able to make an objective analysis of the behaviors occurring in the organization that was not previously known by leadership.
2. Disadvantages of using observation (I pg 6-8)
- a. Interpretation/coding is required to use data. As observations move away from the more structured formats, interpretations and coding must be used in order to compile the data. This process is time-consuming and requires some skill. If you hire an expert or outside consultant, it can become expensive. Thus, as with interviews, coding and interpretation can be expensive, requires time, and can be a source of bias.
 - b. Observer bias. Less structured observation also has a tremendous potential for observer bias. Observers must be adequately trained so that different observers will see the same things when viewing an event. There are several techniques that can be used to avoid observer bias. One of the less formal ways is by making several observations of a particular group activity over a period of time and seeing if the inferences about that activity are the same across different periods of time. This will provide a little insight into what is being written and what is being assumed, thereby exposing observer bias.

- c. Expense: When all these factors are added up – training, sampling, coding, etc., effective observation becomes a potentially expensive proposition. However, many times there is simply no substitute for having a trained observer on the scene.
- d. Lack of privacy: This disadvantage primarily affects those individuals being observed.

SUMMARY

The following topics were covered in this lesson:

- A. Recall the purpose of an interview
- B. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the individual interview
- C. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the group interview
- D. Recall logistical considerations of conducting an interview
- E. Recall how to determine the number of interviews
- F. Recall determining the sample element
- G. Recall the types of interview questions
- H. Recognize interview error and bias
- I. Recall the purpose of using observations
- J. Recall advantages and disadvantages of using observations

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
February, 2015

EOA 6250-4

ASSESSMENT TO SOLUTIONS



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in finalizing an "Organizational Assessment" by introducing recommendations and Assessment to Solutions. Once a DEOCS and/or organizational assessment has been conducted, EOAs are often tasked to out-brief the assessment data to that command. EOAs frequently include recommendations, solutions, and action planning as part of their briefing (depending on the type of assessment and the results). The lesson will provide the student selected recommendations within the DEOCS report and introduce them to the DEOMI.org "Assessment to Solutions" web page.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

Research Directorate. (2015). DEOMI.org Assessment to Solution. Retrieved from <http://www.deomi.org/DRN/AssessToSolutions/index.html>

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOAC Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide, recognize the DEOCS report recommendations and how to leverage assessment to solutions by obtaining a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify recommendations within the DEOCS report	K	PE
B. Recall key aspects of the DEOMI.org “Assessment to Solutions” webpage	K	PE
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ASSESSMENT TO SOLUTIONS**A. Identify Recommendations**

If you remember back to the beginning of the OA lesson, you were informed that an OA is use to:

1. Organizational Assessment

Determining the "health" and functioning effectiveness of an organization by examining such factors as morale, teamwork, and communication. This is accomplished through some or all of the following: group and/or individual interviews, observations, surveys or questionnaires, and reviews of records and reports. - DoDD 1350.2, August 18, 1995

- a. A complete organizational assessment usually consists of a comprehensive organizational review using all or a combination of the four distinct assessment methods.
- b. EOAs will typically be required to provide an out-brief of the information and in that brief provide recommendations and/or an action plan.

2. DEOCS SAPR Recommendations

Recommendations in the DEOCS report are located in Section IV (SAPR) and in Section VIII (Recommendations).

The SAPR area has recommendations strategically placed after each sub-factor area that speaks to that specific factor and in some instances display additional resources to assist you.

- a. Perceptions of Safety (p. 24)
- b. Chain of Command Support (p. 27)
- c. Publicity of SAPR (p. 31)
- d. Unit Reporting Climate (p. 36)
- e. Perceived Barriers (p. 41)
- f. Unit Prevention (p. 46)
- g. Restricted Reporting (p. 49)

3. DEOCS Recommendations

The Recommendation Section within the DEOCS is located in section VIII (page 79.) This section will provide you with generic recommendation that apply to most organizations that are conducting an assessment. The section addresses two main areas:

“Above Average/Average” and “Below Average”

- a. Average scores are displayed in the Unit Summary (SAPR, OE, and EO) and in the Subgroup Comparison area (SAPR, OE, and EO). These scores are displayed with a green, blue, red color scheme.
- b. Above Average/Average scores represent a positive or organizational strength. This means that the organization typically wants to reinforce-those practices and programs currently in place or improve upon them.
 - 1) Reinforce policy or practice
 - 2) Continue open communication to ensure all members understand their role & responsibilities
 - 3) Share results with unit members
 - 4) Utilize training aids as needed
- c. Below Average scores represent a possible organizational concern. Organizations generally want to attempt to improve the views or perceptions regarding that factor.
 - 1) Review comments and data to determine concern areas
 - 2) Review comments to look for possible corrective actions
 - 3) Conduct focus groups or interviews can help determine the source and extent of specific perceptions
 - 4) Contact referral agencies as needed to assist

B. Assessment to Solutions

1. Assessment to Solutions
 - a. Assessment to Solution is designed to support leaders and equal opportunity professionals by providing tools and products designed to address the mission-impacting issues that were identified during the climate assessment process.
 - b. Assessment to Solutions has products and training material to help organizations overcome negative perceptions; these can also aid in the development of an action plan.

- c. The Assessment to Solutions area is broken down into the main assessment areas of the DEOCS, each area is further broken down by factors and a host of products are provided to assist in overcoming negative perceptions at an organization.
- d. The site breaks down DEOCS topic areas (OE, EO, and SAPR) and allows you to select each factor under that area. Once you select a factor, it provides a factor description, additional information, and various products that will assist your organization in developing effective solutions.
- e. The final area provides “Operational Support.” The DEOCS Support Team delivers a range of support services, and can provide consultation and analytical services to assist commanders, directors, and survey administrators through all phases of the command climate assessment process.
 - 1) Consultation Services
 - 2) Analytical/Research Services
 - 3) Senior Consultation

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify recommendations within the DEOCS report.
- B. Recall key aspects of the DEOMI.org “Assessment to Solutions” Web page.

END OF LESSON

CLASS 15-2
EQUAL OPPORTUNITY ADVISOR COURSE
STUDENT STUDY GUIDE



Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute
Patrick AFB, FL
April 2015

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NOTE: Materials found within this document are FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY. They are not authorized for use in local training programs.

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How to Use This Student Guide

This guide is to be used during classroom instruction and as a study tool to prepare for test sessions. It contains instructional objectives and materials for each of the topical areas.

Each lesson provides a lesson emphasis, instructional objectives, and reference materials that will guide your study. The guides are organized to generally follow the lesson/course outline. However, the instructor may on occasion vary the order of the presentation during the lesson or present the material not included in the guide.

Each student, therefore, should take thorough notes of the lecture content throughout the course, but not rely solely upon graphic reproductions for the course content.

Effective Habits for Studying

Try to develop and appreciate the following habits:

1. Take responsibility for yourself.
2. Responsibility is recognition that in order to succeed you can make decisions about your priorities, your time, and your resources.
3. Center yourself around your values and principles.
4. Do not let friends and acquaintances dictate what you consider important.
5. Put first things first.
6. Follow up on the priorities you have set for yourself, and do not let others or other interests, distract you from your goals.
7. Discover your key productivity periods and places.
8. Choose the morning, afternoon, evening, and study spaces where you can be the most focused and productive. Prioritize these for your most difficult study challenges.
9. Consider yourself in a win-win situation—you win by doing your best and contributing your best to a class, whether for yourself, your fellow students, and even for your teachers and instructors. If you are content with your performance, a grade becomes an external check on your performance, which may not coincide with your internally arrived at benefits.
10. First, understand others and then attempt to be understood.
11. When you have an issue with an instructor (e.g. a questionable grade, an assignment deadline extension), put yourself in the instructor's place. Now ask yourself how you can best make your argument given his/her situation.
12. Look for better solutions to problems. For example, if you do not understand the course material, do not just reread the material, try something else! Consult with your trainer, a tutor, an academic advisor, a classmate, or a study group.
13. Look to continually challenge yourself.

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1000

GROUP DEVELOPMENT



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Lesson Overview

Provide information that will describe the group development theory. Using Bruce Tuckman's group development model, students will examine the developmental stages of group and behavior functions, which emerge during small group interaction; describe group norms; and describe the details of task, maintenance, individual function, and their impact on group development. Students will have the opportunity to apply group development theory during a series of related small group exercises and over the duration of the course.

Required Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation—Group Development
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, activities, and a study guide, apply interpersonal skills developed for group interaction. Each student must score no less than 70% on the criterion reference test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A Define group.	K	CRT
B Describe group types.	K	CRT
C Describe Bruce Tuckman’s group development model.	C	CRT
D Identify the differences between formal and informal rules (norms).	K	CRT
E Describe how personal motivation impacts the group’s dynamics.	C	CRT
F Recognize ‘group role’ categories (task, maintenance, and individual).	C	CRT
G Identify how small groups operate.	K	CRT
H Describe behaviors associated with group success.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

GROUP DEVELOPMENT

A. Definitions

1. Group

Shaw (1981) defined group as “persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other” (p. 4).

2. Small Group

A group small enough that each member is aware of and able to recall other group members (Brilhart & Galanes, 2001, p. 8). Members can perceive, at least peripherally, all other members in the group at one time and are aware of who is in the group. Group members have an *interdependent goal* that all members succeed or fail together as they work towards goal attainment.

B. Group Types

1. Formal Groups – In a formal group, someone has identified a task that needs to be done, which requires some kind of organizational system made up of various roles for which individuals are recruited (Shaw, 1981). The task is what matters and everything else may change.
2. Informal Groups – Informal groups work the other way around. A group of individuals meet; they form a group and informally allocate roles among themselves depending on individual preferences, the collection of roles make a system possible and they may undertake a task together (Shaw, 1981).
3. Similarities
 - a. Interacting individuals
 - b. Taking on a role (more or less defined)
 - c. Acting within an organizational system of varying degree
 - d. Existence of tasks (i.e., completion required or not)

C. Bruce Tuckman’s Group Development Model

1. Principles of Tuckman’s group development theory

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) list three principles that provide realistic expectations of group behavior.

- a. Sequential
 - 1) Specific stated order
 - 2) Occurs naturally
 - 3) Timing (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)
- b. Developmental
 - 1) Issues/concerns – must be resolved to progress
 - 2) Conflict/apathy – becomes the group dominant behavior; group disintegration occurs.
 - 3) Growth occurs – when conflict is successfully managed. (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)
- c. Thematic (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)

2. Dominant Themes

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) lists two dominate themes in group development:

- a. Task dimension: content
- b. Relationship dimension: maintenance

3. Stages

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) described group stages as

- a. Forming – Initially polite and superficial as each person seeks out similarities or common needs. While introductions are made, each individual is testing the amount of compatibility of his or her reasons for being there, with the stated reasons of other members. After a base level of expectations and similarities is established, individuals begin to challenge differences in a bid to regain their individuality, power, and influence. (p. 419–27)
- b. Storming – Probably the most difficult stage for the group because it is during this stage that group members realize the task is different and more difficult than they imagined. They become impatient about the lack of progress, but are still too inexperienced to know much about decision making so they argue about the actions the group should take. Members try to rely solely on their personal and professional experience, resisting any need for collaborating with other group members.

- c. Norming – Members reconcile competing loyalties and responsibilities. They accept the group, group ground rules (or norms), their roles in the group, and the individuality of other group members. Emotional conflict is also reduced as previously competitive relationships become more cooperative. By the time the group gets to the performing stage, they have settled their relationships and expectations.
- d. Performing – They begin diagnosing and solving problems, and choosing and implementing changes. At this stage, group members have discovered and accepted each other's strengths and weaknesses, and learned what their roles are.
- e. Adjourning – The final stage is the termination or disengagement stage where groups experience anxiety about separation and termination.

D. Formal and Informal Rules

1. To help create an environment where group members can fully participate in group discussions, members must develop a set of rules or operating procedures to coordinate their individual behaviors into a system.
 - a. Formal, written rules, Robert's Rules of Order Newly Revised (2011).
 - b. Informal rules do not specify absolutes, but ranges; self-imposed norms:
 - 1) General – Direct behavior of group as a whole.
 - a) Members should sit in a different position in each session.
 - b) Members should address each other by rank/title and last name.
 - c) Members should arrive on time.
 - d) No one may sit in the facilitator's chair.
 - 2) Role-specific: individual members with particular roles. (Robert, Honemann, & Balch, 2011)
 - a) The facilitator should provide students with all exercise material.
 - b) The facilitator should give students a 10-minute break every 50 minutes.
 - c) The facilitator should provide students with timely and objective feedback.
 - d) The facilitator should release the group on time.

2. When using formal and informal rules, group members should
 - a. Engage: Actively engage and participate in the group's discussions.
 - b. Observe
 - c. Evaluate
 - d. Adapt to the group's processes and needs
3. As a member of a group, you will notice a full range of human behaviors
 - a. Some members of your group may listen politely while others will interrupt and insult one another.
 - b. Your group will need to develop a set of rules and operating procedures to coordinate individual behaviors into a system. (McClelland, 1967)
4. Norms have a tremendous impact on:
 - a. Task processes
 - b. Outcomes (Robert, Honemann, & Balch, 2011)

E. Motivation Impacts Group Dynamics

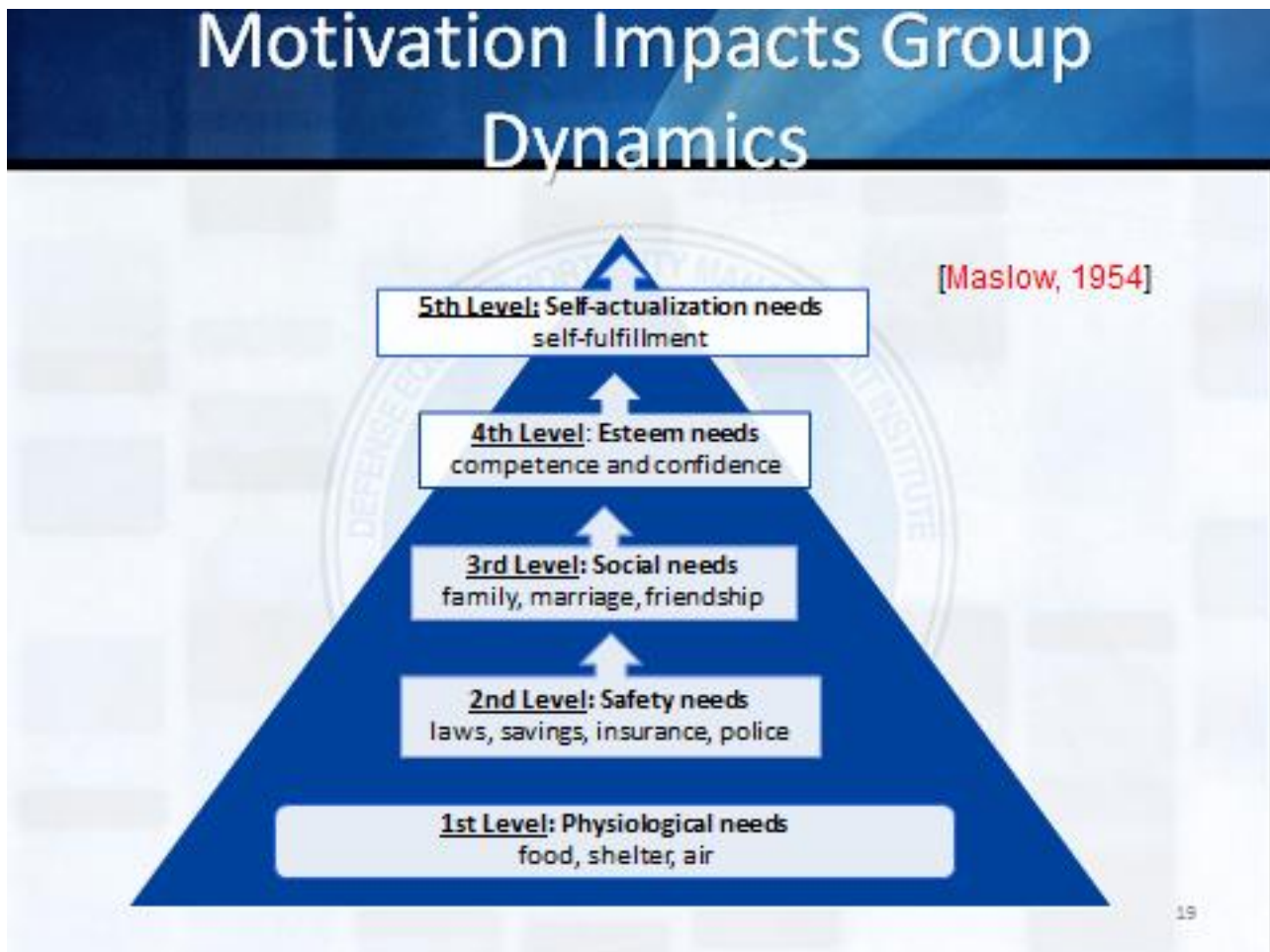
1. Motivation theory:

A general agreement that *motivation* is a concept that describes forces acting from within us that causes us to turn ideas into directed action (McClelland, 1967).

2. Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs:

- a. Level 1: Physiological (survival needs) – Characteristics: food, shelter, rest, air, etc.
- b. Level 2: Safety (security needs) – Characteristics: locks; savings accounts, retirement plans, and insurances; regulations, laws, law enforcement, and fire departments, etc.
- c. Level 3: Social (sense of belonging) – Characteristics: membership in organizations, fraternities, or clubs; friendships; marriage and family
- d. Level 4: Esteem (recognition or status) – Characteristics: desire for confidence, competence, mastery, adequacy, and achievement

- e. Level 5: Self-Actualization (self-fulfillment) – Characteristics: integrity, responsibility, magnanimity, authenticity, focus on needs of others, completeness, and fulfillment



3. McClelland's (1967) needs theory

McClelland theorized that people are motivated by three basic needs. People possess all three needs in varying degrees.

4. Elements of McClelland's (1967) needs theory

a. Achievement

- 1) Welcomes challenges
- 2) Wants ensured success
- 3) Has conservative goals
- 4) Plans ahead

- 5) Takes personal responsibility
- 6) Needs hard data reinforcement
- b. Affiliation
 - 1) Establishes/maintains relationships
 - 2) Approval needs may affect decision making/implementation
 - 3) Strives to maintain harmony
- c. Power
 - 1) Enjoys conflict
 - 2) Strong speaking skills
 - 3) Autocratic decision making
 - 4) Situations are win/lose
 - 5) Can make people a means to an end/damage relationships
- 5. Determining an individual's motivation
 - a. Don't make assumptions from the behavior
 - b. Study the person/system in light of motivation theory
 - c. The best way to determine a person's motivation is to ask

F. Group Role Categories

According to Benne and Sheats (1948) groups operate at the following three levels:

1. Task

Groups exist primarily to carry out a task and are so focused on carrying out the task that they are frequently unaware of the other levels of need operating at the same time—the group maintenance level and individual needs level.

2. Maintenance

Relationships in a group are maintained at a level where members feel safe and, thus, contribute freely and creatively to the task. The group consists of a constantly changing network of interactions and relationships. If the group is to operate effectively as a group, they must have a growing awareness of themselves as a group and develop a need for maintaining the relationships within the team.

3. Individual Functions

Individual members bring their own set of personal needs to the group which infringe upon the group and its task. When individual needs are not met, members will behave in such a way to attempt to get their needs met. Failure to meet these needs can lead to nonparticipation, withdrawal, blocking, and other types of behaviors which keep the group from accomplishing its task.

G. Understanding How Small Groups Operate

1. Principles of systems theory (Senge,1990)

- a. Interdependence – the parts of the system do not operate in isolation, but continually affect each other and the system as a whole.
- b. Non-summativity – the whole system is not the sum of its parts, but may be greater or less with either positive or negative synergy operating.
- c. Interdependence with its environment – group members must interact with other individuals within the organizational structure.

2. Small Group Systems

Watt and Dillon (2005) maintained that small groups are systems with input, throughput, and output.

a. Input Variables:

- 1) Members share basic values and beliefs about the group's purpose and each other
- 2) Divergence of backgrounds and perspectives with a balance between diversity and similarity
- 3) Purpose and goals are understood and accepted by all
- 4) Resources needed to achieve group goals are available
- 5) Relationships to other groups and organizations are clear

- 6) Sufficient time to do work
 - 7) Meeting place that provides for members' needs and is free of distractions
 - b. Throughput Variables:
 - 1) Members are dependable and reliable
 - 2) Roles are stable, mutually understood, and accepted
 - 3) Members have relatively equal status, so they can exert influence based on knowledge, ideas, and skills
 - 4) Norms and values are understood and adhered to, or discussed openly, and changed if counterproductive
 - 5) Most remarks are directed to the group as a whole, not to individual members (no sidebar discussions)
 - 6) Members are skilled and considerate when expressing themselves
 - 7) Everyone understands and shares efficient procedures that lead to goal attainment
 - c. Output Variables:
 - 1) Members perceive that the group purpose has been achieved
 - 2) Members are satisfied with their roles, the group process, and their relationship with other members.
 - 3) High cohesiveness
 - 4) Consensus on the role and leadership structure
 - 5) The parent organization is strengthened by the group's work
 - d. Environmental Factors:
 - 1) The organization publicly recognizes and rewards the accomplishments of the group
 - 2) Supplies resources and expertise the group needs
 - 3) Provides supportive atmosphere
3. Stages of Development (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)

- a. As a member of a small group, you must be able to work out personal differences, find strengths on which to build, balance commitments to the project or task against the demands of your everyday job. Otherwise, you will end up wasting time on struggles for control within the group and in endless discussions that lead to nowhere.
- b. As your group matures, you will gradually learn to cope with the emotional and group pressures you will face.
- c. As a result, your group will go through fairly predictable stages, as in Tuckman's model. The duration and intensity of these stages varies from group to group, but understanding how groups mature and grow through the various stages will keep you from overreacting to normal problems and setting unrealistic expectations. This course will explore each of the stages to provide you with a better understanding of what to expect in your group and you will be able to explain the stages of group development.

H. Behaviors Associated with Group Success

1. Counter negative group dynamics

Scholtes (1988) contended the following would counter negative group dynamics:

- a. Clarity in group goals
- b. Clearly defined roles
- c. Clear communication
- d. Beneficial group behaviors
- e. Well-defined decision procedures
- f. Balanced participation
- g. Established ground rules
- h. Awareness of the group process. (p. 1–10)

2. Understanding its purpose and goals

The group

- a. agrees on its mission, vision, and goals
- b. sees the mission as workable, and if necessary, narrows the mission to a workable size

- c. has a clear vision and works steadily toward its goals
- d. is clear about the larger project goals; and
- e. understands the purpose of the individual steps of the project, meetings, discussions, and decisions.

3. Roles and Responsibilities

The group's roles and responsibilities

- a. has formally designated roles for each member
- b. understands which roles belong to an individual, which roles are shared, and how shared roles are switched (e.g., using an agreed-upon procedure to rotate roles); and
- c. uses each member's talents, and involves everyone in the group activities so no one feels left out.

4. Communication

In communication group members should

- a. speak clearly and directly (e.g., avoid using questions to disguise statements);
- b. be succinct—avoid long stories and examples;
- c. avoid interrupting others and talking when others are speaking; and
- d. share different types of information (e.g., sensing, thinking, feeling statements)

5. Beneficial Group Behaviors

Group members should

- a. initiate discussions, seeking information and opinions;
- b. suggest actions to reach a goal;
- c. clarify or elaborate on ideas suggested during discussions;
- d. summarize ideas and test for consensus; and
- e. keep the discussion from digressing.

6. Decision-making Procedures

Group should incorporate the following in their decision-making procedures:

- a. discuss how decisions will be made (e.g., when it's time to take a poll, when to decide by consensus);
- b. explore important issues by polling (e.g., asking members to vote verbally or in writing);
- c. decide important issues by consensus;
- d. test for consensus; and
- e. use data as the basis for decisions when possible.

7. Balanced Participation

Groups should

- a. have reasonably balanced participation with all members contributing to most of the discussions; and
- b. build on members' natural styles of participation.

8. Ground Rules

Group members should

- a. have open discussions regarding ground rules and decide as a group what they will be; and
- b. openly state norms (e.g., everyone deciding how to decide on an issue).

9. Awareness of Group Process

Group members should

- a. be sensitive to nonverbal communication (e.g., silence may indicate disagreement)
- b. see, hear, and feel the group dynamics
- c. comment and intervene to correct a group process problem
- d. contribute equally to group process issues

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define group.
- B. Describe group types.
- C. Describe Bruce Tuckman's group development model.
- D. Identify differences between formal and informal rules (norms).
- E. Describe how personal motivation impacts the group's dynamics.
- F. Recognize 'group role' categories (task, maintenance, and individual).
- G. Identify how small groups operate.
- H. Describe behaviors associated with group success.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1050

SOCIALIZATION



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

In this lesson, students are provided a description of the socialization process and its impact on individuals in the equal opportunity career field as well as in organizations. At the end of this lesson, students will be able to describe the socialization process, recall the fundamental attributes associated with self-concept, recognize Ego Defense Mechanisms, identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior, and discuss personal aspects of self-identity (self-concept) during activities in the small-group room.

Recommended Reading

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 1050 Socialization
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers
3. Video: *Massey Triad*

Terminal Learning Objective:

Given examples, and a study guide, comprehend how socialization issues impact the military environment with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the socialization process.	K	CRT
B. Recall the fundamental elements associated with the perception of self (Self-Concept).	K	CRT
C. Recognize ego defense mechanisms.	K	CRT
D. Identify significant emotional events (SEE).	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

SOCIALIZATION

A. Socialization Process

The socialization process is an all-encompassing educational process from which values, goals, beliefs, attitudes, and sex (gender)-roles are acquired. Socialization is nothing more than the educational process by which we learn everything. It's an elaborate process by which individuals become distinctive and actively functioning members of society. (Massey, 1979)

1. Definition of Socialization

- a. According to Charon (1987), socialization is defined as:

The process, beginning at birth, by which an individual acquires values, attitudes, goals, beliefs, perceptions, and gender roles; learns the expectations of society; acquires sensitivity to the pressures and obligations of group life; and learns to interact with others.

- b. The socialization process is the primary method of learning culture. Our values, attitudes, perceptions, stereotypes, and behaviors are continuously developed, refined, and reinforced through the socialization process.
- c. Socialization is the process by which people develop their attitudes, establish norms, and define their roles, which are necessary to function in society, specific groups, or organizations.

2. Sources that Influence our Socialization

- a. Major influences that impact our socialization include (Anderson & Taylor, 2006):

- 1) Family – The most influential agent of socialization is family. This includes parents, grandparents, siblings, and other family members. They influence our etiquette, language, religion, how we live our lives, and how we interact with others. Initially, we adopt views held by our families. As we grow, other sources and settings become influences.

- a) Includes parents, grandparents, brothers, sisters, and other family members who influence eating habits, language, and generally how we live our lives and relate to others within the culture.
- b) Extended family – In some cultures within the United States, the extended family has more influence than the nuclear family.
- c) Where the family lives (i.e., in a house, boat, car, or other location) influences how members are defined. (p. 86)

- 2) Media (television, radio, newspapers, books, advertisements, music, and the Internet) reflects society's values and plays a large role in the socialization process.
 - a) Computers are also a major influence along with technology. We live in an information age.
 - b) Online social networking
- 3) The educational system (primary and secondary schools) influences individuals' socialization development. Teachers, administrators, teaching texts, and teaching techniques impose values on children and young adults.
- 4) Peers and friends influence social development. Examples include hair styles, clothes, definitions of acceptable behavior, and the introduction of values that differ from family values.
- 5) Community settings influence many of an individual's customs, mannerisms, dialects, and holidays.
 - a) Influencers – Customs, mannerism, dialects, holidays, ethnic migration, and industry.
 - b) Coded language, in certain areas, helps define separation of the population.
- 6) National settings influence attitude toward civil rights, work ethic, what is important, native language, and the national holidays we observe.

Note: Generational influences can be seen in all the sources that can influence our socialization. Examples include Traditionalists, 1922–43; Baby Boomer, 1943–60; Generation X, 1960–1980; and Generation Y (Why) or Millennial, 1980–present.

Generational traits develop during the formative growth years of that generation. For example, someone born in 1954 would be influenced by an early 1960s childhood and a 1970s young adulthood.

Within each generation family, media, education, friends, etc., influences affect people's values and attitudes throughout their lives. Largely, a generation is formed by the environment experienced in the early to middle years of its members.

B. Self-Concept

1. Fundamental attributes associated with the perception of self (i.e., self-concept)

The concept of self is an eclectic conception with a myriad of fundamental attributes, which are too many to mention. However, there are certain attributes (aspects) that are common with our self-image, such as the perceptions of how we see ourselves, how others see us, and

how we wish to be seen, as well as the associated values and attitudes accompanying our self-identity.

a. Self-Concept Defined:

- 1) Self-concept is defined as the perceptions of ourselves that allow us to shape and reshape reality from our own point of view (Macionis, 2000, p. 68; Babad, Birnbaum, & Benne, 1983, pp. 563–568).
- 2) According to Reeve, 2009, the concept of self is an ever-changing, progressive activity; developed through our social interactions with others, enabling us to conceptualize or categorize our behavior—both external conduct and internal states.
 - a) Explains reality from our point of view
 - b) Allows us to conceptualize our behavior
 - c) Both the product and producer of perception

b. Fundamental Elements

Researchers such as Babad, Birnbaum, and Benne (1983); and Rosenberg (1979) identify three fundamental attributes associated with the concept of self, also known as the perception of self (The Three Parts of Self):

- 1) How we picture ourselves.
- 2) How others see us.
- 3) How we wish ourselves to be seen.

These fundamental attributes associated with “self-concept” are further clarified through the perception of self.

c. Perception of Self

Development of self-concept can be positive or negative, depending on how we think about ourselves.

As Babad, Birnbaum, and Benne identified the fundamental elements, Rosenberg, et. al. (2001) expanded the research and identified three elements that shape self-perception, as well as the underlying relationships:

- 1) How we picture ourselves

- a) Membership groups are groups to which we belong that are oftentimes unchangeable. They are acquired at birth and are usually retained through life. Common membership group traits include race, ethnicity, gender, and age.
 - b) Reference groups are groups to which we belong or aspire to belong that we use as a basis for judging the adequacy of our behavior. These include military experience, affiliation with organizations, educational background, geographic location, marital status, and parental status.
- 2) How others see us
- a) Membership groups (e.g., race, ethnicity, religion, gender, age, social class) determine stereotypes and views by which others define us. Membership groups are often unchangeable because they are facts of life acquired at birth. They determine how others perceive us, and these perceptions are beyond our control.
- 3) How we wish others to see us (possible gap)



- a) Negative and unwanted parts of self has been pushed away and can only be revealed through self-examination. It is possible a gap exists between how we wish to be seen and how we actually are.
 - b) The journey of awareness exposes undesirable parts of one's life, revealing many aspects of self that we may not have been aware of previously. This can be painful and uncomfortable to look at, such as when we see our stereotypes and prejudices.
2. Self-Identity /Image)

Self-identity plays a significant role in shaping our lives.

- a. The behaviors we project as part of our self-identity can be positive or negative based on how we think of ourselves, how we act, and how we relate to others. With a positive self-concept (self-image), we tend to be assertive, tolerant, open, and trusting (Macionis, 2000).

- b. Positive self-image enhances communication: Causes us to be more open to receiving feedback and more likely to provide feedback, be decisive and creative at work, and want to do a better job.
- c. Poor self-image (negative): Causes us to do poorly at things, communicate little (if at all), and may cause us to exaggerate, deny, or even close our minds to new ideas.

Self-Identity and self-image continues to change with social experiences. No matter how much events change us, we remain creative beings. We play a role in our own socialization and the attitude (behavior) we display, which is based upon our values and morals.

Considering our Self-Concept (Self-Identity and Self-Image) what are the differences between values, morals and ethics?

They all provide behavioral rules. An EOA needs to know the differences; especially, when trying to persuade individuals of inferior social behavior, which may be based upon their values, morals, and ethics.

3. Values

Definition: Values are the rules by which we make decisions about right and wrong, should and shouldn't, good and bad. They also tell us which are more or less important, which is useful when we have to trade off meeting one value over another (Straker, 2010).

Dictionary.com defines values as:

“Beliefs of a person or social group in which they have an emotional investment (either for or against something); ‘he/she has very conservative values.’”

a. Value Categories (Straker, 2010)

We obtain our values through our socialization and culture. These values identify objects, conditions, or characteristics society considers important or valuable.

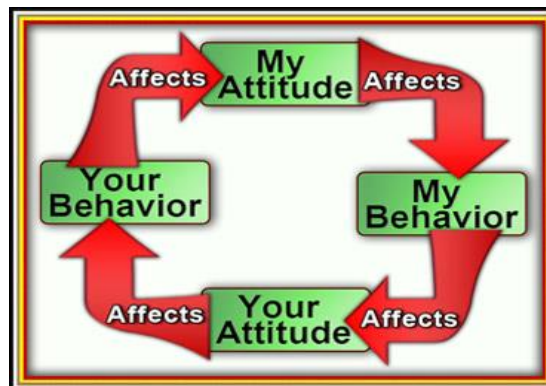
- 1) Personal values – Developed early in life, they may be resistant to change. They may be derived from an individual’s attitudes, beliefs, and actions.
- 2) Social values – Instilled early in life, these values put the rights of the wider groups of people first.
- 3) Political values – Beliefs about the best way to govern a country or organization.
- 4) Economic values – Focus on money-related issues.
- 5) Religious values – Spiritual in nature and include beliefs in how we should behave.

b. Value System

- 1) A value system is a set of values adopted by an individual or society that influences the behavior of the individual (Beck, 2003).
- 2) Socialization influences values and attitudes as it relates to daily life processes (cultural development).

c. Influence of Socialization on Values

- 1) Through observation, most of us learn through our social settings rather than depending entirely on instinct. Almost all aspects of human psychology and behavior are socially influenced, including languages, modes of dress, gender roles, etc. Our socialization process helps us avoid taboos, which are all agreed upon at a group level and form the basis of culture. All cultures vary, and each forms the basis for the attitudes, values, and behaviors of its members. These are reinforced by social institutions and collective behavior. Within each culture, other social influences affect the behavior of its members (Anderson & Taylor, 2006).
- 2) If we have been taught to value a certain principle or behavior in a particular way, we are expected to continue with those values and behaviors.
- 3) An attitude is an opinion that one has about someone or something. It can reflect a favorable, unfavorable, or neutral judgment. It may involve a comparison.



- a) Attitudes are established ways of responding to people and situations based on what we have learned (beliefs, values) and assumptions we hold.
 - b) Attitudes are manifested through outwardly displayed behavior. Body language is a result of mental attitude. No one can see an attitude (feeling); what is seen is the behavior.
- 4) According to Morris Massey, values form during three significant periods:

- a) Imprint period – from birth to 7 years
- b) Modeling period – from 7 to 13 years
- c) Socialization period – from 13 to 21 years

Note: Each generation has its own set of values and attitudes. For the first time in almost a century, there are four generations (Traditionalist, Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y or Millennial) with four different approaches to the world of work. The first step in utilizing these differences and minimizing conflicts is to understand the differences.

Responsibility of an EOA

In addition to understanding yourself, you must help others understand how their attitudes manifest in behaviors and how that can be counterproductive to mission accomplishment.

We each have our own set of values, morals, and ethics; we must respect one another even though our values might not be the same.

4. Morals

Dictionary.com defines “morals” as “motivation based on ideas of right and wrong.”

- a. Morals are “standards of conduct” and in some cases expectations of social behavior.
- b. Morals have a greater social element than values and are broadly accepted.
- c. Morals are far more about good and bad than other values.
- d. We generally judge others more strongly on morals than values.
- e. Laws are supposedly based on moral codes and the principles of social morals as obligations on a community.
- f. Morals or knowing the difference between right and wrong is something we are all taught from a very early age.
- g. Morality is typically based on a cultural idea of what is right or wrong. Usually we know in our hearts and mind if something is morally wrong or right.

Some examples of bad morals could be (Straker, 2010):

- 1) Cheating on a test, lying or misleading someone intentionally.
- 2) Stealing/taking items that are not yours or leaving a store knowing the cashier gave you too much change.

- 3) Going against socially accepted ideas of what is right or wrong.

Some examples of good morals could be: (Straker, 2010)

- 1) Telling the truth regardless of the consequences to yourself.
- 2) Helping others in need, even if it requires to go above and beyond normal expectations.
- 3) Turning in someone who has stolen, cheated, or otherwise hurt someone even if they are a friend or family member.

Morals and ethics go hand-in-hand in the workplace.

5. Ethics

Merriam-Webster defines “Ethics” as a code of morality: a system of moral principles governing the appropriate conduct for a person or group. They are rules of behavior based on ideas about what is morally good and bad.

Ethics are critical to good order and discipline in the military.

According to DoD Directive 5500.7 (2007) *Standards of Conduct* DoD employees shall adhere strictly to DoD policy of equal opportunity, regardless of race, color, religion, gender, age, national origin, or handicap, in accordance with applicable laws and regulations. Individual conduct, official programs, and daily activities within DoD shall be accomplished lawfully and ethically.

C. Ego Defense Mechanism

Ego defense mechanisms are natural and normal. These defense mechanisms help us deal with conflict and problems in life and will sometimes create barriers to the changes needed in our socialization (concerning inferior social behavior such as racism, sexism, etc.).

1. Definition of Ego Defense Mechanism

Coping behaviors that allow us to selectively interpret information when we are challenged on a value, attitude, or belief (Vaillant, 1992).

2. Function of Ego Defense Mechanisms

- a. When exposed to information that may challenge our self-concept and our value system, we feel inner turmoil.

- b. Our ego defense mechanisms keep us from using this information to change our perceptions (Vaillant, 1992). Instead, our values, attitudes, and beliefs stay the same.

3. Common Ego Defense Mechanisms

- a. Ego defense mechanisms serve a protective function, but they usually involve self-deception and reality distortion (Vaillant, 1992). Several ego defense mechanisms impact the self-concept:

- 1) Denial – Protecting oneself from an unpleasant reality by refusing to recognize it.
- 2) Rationalization – Taking a situation and turning it around to fit our need, thus not pushing ourselves to try harder. Permits us to give excuses for shortcomings and avoid self-condemnation, disappointment, or criticism by others.
- 3) Projection – Placing blame for difficulties upon others rather than taking responsibility for one's own actions.
- 4) Compensation – Making up for a feeling of inadequacy by seeking to excel in a different way.

- b. Barriers to Change

- 1) Attitudes can only be changed once we have overcome barriers to change.
- 2) Personal programming is not encountered unless we experience a significant emotional event (SEE) that makes us aware of our unconscious actions.
- 3) The only way an attitude or value can change is through personal choice.

D. Significant Emotional Events

Sometimes the best way to recognize inferior socialized behavior is through a significant emotional event. A significant emotional event and our responses to them shape who we are.

A significant emotional event (SEE) is a psychological trauma phenomenon conceived by Morris Massey where a highly-stressful event or set of events in a person's life permanently changes one's core values.

1. Significant Emotional Event (SEE)

- a. A SEE is a catalyst for changing behavior. It's a moment when everything falls into place and one is able to understand an entire pattern of behavior. It's emotionally charged. Sometimes this is quick, but other times we need time to reflect before changing our values and attitudes. (Massey, 2007)

b. *Morris Massey* cites examples of an SEE as:

- 1) Birth
- 2) Death
- 3) Divorce
- 4) Promotion
- 5) Terminal illness
- 6) Falling in or out of love
- 7) Life-saving event
- 8) Going to war

After experiencing a SEE, we may become re-socialized and changed because of a new learning (increased awareness).

c. Re-socialization

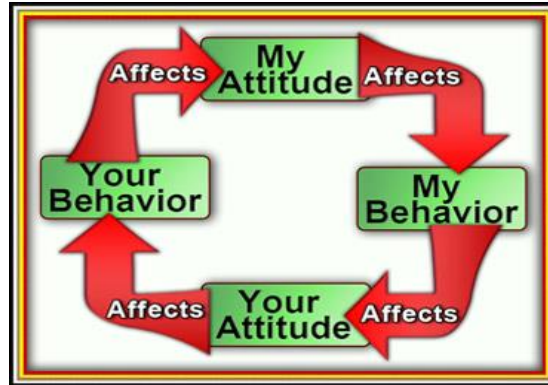
- 1) Re-socialization is the process in which existing social roles are radically altered or replaced. Roles, such as spouse, parent, widow, prison inmate, and employee, for example, all involve a kind of re-socialization.
- 2) Erving Goffman defined re-socialization as a process of tearing down and rebuilding an individual's role and socially constructed sense of self.
- 3) Re-socialization is related to socialization, in which a person learns the ways of his or her society, but the re-socialization process denotes the activity of relearning. The person needs to eliminate something that was previously learned in his life that is now causing dissonance or pain. Two conditions must be met in order to achieve re-socialization:
 - a) the person must feel that something is wrong, and
 - b) that it is possible for change to occur (Fein, 1990).

E. Strategies for Change

As noted thus far, our socialization defines who we are and is ever-changing. There may be aspects of our socialization that may not conform to societal norms (especially the duties of an EOA) and may require an adjustment in behavior.

1. Strategies for changing inappropriate socialized behavior start with recognizing the need for change. Being aware of our socialization will help us in deciding whether to accept or deny our current values, attitudes, and behavior.
2. Acknowledge inappropriate socialized behavior. Reflect on any learned prejudicial information about other people. Without this acknowledgment nothing can change. It is clear that if we can't talk about it, we surely can't change it.
3. Some specific strategies (Allport, 1979; Combs, 1971; Egan, 1977; & Gazda, 1973) may include:
 - a. Spend time in self-reflection.
 - 1) Perform an honest assessment of yourself.
 - 2) Become familiar with behaviors that might be considered defensive, dishonest, or closed-minded.
 - 3) Explore the attitudes that create these behaviors.
 - b. Become open to feedback.
 - 1) Talk to others about your recognized inferior socialized behavior. Another person or other people can help us with our changed behavior. Others can help us gain new information and hold us to our insights and our commitments.
 - 2) Use feedback to put things into perspective.
 - c. Make a commitment to change and make a commitment to a process of change.
 - 1) Accept new information.
 - 2) Listen empathetically to others.
 - d. Explore different perspectives, other than your own.
 - 1) Get information to disprove irrational thoughts, dysfunctional (inferior) behavior.
 - 2) Take the time to examine and challenge the thoughts that limit or devalue other people.

- 3) If you have a problem with someone, see if you can discover why it is a problem for you.
 - 4) Involve yourself in new situations.
 - 5) Learn how to advocate something that is not comfortable to your value system.
- e. Increase your exposure to or contact with those who belong to the group(s) toward which you have learned inappropriate social behavior, such as racism, sexism and other discriminatory practices.
 - f. Develop your communication skills (Listening and Feedback).
 - 1) Listen with intent to understand the point of view of others.
 - 2) Offer constructive and positive feedback.
4. Setting Goals for Change
- a. As an EOA, you will encounter situations resulting from conflicts in attitudes and values. By understanding how the socialization process impacts one's values and attitudes, you will have insight as to how these situations occur and how to reach a fair and equitable solution.
 - 1) Goal setting: Goals should be realistic. As you see your goals accomplished, you will be motivated to change.
 - 2) Become self-motivated (and help others to do the same).
 - 3) When you are motivated or persuaded to change behavior, you are more likely to eventually change your attitude. By contrast, when forced to change your behavior, your attitude is less likely to change.
 - b. **Final Note:** As an EOA, understand the cyclical relationship between attitude and behavior.



- 1) My attitude affects my behavior; my behavior affects your attitude.
- 2) Your attitude affects your behavior; your behavior affects my attitude, and so on.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the socialization process.
- B. Recall the fundamental elements associated with self-concept.
- C. Recognize ego defense mechanisms.
- D. Identify significant emotional events (SEE).
- E. Identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior.

END OF LESSON

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366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1100
PERCEPTIONS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

The perceptions process is the gathering of information in an effort to make sense of one's surroundings. This lesson discusses the perceptions process with recognition of the influence one's own biases and stereotypes have on the accuracy of perceptions. In exploring a systematic view of how individuals can gather the same information (raw data) and draw different conclusions (perceptions), students are better able to explore self, and more accurately identify their own biases, motives, and stereotypes. Commands are reliant on equal opportunity (EO) staff members to assess their organizations' climate with an accuracy unencumbered by personal biases, motives, and stereotypes.

Strategy

This lesson will outline elements in the perception process. At the end of the lesson students will have the skills to define the terms associated with the perception process. Additionally, students will become more aware of their own stereotypes, the source of these stereotypes, and how they affect unit readiness and mission accomplishment.

Required Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 1100 Perceptions
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, students will know how perceptions impact unit readiness and mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define stereotypes.	K	CRT
B. Describe the characteristics of stereotypes.	K	CRT
C. State the elements of the perceptions process.	K	CRT
D. Identify how perception shortcuts can impact your organization.	K	CRT
E. Describe the biological perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.	K	CRT
F. Describe the sociological/cultural perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.	K	CRT
G. State ways to apply a strategy to correct inaccurate perception.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
First Thoughts	To examine the stereotypes of the groups of people with whom they interact.	ISDE

PERCEPTIONS

A. Stereotypes

Definition of Stereotype: “A widely held but fixed and oversimplified image or idea of a particular type of person or thing” (Oxford Dictionary Online).

B. Characteristics of Stereotypes

1. Allows justification or rationalization of behavior, self-deception, acceptance/rejection of groups, and to selectively maintain our perception and thinking about a group (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002).
2. Stereotypes have been said to be factually incorrect, illogical, and they are irrationally resistant to new information about the stereotyped group.
3. They are fixed, rigid ideas. The charge that stereotypes are fixed, rigid ideas means that people’s perceptions of groups are difficult to change once they form that perception.
4. They are either overgeneralizations or oversimplifications. Stereotypes are said to be exaggerations of real group differences, either through overgeneralizations or oversimplifications.
5. They are not supported by reasonable evidence. It is often suggested that stereotypes are based on illogical or irrational foundations because they are not supported by reasonable evidence.
6. They are driven by motives such as fear, rationalization, and prejudice.
7. They have an adverse impact on our behavior regardless of whether the implications are positive or negative.

a. Stereotypes (Good or Bad)

1. Is it bad to have a stereotype?

- a) Generally speaking, a stereotype is just an empirical generalization. After all, we lean on stereotypes in a multitude of ways every day to influence our behavior. Whether you know it or not, you use them regularly to make calculated assumptions about the people you interact with every day. You use stereotypes to help gauge what you should say and how you should say it and you rely on them frequently to help you connect with people you don’t personally know.
- b) Stereotypes are bad if they lead to a basis of discrimination.

2. Is it OK to have a stereotype?

As long as such generalizing is done for the purpose of communicating better, there is nothing wrong with it. The truth is that some stereotypes can be useful indicators of human behavior, and, if used by responsible adults in an appropriate and respectful way, they can also be a force for good—especially good communication.

However, if a stereotype is established on false logic or information, then used to discriminate (based on physical appearances, etc.) then the stereotype creates behaviors incompatible with a military organization.

C. Elements of the Perception Process

Three Elements of Perception Process:

1. Raw data is seeing an image, hearing a sound, inhaling a smell, tasting food, touching an object or person, or being involved in a situation (Jones & Gerard, 1967)
2. The mental process is unseen and is affected by motives and driven by personal bias; catalogues experiences derived from culture, socialization, and experiences; begins upon encountering raw data; and is capable of being misinterpreted (Jones & Gerard, 1967)
3. Product: The perception, sensing, or interpretation of experiences. It is a shortcut to understanding people, situations, and the world around us (Jones & Gerard, 1967).

D. Perceptual Shortcuts

1. First and subsequent impressions are
 - a. Formed at first meeting.
 - b. Tend to go beyond the visible data and make further inferences.
 - c. Carry first impression forward into subsequent interactions.
 - d. Further information about person is modified according to first impression.
 - e. New and even contradictory information may end up being modified to validate the first impression.
2. Viewing people as constant:
 - a. Directly related to first impressions;

- b. Involves a belief that people will not, or cannot, change their behavior; and
 - c. With this assumption, time is not taken to get to better know people each time you meet them.
3. The concept of blaming the victim (Ryan, 1976):
- a. Sees people as the origin of action rather than seeing the contribution of circumstances to the situation.
 - b. Actions save time in sizing up a situation, ignoring factors considered insignificant or unimportant.
 - c. With an institution, people will blame the victim rather than attempt to resolve the issue.
4. Halo effect:
- a. Tendency to extend a favorable or unfavorable impression to unrelated aspects of individual's personality (Oxford dictionary)
 - b. When knowing something good about a person, perception is they have other good characteristics
 - c. When knowing something unfavorable about someone, we see other unfavorable characteristics about person. Impressions may be accurate or distorted about that individual.
 - d. Ineffective management of one's own perceptual shortcuts can lead to inaccurate expectations, impressions, poor choices in the work environment, unfair treatment, discrimination, etc., which in turn can greatly impact the success of our mission, the ability to be ready in a moment's notice, and the overall morale of an individual, unit, and organization. (Rosenzweig, 2007)

E. Biological Perceptual Filters

1. Perceptions differ between individuals due to personal biological, sociological, and cultural differences. These filters create products that affect the accuracy of our perceptions (Jones & Gerard, 1967).
2. Biological Filters: Personal biological factors affect the perception process through our senses, which help us organize and make sense of the enormous amount of information we are bombarded with on a daily basis. Our perceptual senses stem from our physiology (Halonen, 1996).

- a. Sight: Seeing a person will trigger the perception process. Judgments are made based on how the individual, group, or situation appears based on numerous criteria such as race, gender, age, appearance, height, weight, walk, dress, glasses, amount or type of hair, where we live, and etc.
- b. Touch: It is more involved than visual; involves direct experience providing immediate information; and gives both information about environment and allows communication with others
- c. Taste: People have different tastes; taste in food may be derived from our culture, family, and other experiences. Perceptions about other individuals can be based on whether we have similar likes in food and beverages
- d. Hearing: The perception process can be triggered by sound and hearing even if we cannot see or touch a person.
- e. Smell: The sense of smell can also trigger the perception process. Assumptions are made based on how people smell. We make assumptions based on how a person's car or house smells.

F. Sociological/Cultural Perceptual Filters

Sociological or cultural filters affect the perception process because they are the sum total of the learned behaviors of a group of people. These behaviors are generally considered to be traditions of that group and are transmitted from generation to generation. (Jackson & Hogg, 2010)

Cultural and language barriers can also impede clear communications. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking, seeing, hearing, and interpreting the world due to cultural values. The same words can mean different things to people from different cultures, even when they speak the same language.

G. Strategies to Correct Inaccurate Perceptions

1. Be aware of stereotyping.

Although stereotypes tend to make the social world more manageable, performance failures cannot always be attributed to ability or incompetence. The root of the problem may lie in stereotypes or preconceptions that others hold about groups to which they belong. (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, (2002)

2. Understanding the dynamics and processes that support stereotypes.
 - a. Listen actively for understanding and the speaker's meaning

- b. Paraphrase back to the speaker the message received
 - c. Listen with the same intensity to everyone. Don't think about what you will say next
 - d. Ask questions to clarify inaccuracies or vague statements. (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002)
3. Identify the appropriate application of facts, opinions, and assumptions:
- a. Avoid distorting the facts, opinions, and assumptions to meet your needs.
 - b. Identify personal barriers (such as biases, motives, prejudices, and stereotypes).
 - c. Avoid stereotyping by distinguishing facts from overgeneralizations or oversimplifications.
 - d. Recognize that thinking in terms of categories is normal human functioning.
 - e. Recognize that people consciously and unconsciously hold stereotypes as a result of social conditioning.
4. Interact with groups different from your own or at levels above and below yours.
- a. Your level—not just your close circle of coworkers and contacts, but others as well. Make contacts in the chain of command.
 - b. Levels above— make and maintain contact at echelons above you. For example, ask and attend staff meetings, social events, etc.
 - c. Level below—a simple method of contact at levels below your own is to use a concept called management by walking around or MBWA.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define stereotypes.
- B. Describe the characteristics of stereotypes.
- C. State the elements of the perceptions process.
- D. Identify how the perception shortcuts can impact your organization.
- E. Describe biological perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.
- F. Describe sociological/cultural perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.
- G. State ways to apply a strategy to correct inaccurate perceptions.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1150

COMMUNICATION SKILLS



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to educate students on the effective use and development of communication skills. The lesson discusses both verbal and non-verbal modes of communication. It covers the five elements of the communication process, factors that impact communication, and information for effective communication. Additionally, students will be able to explain methods for improving their listening skills, including testing for understanding and identifying characteristics of effective listeners. Students will also examine the definition of feedback and discuss the guidelines for giving and receiving feedback. Students will be able to explain each pane of the Johari window model, how it changes, and why it changes. Completion of this lesson will enhance the students' communication skills for subsequent lessons and the small group environment, thus helping prepare them for their future roles as Equal Opportunity Advisors.

Recommended Reading

1. *Listening Effectively* by John A Kline
2. The Johari Window

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 1150 Communication Skills
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, reading assignments, group exercise, and a study guide know how the communication process can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define communication.	K	CRT
B. Identify the elements of the communication process.	K	CRT
C. Describe the modes of communication and their respective elements.	K	CRT
D. Describe the types of human communication.	K	CRT
E. State barriers to communication.	K	CRT
F. Identify the elements in the listening process.	K	CRT
G. Identify benefits in effective listening.	K	CRT
H. Identify the types of listening.	K	CRT
I. Identify methods of becoming a better listener.	K	CRT
J. Define the term feedback.	K	CRT
K. State guidelines for giving and receiving feedback.	K	CRT
L. Recall the panes of the Johari window model.	K	CRT
M. Identify behaviors/actions that caused the panes to move or change size.	K	CRT
N. Identify the benefits of giving and receiving feedback.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Leveling	To develop skills in the giving/receiving feedback process	ISDE

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

A. Communication

Communication is the act or process of using words, sounds, signs, or behaviors to express or exchange information or to express your ideas, thoughts, and feelings to someone else.

B. Elements of the Communication Process

1. The communication process has five elements:

- a. Communicators (sends and receives)
- b. Messages (an object of communication)
- c. Channels (Conduit for delivering messages)
- d. Environment (physical location, personal experiences, and cultural background)
- e. Feedback

2. Communication Roles

Communication is a two-way process. Each communicator has a role in this process. It is the responsibility of the communicator to provide a message that will be:

- a. Attended to: Relating the message to the receiving communicator's personal goals or providing a vivid or surprising message element that attracts attention.
- b. Understood: Adapting messages to the learning level of the receiving communicator, providing opportunities for feedback, and adding value to the message content ensures that the message will be easy comprehend.

C. Modes of Communication and their Respective Elements

1. Verbal Communication is the words of your message.

- a. Written communication
- b. Oral communication

2. Non-Verbal Communication. It is important to study because where verbal and nonverbal message conflict, nonverbal messages are relied upon more. Nonverbal messages can have

different meanings for different people. Nonverbal messages cannot be avoided— even if we do nothing, we communicate.

Body language is one of the most powerful ways to communicate nonverbally.

- a. Touching is perhaps the most powerful nonverbal communication. Anger, interest, trust, tenderness, warmth, and a variety of other emotions can be communicated through touching.
- b. Eye contact and facial expressions can convey important emotional and social information.
- c. Smiling is a powerful cue that transmits happiness, friendliness, warmth, and liking. So, if you smile frequently you will be perceived as more likeable, friendly, warm, and approachable.
- d. Physical Space
 - 1) Intimate – Ranges out to about 18 inches. It is usually used with people who are emotionally the closest to us and then mostly in private situations, caressing, comforting, and protecting.
 - 2) Personal – Ranges from 18 inches at its closest point to 4 feet at its farthest. At this distance we can keep someone at arm's length. It is much less personable.
 - 3) Social – Ranges from 5 to 10 feet. The most neutral and comfortable zone to start a conversation between people who do not know each other well.
 - 4) Public – Ranges approximately 12 feet. This zone is reserved for public speaking or general speaking as in when talking to a large group.

D. Types of Human Communication

1. Intrapersonal communication is a conversation you have with yourself. The individual becomes his or her own sender and receiver, providing messages and feedback in an ongoing internal process. It can come in many forms such as:
 - a. Daydreaming
 - b. Dreaming in your sleep
 - c. Talking to oneself either internally or out loud
 - d. Reading aloud

- e. Repeating what one hears
2. Interpersonal communication is between you and at least one other person. The most common type of interpersonal communication is between two people. The communication can be:
 - a. Face-to-face
 - b. By telephone
 - c. Through written correspondence (e.g., emails or letters)
 - d. Interpersonal communication can also include small groups of three or more people. Small group communication is usually to share information, generate ideas, solve problems, or to help. Small groups can include:
 - 1) Family
 - 2) Friends
 - 3) Social or work gathering
 - e. Within large groups, the communication, while still interpersonal, is more often one-way with a speaker providing instruction or direction. Because of the number of participants, it is difficult for everyone to be actively involved in the communication. Large group communication can also involve mass communication or message transmitted to large, widespread audiences through print or electronic media.

E. Barriers to Communication

1. Physical barriers are environmental factors that can create conditions that adversely impact communication. These barriers can include:
 - a. Environmental – Bright lights, unusual sights, or any other stimulus that provides a potential distraction.
 - b. Noise – The noise of battle, equipment, or other people in close proximity can impede clear communication.
 - c. Objects – Closed office doors, large desks, or screens that obstruct view can be barriers to communication.
 - d. Distance – It is difficult to talk to others when you are too far away to hear them properly or they are too close for comfort.

- e. Temperature – An environment that is too hot or too cold can block communication by changing your focus to your physical level of comfort instead of the message.
 - f. Physical Health – If someone is hard of hearing or is not feeling well, they may have difficulty hearing or concentrating on the conversation.
2. Perceptual barriers are factors contained within the message from the sender or receiver that can cause distortion of the communication. These factors can include:
 - a. Past experience – Depending on whether your past experience was positive or negative with the sender, receiver, or message, will influence how you communicate with the individual.
 - b. Hidden agendas – Sometimes the speaker may state one intention for the communication and may have a second, hidden purpose for the communication.
 - c. Stereotypes – Over generalizations, not supported by facts, that cause us to have fixed, rigid ideas about something
 3. Emotional barriers are one of the chief barriers to open communication. Some of our feelings can include:
 - a. Anger – One person may be offended or in complete disagreement with the message.
 - b. Fear – One person may be afraid of the other person, afraid of the outcome of the message, or afraid of appearing at a disadvantage in front of others.
 - c. Surprise – One person may be astonished at a message that deflects attention into another area and the rest of the communication is unheard.
 4. Cultural and language barriers can also impede clear communication. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking, seeing, hearing, and interpreting the world due to cultural values. The same words can mean different things to people from different cultures, even when they speak the same language.

F. Elements in the Listening Process

1. Receiving – The physical act of hearing.
2. Attending – Giving attention to what was heard.
3. Understanding – Learning what the speaker means.
4. Responding – This lets the sender know that the message was received, attended to, and understood.

5. Remembering – It is being able to recall or retain for later use.

G. Benefits of Effective Listening

1. Improves communications
2. Control of the situation
3. Minimizes conflict
4. Shows that you care
5. Enhances understanding
6. Improves memory

H. Identify Types of Listening

1. Active listening – A process in which the listener makes conscious effort to listen for complete message
2. Inactive listening – Hearing only the words. The definition of this is the old adage, “In one ear and out the other.”
3. Selective listening – Filtering the message, hearing only what you want to hear.

I. Methods of Becoming a Better Listener

1. Have a reason or purpose for listening.
2. Suspend judgment.
3. Resist distractions (overcoming deterrents). Identify distractions such as noises, views, and other people, and focus on the speaker.
4. Wait before responding. It is important to take the time to think about what has been said.
5. Seek important themes.
6. Respond to comments.
7. Avoid response blocks that obstruct effective listening.

- a. Evaluation – How it was said (e.g., good, bad).
- b. Unsolicited advice giving.
- c. Diagnosing/analyzing – Why it was said (i.e., motive, cause).
- d. Topping – Do not mentally try to one-up.

J. Definition of the Term Feedback

Feedback refers to a response from the receiver which gives the communicator an idea of how the message is being received and whether it needs to be modified.

Types of Feedback:

1. Evaluative feedback – When an individual assumes that he/she can distinguish between right and wrong, or good and bad.
2. Non-evaluative feedback – When you address and observable behavior.

K. Guidelines for Giving and Receiving Feedback

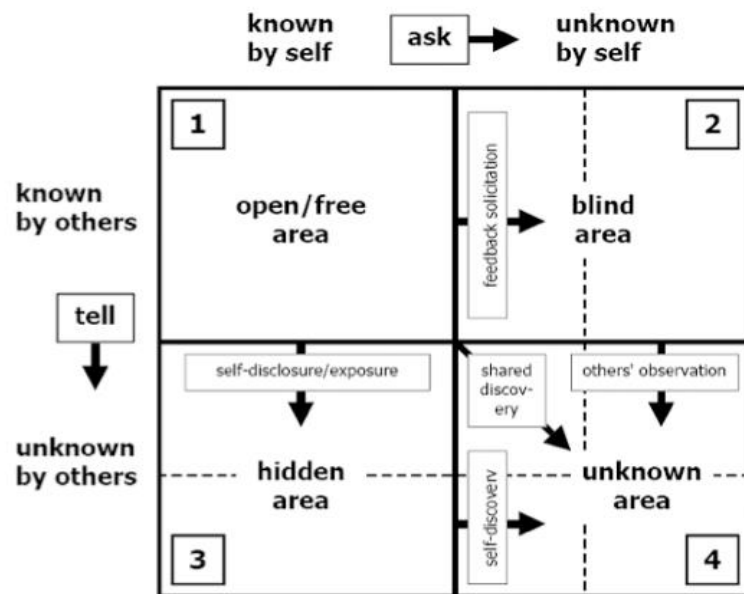
1. Giving Feedback

- a. Ensure feedback describes (non-evaluative) rather than judges (evaluative).
- b. Ensure feedback is specific rather than general.
- c. Ensure feedback takes in account the needs of both, the receiver and the sender of the feedback.
- d. Ensure feedback is analyzed to ensure clear communication.
- e. Ensure feedback is solicited rather than imposed.
- f. Ensure feedback is directed at a person's behavior, not at the person.
- g. Ensure feedback is directed at behavior the receiver can control.
- h. Ensure feedback is well-timed.
- i. Ensure feedback is planned.

2. Receiving Feedback

- a. Establish a receptive atmosphere.
- b. State what you want feedback about.
- c. Check what you have heard.
- d. Maintain an objective attitude about the feedback even though it is about you.
- e. Share your reactions to the feedback, if practical.

L. Panes Of The Johari Window Model



1. Open/free area – Contains “Things I know about myself and others know.”
2. Blind spot – Contains “Things I don’t know about myself, but the group knows.”
3. Hidden area – Contains “Things I know about myself, but the group does not know.”
4. Unknown – Contains “Things that neither the group nor I know about myself.”

M. Behaviors/Actions that Cause the Panes to Move/Change Size

1. Behavior/action that causes the arena to move/change size:

- a. Giving and soliciting feedback
 - b. Self-disclosure
2. Behavior/action that causes the blind spot to move/change size:
 - a. Soliciting feedback
 - b. Being receptive to feedback
 3. Behavior/action that causes the facade to move/change size:
 - a. Giving feedback
 - b. Self-disclosure
 4. Behavior/action that causes the unknown to move/change size:
 - a. Availing yourself of and being receptive to sharing experiences of others
 - b. Learning vicariously

N. Benefits of Giving and Receiving Feedback

1. Exchange information
2. Achieve personal growth
3. Provider finds out about self
4. Receiver gains insight
5. Creates an open environment for effective operational and interpersonal communications
6. Aids in preparation for the future; not dwelling on the past

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define communication.
- B. Identify the elements of the communication process.
- C. Describe the modes of communication and their respective elements
- D. Describe the types of human communication.
- E. State barriers to communication.
- F. Identify the elements in the listening process.
- G. Identify the benefits of effective listening.
- H. Identify types of listening.
- I. Identify methods of becoming a better listener.
- J. Define the term feedback.
- K. State guidelines for giving and receiving feedback.
- L. Recall the panes of the Johari window model.
- M. Identify behaviors/actions that cause the panes to move/change size.
- N. Identify the benefits of giving and receiving feedback.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1300

COMMUNICATING ACROSS DIFFERENCES



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will provide information that will familiarize how people differ and communicate in many ways. Some of the most profound differences are based on cultural background, gender, and age. These differences affect the way we communicate with each other. Knowledge of cultural customs, communication style differences, and socialization can help avoid misunderstandings and enable better communications.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Star Power activity

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation—EOA 1300 Communicating Across Differences
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, students will know how communicating across differences (cross-cultural communication) can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify factors that impact communication across differences.	K	CRT
B. Identify factors that impact cross-cultural communication.	K	CRT
C. Identify factors that impact cross-gender communication.	K	CRT
D. Identify factor that impact cross-generational communication.	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies to improve communication across differences.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

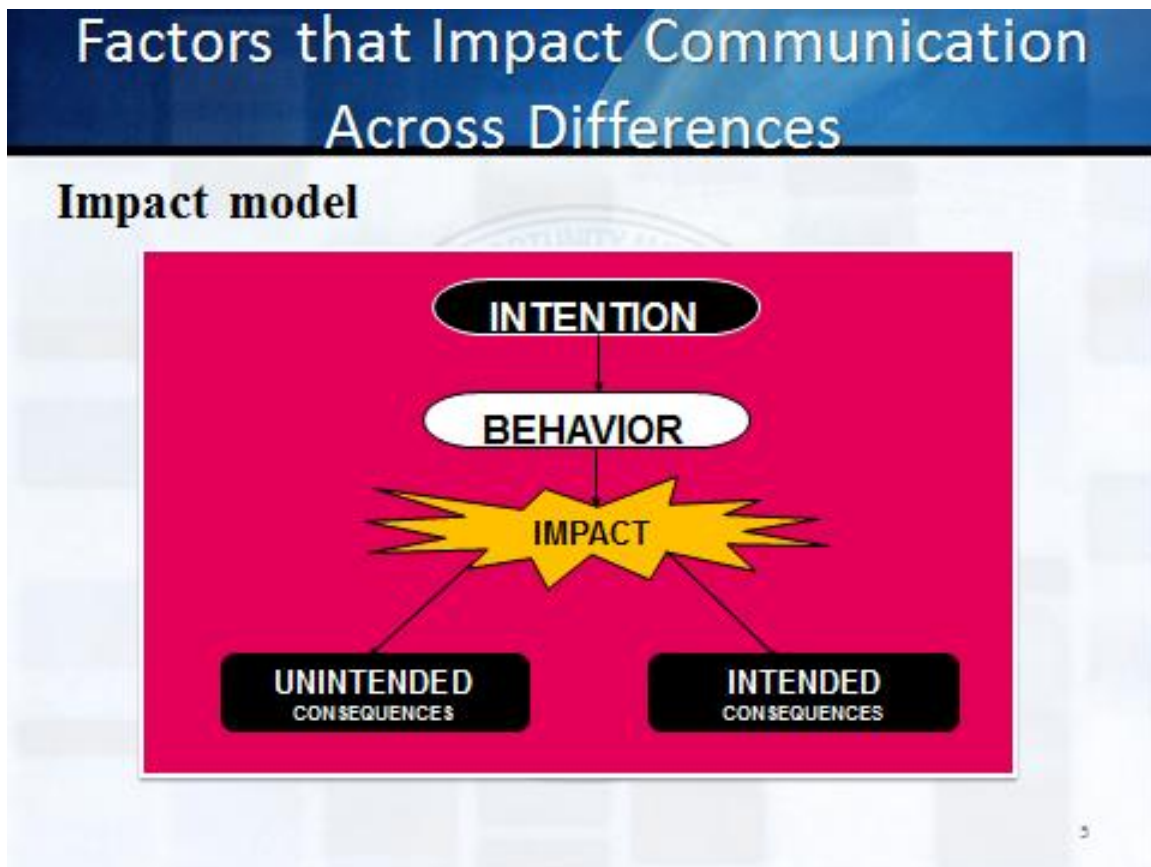
Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Talking 9 to 5	To increase awareness of gender communication and the impact it has on all personnel within the organization.	ISDE

COMMUNICATING ACROSS DIFFERENCES

A. Factors That Impact Communication Across Differences

1. Slang language usage
2. World views
3. Religion
4. Cultural background
5. Stereotypes
6. Race
7. Gender
8. Generational differences

Impact Model



The Regents of the University of California

- a. Intention versus Behavior – When we do or say something there is *always* an impact. The impact model illustrates the unpredictability of behavior when a message is received by your listener.
- b. Impact versus Intent – Occurs when the impact of the communication is negative.

- c. Rather than focusing on our intent, we should focus on the action and acknowledge the unintended negative impact on a person.

B. Factors That Impact Cross-Cultural Communication

Definition

Cross-cultural communication is a process of exchanging, negotiating, and mediating one's cultural differences through language, non-verbal gestures, and space relationships. It is also the process by which people express their openness to a cross-cultural experience.

1. Stereotype versus Generalization

- a. These two concepts appear similar, but they function differently. A stereotype is an ending point, and no effort is made to ascertain whether it is appropriate or correct; whereas a generalization serves as a starting point to learn more.

Stereotype versus Generalization Example

If you meet an Asian man named Jin and assume that he is very serious and formal, you are _____ him.

But if you say to yourself: "Asians tend to be a little more serious and formal; I wonder if Jin is." You have just made a _____.

- b. Culture is concerned with beliefs and values on the basis of which people interpret experiences and behave, individually and in groups.
- c. Culture is often at the root of communication challenges. Becoming more aware of cultural differences and similarities can help you communicate with others more effectively.
- d. Culture is central to what we see, how we make sense of what we see, and how we express ourselves. It is impossible to study the characteristics and nuances of every culture in existence today.

2. Cross-Cultural Differences

Are based on unique perspectives, practices, and products

- a. Perspectives – The beliefs, thought processes, values, and worldviews (our ideas about how the world works) that encompass the philosophies of a culture.

- b. Practices – Behavioral practices include social norms, approaches to communication and conflict, orientation to hierarchy, power, class, status, and gender roles, and etc., that constitute the norms of a culture.
 - c. Products – These are tangibles such as food, clothing, books, and tools, and intangibles such as songs, parables, rituals, language, and laws that comprise the artifacts of a culture.
3. Cultural Tendencies

American cultural tendencies vary, depending on race and ethnic identification.

- a. Identity orientation
- b. Direct/indirect communication preference
- c. Eye contact
- d. Gestures
- e. Emotion
- f. Speaking, turns, and pauses

C. Factors That Impact Cross-Gender Communication

Definition of Gender/Sex:

“Gender includes the social construction of masculinity and femininity within a culture and incorporates his or her biological, psychological, and sociological characteristics.

Sex refers to a person's biological or physical self. Although sex determines who will bear children, gender accounts for our roles in life and how these life roles affect our communication.”

1. Childhood Gender Communication

- a. Gender communication differences begin during childhood. From a very early age, males and females are taught different linguistic styles. Communication behaviors that are acceptable for girls may not be acceptable for boys and vice versa.
 - 1) Girls are told to use their manners, play quietly, and be ladylike. However it is okay for boys to use rough language, play loudly, and be rambunctious. Girls are allowed to show feelings.

- 2) Girls develop a relational style of interaction whereas boys develop a competitive style of interaction.
 - b. The greatest amount of influence on how we communicate with the opposite sex is through gender roles. People perceive things differently because they experience life differently.
2. Brain Wiring and Gender
 - a. Male and female brains process information differently.
 - b. Neither gender is right or better, just wired different.
3. Gender Tendencies
 - a. In general, men focus on statistics and relate by sharing stories to “one-up” each other.
 - b. In general, women tend to share experiences to show commonality and build off each other’s discussion points.
 - c. Stereotypically, women will communicate by using a passive/assertive style in an effort to achieve rapport, connection, relationships, and equality of status, support, inclusiveness, responsiveness, and self-disclosure. On the other hand, stereotypically men communicate by using an assertive/aggressive style in efforts to accomplish tasks, achieve status, and dominate the conversation.
 - d. Whether it is nature or nurture some individuals do not have any of the traits attributed to their gender. They may have been teased, harassed, or excluded because of this, which is why it is important to understand male and female cultural norms, but also recognize that some people don't fit the mold.

D. Factors that Impact Cross-Generational Communication

1. Generational Types and Characteristics
 - a. Types
 - 1) Traditionalists (born 1922–1943)
 - 2) Baby Boomers (born 1943–1960)
 - 3) Generation X (born 1960–1980)
 - 4) Millennials (born 1980–2000)

b. Characteristics

- 1) The timeline represents a combination of many views; this, the starting and ending dates (birth years) of the generations are subjective, not scientific, or fully agreed-upon time spans.
- 2) Subjectivity poses no real problem since the variation of years is not significant enough to impact the big picture of a generation's description.
- 3) Consider other people's underlying values, personal and lifestyle characteristics. Identify individual behaviors, and match characteristics to specific generation type.
- 4) It is important to understand that not every person in a generation will share all of the characteristics shown in this table with others in the same generation. However, these examples are indicative of general patterns. Individuals born at one end of the date range or the other may see overlapping characteristics with the preceding or succeeding generation.

2. Communication Styles, Preferences, and Obstacles

- a. Traditionalists – Administrative, policy-oriented, letter of the law. They are masters of the expert opinion and think tanks.
- b. Boomers – Megaphone. Brilliant message crafters. Good creators of content that aligns to purpose and values with appeal to higher purpose and meaning. They are masters of radio and TV delivery.
- c. Xers – Independent. Not connected to an organization; focused on micro-subjects and personal expression of style work. They are masters of the Internet, blogging, and publishing resources.
- d. Millennials – Upbeat, rally together, focused on the activity and approval of their peers. They are masters of mobile and hand-held devices.

3. Feedback Styles

- a. Traditionalists – Traditionalists seek no applause, but appreciate a subtle acknowledgement that they have made a difference. No news is good news.
- b. Boomers – Boomers are often giving feedback to others, but seldom receiving, especially positive feedback. Feedback once a year and lots of documentation.
- c. Xers – Xers need positive feedback to let them know they're on the right track. Sorry to interrupt, but how am I doing?

- d. Millennials – Millennials are used to praise and may mistake silence for disapproval. They need to know what they're doing right and what they're doing wrong. Feedback whenever I want it at the push of a button.

4. Generational Interaction

Feedback styles that may appear informative and helpful to one generation might seem formal and preachy to another. Feedback that the generation Xer thinks is immediate and honest can seem hasty or even inappropriate to other generations. Some older generations have been told that there is a time and place for feedback. Younger generations haven't necessarily been taught this rule.

E. Strategies to Improve Communication Across Differences

1. Negative Impacts

- a. Turnover rates
- b. Recruitment, hiring, training, and retention
- c. Morale and teamwork
- d. Perceptions of fairness and equity
- e. Grievances and complaints

2. General Guidelines

- a. Learn from generalizations about others, but don't use those generalizations to stereotype, oversimplify, or categorize.
- b. Don't assume that there is only one right way (*your* way) to communicate.
- c. Don't assume that breakdowns in communication occur because others are wrong and unyielding.
- d. Listen actively and empathetically.
- e. Stop, suspend judgment, and attempt to look at the situation as an outsider.
- f. Be aware of power imbalances.

3. Strategies for Success

- a. Listening

- b. Speaking
- c. Observation
- d. Patience
- e. Flexibility

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify factors that impact communication.
- B. Identify factors that impact cross-cultural communication.
- C. Identify factors that impact cross-gender communication.
- D. Identify factors that impact cross-generational communication.
- E. Identify strategies to improve communication across differences.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1350

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will help students recognize the manifestations of conflict and the types of conflict seen in the workplace. The lesson will also identify strategies for coping with conflict, and familiarize students with the systematic process associated with conflict management. Finally, the lesson will identify the components of the problem solving process to show how conflict can impact mission effectiveness.

Recommended Reading

32 CFR Part 83 *Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR) and Conflict Management*. Retrieved from <https://www.federalregister.gov/articles/2011/04/25/2011-9750/alternative-dispute-resolution-adr-and-conflict-management>

References

1. 32 CFR Part 83 *Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR) and Conflict Management*. Retrieved from <https://www.federalregister.gov/articles/2011/04/25/2011-9750/alternative-dispute-resolution-adr-and-conflict-management>
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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 1350 Conflict Management
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, know how conflict management can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recognize the manifestations of conflict.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the types of conflict and associated characteristics.	K	CRT
C. Identify strategies used to cope with conflict.	K	CRT
D. Identify the benefits of coping with conflict.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the systematic process associated with conflict management.	K	CRT
F. Identify components of the problem-solving process.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

A. Manifestation of Conflict

1. Primary Causes of Conflict

- a. Conflict is generally based upon three assumptions:
 - 1) Disagreement is inevitable
 - 2) Conflict cannot be avoided since interdependence between groups is necessary
 - 3) Agreement and maintaining interdependence is possible
- b. Conflict can manifest in many ways.
 - 1) When wants or needs differ.
 - 2) When individuals' values differ.
 - 3) Differing degrees of knowledge expectations.
 - 4) Differences in race, gender, ethnicity, religion, and age.
 - 5) Assumptions/perceptions.

2. Why Conflict is Destructive

- a. Diverts energy from more important activities and issues
- b. Destroys morale
- c. Polarizes groups so that internal cohesiveness is decreased
- d. Deepens differences in values
- e. Produces irresponsible and regrettable behavior

3. Reasons Why Conflict is Constructive

- a. Opens up issues of importance
- b. Increases the involvement of individuals
- c. Causes authentic communication to occur

- d. Results in the solution of problems
- e. Serves as a release to pent-up emotion, anxiety, and stress
- f. Helps build cohesiveness among people
- g. Helps individuals grow personally

B. Types of Conflict and Associated Characteristics

1. Characteristics of Intrapersonal Conflict

Definition: A conflict that occurs solely in the psychological dynamics of the person's own mind (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

- a. Takes place inside an individual
- b. Individual has built-in resentment
- c. Individual has conflicting internal needs, values, and attitudes
- d. Individual is not in internal harmony, but may be internally disagreeable and, therefore, is unacceptable to him or herself (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006)

2. Interpersonal Conflict

Definition: Interpersonal conflict is a disagreement between two individuals or subgroups of an organization involving significant resentment and discontent (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

It is a situation in which an individual or group frustrates, or tries to frustrate, the goal attainment efforts of the other.

3. Characteristics of Interpersonal Conflict

- a. Conflict which takes place between two or more parties
- b. Each has mutually exclusive goals or values
- c. Each tries to overpower the other
- d. Parties attack each other instead of the problem

4. Intragroup Conflict

Definition: Intragroup conflict is conflict that occurs between members of a group that shares common goals, interests, or other identifying characteristics (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

- a. By definition, intragroup conflict can be small-scale, such as within a workplace or large-scale, such as between members of a specific population group.
- b. Intragroup conflict can occur within an institution or community; "intragroup squabbling within the corporation" Disagreements and misconceptions might occur between team members, which create conflict.

5. Characteristics of Intragroup Conflict

- a. Takes place within a group
- b. Parties within the group behave as to defeat each other
- c. Manifest behavior (i.e., the resulting actions are aggressive, competitive, and argumentative)
- d. Conflict of interest (i.e., goals, values, beliefs, attitudes)
- e. Feelings (i.e., hostility, fear, mistrust, threat, defensiveness)

6. Intergroup Conflict

- a. According to social psychologists, intergroup conflict is defined as: "An incompatibility of goals, beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors between groups."
- b. Intergroup conflict can take many forms, ranging from a disagreement with the neighbors to a full-out war between countries. Though consequences vary, the cause of intergroup conflict usually stems from a few. Inter-group conflict applies to disagreements or misconceptions between work groups, such as between two project teams.

7. Characteristics of Intergroup Conflict

- a. Takes place between two or more groups
- b. Available resources are perceived as inadequate for all
- c. Each group tries to overpower the other
- d. Each group has mutually exclusive goals or values

- e. Perceptions are inaccurate or illogical

C. Strategies Used to Cope with Conflict

1. Coping with Conflict

- a. To cope with conflict, we must realize that disagreements happen every day. Conflict can arise from these disagreements and have adverse effects on us all. Whether at home, work, or in a social setting, we all have different opinions, values, goals, and concerns. Some conflicts are minor and others can become major. Usually conflicts are not resolved until we deal with them. Managing conflict require skillful techniques. These techniques are also helpful when dealing with disagreements, the start of conflicts.
- b. In coping with the conflict, someone involved in the conflict must decide to overcome the emotions and get down to the root of the problem. This is to say take a lead and try to manage the situation instead of letting the situation manage the people. Leaders must learn how to cope with conflict to be healthier, happier, and more effective in groups.

2. Strategies to Coping with Conflict

- a. Avoidance-----Lose/Lose

Withdraw from or deny there is a problem.
- b. Accommodating-----Lose/Win

Differences are played down; surface harmony exists.
- c. Competing-----Win/Lose

One’s authority, position, majority rule, or a persuasive minority settles the conflict.
- d. Compromise-----Draw

Each party gives something in order to meet midway. It is powerful when both sides are right.
- e. Collaboration-----Win/Win

Abilities, values, and expertise of all are recognized; each person’s position is clear, but emphasis is on the group solution.

3. Other Strategies Include:

- a. **Talking About the Conflict**
Do not expect others to know what you're thinking.
- b. **Recognize Differences**
Recognize and understand that people are going to have different beliefs, opinions, values, and morals.
- c. **Prevent Escalation**
Do not allow a minor argument to turn into a big one.
- d. **Encourage Communication**
Encourage every person involved in the conflict to voice their feelings or opinions about the issue and then identify the main point of contention.
- e. **Remain Calm**
It is easy to get upset when someone hurts your feelings, whether it's intentional or not. It is your conflict resolution skills that enable you to gain a deeper understanding of yourself and build more trusting relationships.

D. Benefits of Coping with Conflict

Conflict can have benefits. Healthy conflict provides you with the skills to develop better relationships, gain an understanding of yourself, increase your resolution skills, and avoid negative and damaging reactions.

1. Deals with reality
2. Confronts the real problem
3. Keeps identity and roles separate
4. Can assist the EOA in the organization

E. The Systematic Process Associated with Conflict Management**1. Conflict Management Defined**

According to the 32 CFR, Part 83, conflict management is defined as, "A systemic process used to proactively identify and manage, at the earliest stage possible, conflict that can lead to one or more disputes, for the purpose of reducing the incidence of disputes and increasing the likelihood that disputes that do arise may be resolved efficiently, effectively, and expeditiously."

2. Purpose

It is a federal requirement to follow a framework for encouraging the expanded use of alternative means of dispute resolution and conflict management practices as an integral part of normal business practices (see 32 CFR, Part 83). The Department of Defense shall foster and advance collaboration and coordination among the DoD components on the use of conflict management techniques and practices.

3. Conflict Management Techniques

Federal and DoD personnel are encouraged to identify and address underlying conflict in order to prevent and avoid disputes. The following are some recognized conflict management techniques and practices (skills) to help avoid or resolve disputes.

Techniques used in the process include, but are not limited to, structured unassisted negotiation (e.g., use of interest-based negotiation techniques), joint or collaborative problem-solving, coaching, and the design of an integrated conflict management system.

4. Negotiation

- a. It is a formal discussion to reach agreement about an issue.
- b. It is an important method to reduce conflict and to get things done.
- c. The style of negotiation best suited for mediations is called interest-based negotiation, or “IBN.” The theory of IBN is that parties are much more likely to come to a mutually satisfactory outcome when their respective interests are met than they are when one “position” wins over the other.
- d. Most negotiations ultimately involve the question of how to distribute something among the disputants or negotiating parties, whether it is money, property, benefits, or obligations.
 - 1) Diagnosis: The ability to determine the nature of conflict.
 - 2) Initiation: Influencing someone to change a behavior that may be causing the problem.
 - 3) Listening: Very important. Ability to hear the other’s point of view. Listen, reflect, paraphrase, and clarify.

5. Mediation

Mediation is a form of negotiation between two parties where a third party neutral assists or facilitates a settlement, which is amenable to and voluntarily accepted by both parties.

6. Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR)

Any procedure that is used to resolve issues in controversy, including, but not limited to, conciliation, facilitation, mediation, fact-finding, mini-trials, arbitration, and use of Ombudsmen, or any combination thereof.

7. Coaching

As a professional in a coaching role, you educate managers and supervisors as you work with them as a supportive partner and coach. Your goal is to increase an individual's self-sufficiency. You provide tools needed to help others be successful in their occupation and interpersonal functions.

8. Problem Solving

- a. There are many ways to solve problems. There is no one right way. However, using problem-solving procedures may help find the best response to the situation.
- b. The following are two highly recognized procedures:

- 1) Six-Step Problem-Solving Process

- 2) APIE

Both have similar components in the problem solving process.

F. Components of the Problem-Solving Process

1. Six-Step Problem-Solving Process

a. Identify and Select the Problem

- 1) Step back from the issue (conflict) and try to understand both sides of the problem.
- 2) The goal at this initial stage is to say what you want and to listen to what the other person wants.
- 3) Define the things that you both agree on, as well as the ideas that have caused the disagreement.
- 4) It is important to listen actively to what the other is saying, use "I" statements and avoid blame.
- 5) Sometimes problems are so big you have to break them down into smaller, workable problems and attack each small problem first. By doing this, a problem is not so

- overwhelming that you don't know where to start. So if the problem is too big, refine it.
- 6) This should be thoroughly thought through and agreed upon so everyone is on the same page.
- b. Analyze the Problem (Gather Information)
- 1) Analyzing means to gather information.
 - 2) If there is not enough information, figure out how to research and collect it.
 - 3) Once the information is gathered, take a very close look at what is going on.
 - 4) Try to come to consensus on why the particular problem or issue occurs.
- c. List Possible Solution(s)
- 1) This is the brainstorming phase.
 - 2) Draw on the points that you both agree on and your shared goals generate a list of as many ideas as you can for solving the problem, regardless of how feasible they might be.
 - 3) There are no wrong answers here, and judgments should not be passed on another person's suggestions.
 - 4) Toward the end of this brainstorming session, allow time for each person to clarify his or her suggestion so there is a common understanding for a later selection.
- d. Select and Plan the Best Solution
- 1) It is important for each party to be honest in this phase.
 - 2) The group should prioritize the solutions into what would work the best. This is a slow process of elimination.
 - 3) There may be some possible suggestions that are immediately eliminated.
 - 4) Eventually, the group boils down the choices to one or two best solutions. The solutions might not be ideal for either party and may involve compromise or consensus on the best solution.
 - 5) Select the solution that seems mutually acceptable, even if it is not perfect for either party.

6) As long as it seems fair and there is a mutual commitment to work with the decision, the conflict has a chance for resolution.

e. Implement the Solution

1) It is important to agree on the details of what each party must do.

2) Discuss who is responsible for implementing various parts of the agreement, and what to do in case the agreement starts to break down.

f. Evaluate the Solution

This is an ongoing step.

1) Make it a point to ask the other parties' from time to time how things are going.

2) Something unexpected might have come up or some aspect of the problem may have been overlooked. Your decisions should be seen as open to revision, as long as the revisions are agreed upon mutually.

2. The Problem-Solving Process can be Summarized Using the APIE Model

The APIE Model defines a four (4) step process. However, it aligns with the six (6) step process.

a. Step No.1: Assess the Problem(s)

b. Step No. 2: Plan a Solution(s)

c. Step No. 3: Implement the Solution(s)

d. Step No. 4: Evaluate the Outcome

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recognize the manifestations of conflict.
- B. Recognize the types of conflict and associated characteristics.
- C. Identify strategies used to cope with conflict.
- D. Identify the benefits of coping with conflict.
- E. Recognize the systematic process associated with conflict management.
- F. Identify components of the problem-solving process.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1450

INDIVIDUAL DIVERSITY



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding the concept of individual diversity is vital for an EOA. An equal opportunity (EO) professional will need to identify the concept of individual diversity, broaden their self-awareness of diversity, and recognize that each individual is a unique and valued asset to achieving mission effectiveness.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation—EOA 1450 Individual Diversity
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers.

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, know how individual diversity can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. State DoD and the Services definition of diversity.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the importance of diversity in the workplace.	K	CRT
C. Recognize the relationship between diversity and inclusion.	K	CRT
D. Identify primary and secondary dimensions of diversity.	K	CRT
E. List the dimensions of diversity that exert an impact on the socialization process.	K	CRT
F. Identify individual diversity strategies.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Assessing your Comfort with Diversity	To identify possible areas of personal discomfort in dealing with diversity.	ISDE

INDIVIDUAL DIVERSITY**A. Definitions of Diversity**

1. Diversity

According to Merriam-Webster online (2014), diversity is “The condition of having or being composed of differing elements: variety, especially: the inclusion of different types of people (as people of different races or cultures) in a group or organization.”

2. DoD Definition of Diversity

Diversity is a military necessity (AF/A1DV, 2013).

DoD Directive 1020.02 (2009) defines diversity as “The different characteristics and attributes of individuals.”

To effectively manage diversity, several of the armed services have established diversity offices or departments as well as issued official definitions for diversity.

3. Air Force Definition of Diversity

Diversity in the Air Force, according to the Air Force Global Diversity Division, AF/A1DV (2013), is broadly defined as a “composite of individual characteristics, experiences, and abilities consistent with the Air Force Core Values and the Air Force Mission (p. 5).”

The AF/A1DV (2013) further goes on to state “Air Force diversity includes, but is not limited to, personal life experiences, geographic background, socioeconomic background, cultural knowledge, educational background, work background, language abilities, physical abilities, philosophical/spiritual perspectives, age, race, ethnicity and gender (p. 5).”

4. Army Definition of Diversity

The Army Diversity Strength in Diversity (2014) website defines diversity as “...the different attributes, experiences, and backgrounds of our soldiers, civilians, and family members that further enhance our global capabilities and contribute to an adaptive, culturally astute Army (U.S. Army, 2013).”

5. Coast Guard Definition of Diversity

The U.S. Coast Guard’s diversity website writes the definition of diversity as “Diversity is variety. It includes all the characteristics, experiences, and differences of each individual (U.S. Coast Guard Office of Diversity [CG-12B], 2013).”

6. Navy Definition of Diversity

The U.S. Navy's definition of diversity is, "All the different characteristics and attributes of individual sailors and civilians that enhance the mission readiness of the Navy (U.S. Navy, 2013)."

B. The Importance of Diversity in the Workplace

1. Why Diversity Matters?

- a. In January of 2005, the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO) published a report (GAO-05-90) titled, *Diversity Management: Expert-Identified Leading Practices and Agency Examples*.
- b. According to the report, high-performance organizations typically:
 - 1) Foster a work environment in which people are enabled and motivated to contribute to mission accomplishments.
 - 2) Provide both accountability and fairness for all employees (p. 2).
- c. To accomplish these objectives, high-performance organizations are inclusive, drawing on the strengths of employees at all levels and of all backgrounds—an approach consistent with diversity management (USGS, 2014, p. 1; GAO, 2005, p. 2).

2. Diversity Is Critical to Readiness

- a. The Acting Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness, Jessica Wright, says the Defense Department not only talks "about diversity in terms of race and gender, and ethnicity, but it is much more than that in my mind." She declared that diversity included, "your thought process, how you grew up, [and] what you can add to the greater good because of your background (Beard, 2013)."
 - 1) Current combat missions and terrorism operate among diverse cultures.
 - 2) Increased need for specialized talent (i.e. foreign language interpreters and medical professionals)
 - 3) Increased use of collaborative work structures.
- b. For diversity to add value, it is critical that each of us open our minds and make a sincere effort to understand the perspectives of others. There is never a guarantee that people with different perspectives will come to agreement, nor should there be.

3. Benefits of Diversity

- a. It leads to increased effectiveness, innovation, improved problem solving, greater cohesion, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, competitiveness, and enhanced mission readiness.
- b. How this relates to your role as an EOA
 - 1) Your comfort around diversity will prove useful during conflict resolutions as you will be better equipped to take other's perceptive.
 - 2) When reviewing climate assessment survey data you can determine if your organization fosters a climate conducive to support diversity.

C. Relationship between Diversity and Inclusion

1. As identified in the definitions, the word diversity represents a large group comprised of different people with different experiences.
2. Individual differences can include race, color, religion, gender, sex, national origin, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, age, disability, and veteran status. However, diversity does not address how these differences function.
 - a. This is where inclusion comes into play. Inclusion enables us to strive to have all people represented and included in the Federal workforce, and make all members feel welcomed and valued, not only for their abilities, but also for their unique qualities and perspectives.
 - b. The focus of inclusion and diversity is to create a culture that encourages all employees to be successful, regardless of their differences. (SkillsUSA, 2014)
3. In August 2011, President Obama established Executive Order 13583, *Coordinated Government-wide Initiative to Promote Diversity and Inclusion in the Federal Workforce*
 - a. The Executive order states that a commitment to equal opportunity, diversity, and inclusion is critical for the Federal Government as an employer. By law, the Federal Government's recruitment policies should "endeavor to achieve a work force from all segments of society (5 U.S.C. 2301(b) (1))."
 - b. To realize more fully the goal of using the talents of all segments of society, the Federal Government must continue to challenge itself to enhance its ability to recruit, hire, promote, and retain a more diverse workforce. Further, the Federal Government must create a culture that encourages collaboration, flexibility, and fairness to enable individuals to participate to their full potential (Executive Order 13583, 2011).
4. Diversity and EO

- a. Workplace EO programs are concerned with issues of fairness and equity based upon Title VII Civil Rights Act of 1964.
- b. People sometimes incorrectly think the word diversity is synonymous with equal opportunity.
- c. Diversity and inclusion programs, on the other hand, are strategic in focus. They strive to capitalize on strengths within the workforce, while minimizing weaknesses that inhibit optimal organizational performance.

D. Dimensions of Diversity

The dimensions of diversity are characteristics that describe people negatively and positively.

Differences between people can pose a potential impediment, but such obstacles can be resolved by supportive leaders who create a pro-diversity climate.

The term diversity has evolved over the years and its meaning has expanded in scope.

Diversity now has become a broad term which includes overt (primary) and covert (secondary) dimensions, and characteristics that may be used to group individuals (Loden, 1996).



Dimensions of diversity wheel © 1996. *Implementing Diversity* by Marilyn Loden. McGraw Hill publishing, Burr Ridge, IL. Reprinted with permission.

* = In 2010, Loden and Rosener stated sexual orientation may also be considered with secondary dimensions.

1. Loden's (1996) Primary Dimensions

The primary dimensions, as shown in the inner circle of the dimensions of diversity wheel in Loden's (1996) book, *Implementing Diversity*, are the properties and characteristics that constitute the core of our diverse identities.

a. Loden's (1996) primary dimensions include:

- 1) Age
- 2) Ethnicity (Ethnic Heritage)
- 3) Gender
- 4) Mental/physical abilities and characteristics
- 5) Race
- 6) *Sexual orientation

* = In 2010 Loden and Rosener stated that sexual orientation may also be considered with the secondary dimensions.

b. These dimensions are more immediately obvious to others and are ones over which we have little control. It is the immutability and sustained power that the primary dimensions exert throughout life that separates them from the secondary dimensions.

The six primary dimensions are so powerful that they shape our basic self-image and fundamental worldview, and our life experiences are filtered through them. These six inner dimensions are inescapable. For some, secondary dimensions can be so powerful that they too can become part of their core. (Loden, 1996)

2. Secondary Dimensions

The secondary dimensions are additional elements outside the core with some being quite permanent and others receding or changing over time (Loden, 1996). As shown in the outer circle of the dimensions of diversity wheel, they play an important role in shaping our values, perceptions, priorities, and experiences.

a. Secondary dimensions include:

- 1) Communication style
- 2) Education

- 3) Family status
 - 4) Military experience
 - 5) Religion
 - 6) First language
 - 7) Income
 - 8) Work experience
 - 9) Work style
 - 10) Geographic Location
 - 11) Organization role and level (Loden, 1996)
- b. The secondary dimensions are less visible to others, more changeable, and more variable in the degree or influence they exert on one's life. Together these dimensions form an individual's self-image and the filters through which he or she views the rest of the world. (Loden, 1996)

E. Diversity and Socialization

Together, the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity help shape our values, attitudes, and perceptions—the socialization of our culture and our self.

Each primary and secondary dimension adds additional complexity to our personalities and affects the ways in which we perceive ourselves and others (Loden, 1996).

When the perceptions and expectations others have of us are closely aligned with our own, conflict is less likely.

When we face conflicts over our perceptions and the perceptions of others based on one or more dimension, it becomes obvious differences do matter.

1. Effects of the Dimensions of Diversity Upon Socialization

- a. When the perceptions and expectations that others have of you are closely aligned with your own (matching), conflict is unlikely and the impact of the dimension becomes less obvious. (Loden, 1996)

- b. When we face conflicts between our perceptions and the perceptions of others based on one of the dimensions (not matching), it becomes obvious that differences do matter. (Loden, 1996)
- c. During periods of conflict, we become more aware of the ways in which biases about the dimensions of our diversity can impede progress.

2. Individual Diversity Awareness/Development

The developmental model of intercultural sensitivity, or DMIS, was first proposed by sociologist Milton Bennett in the mid-1980s. The DMIS is not a model of attitude change or of skill acquisition. Rather, it is a model of the development of worldview structure. (Bennett, 2006)

The six-stage model is also referred to as the Bennett (1998) scale. It includes two stages, each of which comprises of three steps. In the DMIS model, individuals may go up or down a continuum of six levels. As an individual makes progress upward on the scale, they become more able to sensitively perceive and communicate with different cultures.

- a. In the ethnocentric stage, individuals assume that their respective culture is central to the reality perceived by all others.
 - 1) Denial – The most basic stage of ethnocentrism and reflects an orientation which assumes there are no real differences among people from different cultures.
 - 2) Defense – Refers to a more explicit recognition of differences coupled with more overt attempts at erecting defenses against them. In this state, differences are not only viewed suspiciously; they are considered threatening to one's self-esteem and identity.
 - 3) Minimization – Individuals in this level recognize cultural differences, but trivialize them. Individuals at this level believe that human similarities are more important than differences.
- b. In Bennett's (1998) ethnorelative stage, individuals experience other cultures as equally complex, but different constructions of reality.
 - 1) Acceptance – Involves an acknowledgment that identifying significant cultural differences is crucial to understanding human interaction. The recognition of alternative cultural behavior involves an acceptance of deep cultural differences in language, nonverbal behavior, and styles of thinking and communicating.
 - 2) Adaptation – In the second level of the ethnorelative stage, individuals have achieved high levels of sensitivity. They may change their behaviors to communicate more effectively with people of another culture, use empathy by imagining another

person's perspective, and go beyond empathy to internalize other cultural frames of reference.

- 3) Integration – In the topmost level of the ethnorelative stage, individuals have achieved the ultimate level of diversity awareness. A person at this level has the ability to analyze and evaluate situations from more than one perspective. While this is the ultimate level of awareness, diversity individuals should continue to learn and build relationships with other cultures.

F. Individual Diversity Awareness Strategies

1. Effective personal development progresses along head, hands, and heart.
 - a. First, we approach diversity topics intellectually, as knowledge to be learned (head).
 - b. Then, we apply what we have learned and turn it into actions (hands).
 - c. Later, our feelings will likely follow our thinking and acting on the diversity issues (heart).
 - d. Here are some considerations:
 - 1) Put yourself in the other person's shoes.
 - 2) An individual's level of diversity awareness influences choices made in strategies to respond to differences (e.g., gender identity, ethnicity, religion, age, socioeconomic level, and race).
 - 3) As an EOA, developing your individual diversity awareness is the key to being able to recognize and help your unit members work together effectively.
 - 4) You should help unit members develop reflective thinking, empathy, understanding, raised awareness, sensitivity, an understanding of consequences, and a desire to be fair.
2. The best diversity interventions include all three aspects, but many times the head and hands are sufficient to initiate change. The heart can follow.
3. Understanding one's own attitudes and values about diversity is essential to understanding, appreciating, and responding to differences in others.
4. Understanding self
 - a. Be equipped to cope with issues that arise and be able to engage with and challenge yours and others' prejudices and stereotypes around differences.

- b. To become more aware of diversity, you should:
- 1) Be aware of your own cultural influences.
 - 2) Be aware of judging others' behavior and beliefs according to the standards of your own culture.
 - 3) Be aware of making assumptions about cultural influences and applying generalizations to individuals.
 - 4) Understand that the behavior and beliefs of people within each culture can vary considerably.
 - 5) Understand that not all people identify with their cultural or religious background.
 - 6) Understand that culture itself is a fluid entity that is undergoing transformations as a result of personal realizations.
 - 7) Increase your knowledge about different cultural practices and issues.
 - 8) Understand the importance of clear and effective communication.
 - 9) Monitor your verbal and nonverbal communication behaviors.
 - 10) Identify behaviors that enhance or detract from work group readiness.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. State DoD and the Services definition for diversity.
- B. Recognize the importance of diversity in the workplace.
- C. Recognize the relationship between diversity and inclusion.
- D. Identify primary and secondary dimensions of diversity.
- E. List the dimensions of diversity that exert an impact on the socialization process.
- F. Identify individual diversity strategies.

END OF LESSON

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Whether you are a commander, an EOA, or in any leadership position you are a professional. From your own personal and ethical point of view, you will be responsible for deciding what course of action is most appropriate for a given situation. In addition, you will be called upon to advise your commander and others on how to proceed ethically to resolve various issues.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 1500 Ethics
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, know how ethical issues can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define values.	K	CRT
B. Define morals.	K	CRT
C. Define ethics.	K	CRT
D. Identify moral theory.	K	CRT
E. Identify ethical decision-making.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ETHICS

A. Values

Values are our conceptions of what is good or bad, desirable or not, proper or improper (Schaefer, 2008). They include personal values, socially accepted values, and military values. Different groups of people uphold different values.

Values categories

1. Personal: Family, environment, and nation.
2. Social: Developed early in life; put the rights of wider groups of people first.
3. Political: Beliefs about the best way to govern a country or organization.
4. Economic: Focus on money. Examples include equal employment, economic stability, property ownership, and taxes.
5. Religious: Ethical principles founded in religious traditions, texts, and beliefs. Religious-based values (ethics) are based on scripture and a religion's established norms.

B. Morals

1. Definition:

Morals reflect beliefs about right and wrong conduct (Agnes & Guralnik, 2006), what to do in light of values.

2. Implications
 - a. Behaviors are deemed desirable or undesirable by a society.
 - b. Morals reflect local sensibilities.
 - c. Societies have different ideas about what behaviors are acceptable and unacceptable, moral or immoral.
 - d. Society can and does require people to behave in ways deemed moral. Example: the UCMJ evolved from a collection of moral standards into a formal legal code that directs the behavior of all who serve in the military.

C. Ethics

1. Definition: Ethics is the standard of conduct governing an individual or an organization (Nelson & Trevino, 2007) and developed through continual reflection of right and wrong.
2. Ethics is based on individual values and morals, or the values and morals set by society.
3. Ethics encompasses two concepts:
 - a. What is the right conduct for me?
 - b. What is the right conduct for others?

D. Moral Theory

1. Making Moral Decisions
 - a. Moral decisions result in the commander and other military members taking actions that will bring the greatest benefit to the greatest number or that enable the unit to fulfill the mission. At times, they decide in favor of actions based on principles or rules.
 - b. The most commonly used means of moral reasoning and moral decision-making in the military is goal-based ethics, followed by principle-based ethics.
2. Goal-Based Ethics
 - a. Definition: Centered on either an outcome-based ethical ideal or the idea that by making ethical decisions, you enjoy some greater benefit.
 - b. Three principal difficulties with goal-based ethics:
 - 1) Who determines whose good is *the good*? Those with the greatest numbers? Those possessing the greatest rank and power?
 - 2) One cannot know if one has done the right thing until the action is completed.
 - 3) The moral life is full of uncertainties, and we can make mistakes about our predictions and decisions. Do the ends justify the means?
3. Principle-Based Ethics
 - a. Definition: Focuses on theories of the importance of general principles, such as respect for autonomy, beneficence/non-maleficence, and justice.

- b. Involve making decisions founded on principles (philosophy, beliefs, doctrine, etc.) and sense of duty. Intentions should be of primary importance, not the consequences.
- c. May result in consequences that are difficult to live with (e.g., Lying to save a life).
- d. Very difficult way of life (e.g., Choosing to tell a would-be murderer a lie about the whereabouts of a murderer's intended victim, even if we believe lying to be wrong, rather than telling the murderer the location of the intended victim because being honest is always the right thing to do).

E. Ethical Decision-Making

1. Find the facts. What are the specific details?
2. List the benefits and harms.
 - a. Consider the potential solutions and their effects.
 - b. What course of action produces these?
 - c. Which alternative will lead to the best overall results?
3. Identify which course of action treats everyone fairly.

Can there be a morally justifiable reason to not act in a fair manner?
4. Identify the principles involved.
 - a. Determine the principles involved (e.g., issues of human rights, First Amendment rights, civil rights, and the UCMJ).
 - b. What course of action best respects those rights?
5. Consider the potential training possibilities.
 - a. Choose a course of action that educates and uplifts other unit members in that goal.
 - b. Choose a course of action that develops the morality you wish to see displayed, or that the military and/or nation advocates.
 - c. Identify important considerations necessary to sound, ethical decision-making.
 - d. Deliberate on moral issues and be mindful of facts and ethical considerations involved.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define values.
- B. Define morals.
- C. Define ethics.
- D. Identify moral theory.
- E. Identify ethical decision-making.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 2000

PRESENTATION SKILLS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will familiarize students with how to prepare for and conduct the types of formal presentations or briefs EOAs will need to present. This lesson is an introduction to a skill that is improved upon by practice and experience. Students will leave with a basic understanding of how to prepare and present a formal brief.

Recommended Reading

DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

References

1. Department of the Air Force. (2004, August 1). Chapter 10, Air Force Speaking. In *AFH 33-337, The Tongue and Quill*. Washington, DC: Secretary of the Air Force. Retrieved from <http://www.e-publishing.af.mil/pubfiles/af/33/afh33-337/afh33-337.pdf>,
2. Curriculum and Instructional Systems Office. (2006). *Presentation Skills Handout*. Patrick AFB, FL: Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI).
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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 2000 Presentation Skills
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture and a study guide, know how to apply the fundamental skills associated with good presentations, with no less than 70% on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify the different types of formal briefs.	K	CRT
B. Identify the format used to prepare and present a formal brief.	K	CRT
C. Identify briefing considerations used during a formal brief.	K	CRT
D. Describe types of support material used to conduct a formal brief.	K	CRT
Total Time: 2.5 Hrs		
Knowledge = K Comprehension = C Application = A Criterion Referenced Test = CRT Written Assignment = W Small Group Experience = SGE Presentation Evaluation = PE		

PRESENTATION SKILLS

A. Types of Formal Briefs

1. Information Brief

- a. Purpose is to keep the listener abreast of the current situation and supply specific information
- b. Designed to inform the listener and gain their understanding. Deals with:
 - 1) High priority facts and information requiring immediate action.
 - 2) Complex information on complicated plans, systems, statistics, or visuals.
 - 3) Controversial information requiring explanation.
 - 4) May have conclusions or recommendations.

2. Advocacy/Decision Brief

- a. Purpose is to persuade an audience to act; produce an answer to a question; or obtain a decision on a specific problem
 - 1) Advocacy Brief – “Sell” your audience on a new idea, new policy, new product, or change in current operations. Requires convincing evidence and support.
 - 2) Decision Brief – Briefer states he/she is looking for a decision. Ask for decision if one is not forthcoming at conclusion.
- b. Briefer must be prepared to present:
 - 1) Assumptions
 - 2) Facts
 - 3) Alternative solutions
 - 4) Reasons/rationale for recommended solution(s)
 - 5) Coordination involved
 - 6) Visual information
- c. Advise appropriate staff elements of the commander’s decision after the brief.

3. Staff Brief

- a. Purpose is to secure a coordinated effort and rapidly disseminate information orally, aid group decision-making, and secure a united effort.
- b. Most widely used and flexible type of brief – Used at all levels of command
- c. Visuals make complex issues clearer
- d. Keeps commanders/staff abreast of situation(s)
- e. May involve an exchange of information, issuance of directives, or presentation of guidance

4. Mission Brief

- a. Purpose of a mission brief is to impart information that is used to elaborate on an order, give specific instructions, or instill an appreciation for the mission
- b. Briefer must exercise care to avoid confusion or conflict with orders
- c. Uses maps and graphical representations of situation(s)
- d. Mission briefing format varies from command to command

B. Briefing/Presentation Format

1. Introduction

- a. Stage setting remarks (Attention Step):
 - 1) Set the tone of the communication
 - 2) Focused on the topic/purpose
 - 3) Gain the audience's attention
 - 4) Establish rapport
- b. Purpose statement
 - 1) Tells the audience why briefing is being given and what is in it for them.
 - 2) It specifically states your purpose, thesis, or main point.

- c. Overview
 - 1) Present list of main points to be covered and identify areas and depth that each main point will cover
 - 2) Preview sequence to the audience
 - 3) Ties main points to purpose
- 2. Body
 - a. Organization
 - 1) Well organized and easy to follow
 - 2) Present a pattern and strategy of organization that actively contributes to the development of the topic
 - b. Support Data
 - 1) Groups related ideas into single units of thought
 - (a) Separate one unit of thought from another
 - (b) Alert audience when shifting to another phase of subject
 - 2) Relevant and credible statistics and/or testimony to support main points must be presented
 - 3) Present ample facts and examples and relate these to the audience
- 3. Conclusion
 - a. Summary
 - 1) Will foster retention
 - 2) Review and reemphasize the main points and not introduce new ideas
 - b. Closure
 - 1) Close with positive statements based on your communication
 - 2) Leave the audience with a sense of completion

4. Transition

The fourth element within the structure of the formal brief is the transitions which tie together the parts of the briefing or presentation.

C. Briefing Considerations for a Formal Brief

1. Essential Tips:

- a. Know the material – Learn more about the subject than included in the speech. Use humor, personal stories, and conversational language to help remember what to say.
- b. Practice – Practice! Practice! Rehearse out loud using all of the equipment planned to use. Revise as necessary. Work to control filler words; practice, pause, and breathe. Practice with a timer and allow time for the unexpected.
- c. Know the audience – Greet the audience members as they arrive. It's easier to speak to a group of friends than to strangers.
- d. Know the room – Arrive early, walk around the speaking area and practice using the microphone and any visual aids.
- e. Relax: Begin by addressing the audience – It buys time and calms nerves. Pause, smile, and count to three before saying anything (One one-thousand, two one-thousand, three one-thousand, pause, and begin). Transform nervous energy into enthusiasm.
- f. Visualize giving the speech – Imagine speaking with a voice that is loud, clear, and confident. Have the initial remarks well in mind. The first few moments are the most difficult; get past these and the rest of the speech will go well. Visualize the audience clapping—it will boost confidence.
- g. Realize that people want you to succeed – Audiences want you to be interesting, stimulating, informative, and entertaining. They're rooting for you.
- h. Don't apologize for any nervousness or problem –The audience probably never noticed it.
- i. Concentrate on the message not the medium – Focus attention away from own anxieties and concentrate on the message and the audience.
- j. Gain experience – Your speech should mainly represent you as an authority and as a person. Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking. (Toastmasters International, 2012)

2. Presentation and Delivery Skills

a. Eye contact: Direct and impartial.

- 1) Establish good eye contact. Look for feedback (nods, puzzled looks). This search for feedback will take your mind off yourself and help you focus on the audience.
- 2) Be deliberate. Watch your audience and go with a pace that is comfortable for them.
- 3) Do not:
 - a) Scan the audience too quickly
 - b) Look at the floor
 - c) Look at the horizon

b. Voice quality – Make voice quality more pleasant by developing proper emphasis, making the presentation more intelligible, and providing a pleasing variation that will hold the listener's attention

- 1) Pitch – the voice should be natural. Use the pitch level at which you can speak with greatest ease and clarity and then vary this pitch to produce emphasis where needed.
- 2) Volume of voice – Speak loudly enough for all listeners to hear without difficulty. On the other hand, too loud a voice is deafening and the hearing attention soon dulls in self-defense.
- 3) Rate of Speech – Complex material should be presented slowly. Speaking too fast will make speech unintelligible; speak too slowly and the meaning will suffer
- 4) Articulation, Enunciation, and Pronunciation – Speak clearly and distinctly. Strive for clarity of expression. Pronounce or accent each syllable distinctly and clearly

c. Speech

- 1) Choice of words – Choose words carefully. The right word in the right place is the keynote of effective speech. Use terms that are common to the vocabulary of the listeners. If certain complex terms are essential, use them, but define each one.
- 2) Formation of sentences – Use short sentences. Signal the end of sentences by voice inflection. Do not pad sentences and clutter delivery with trite expressions

- 3) Pauses
 - a) Listeners are able to absorb ideas more easily.
 - b) You get an opportunity to focus on your next point.
 - c) You give emphasis, meaning, and interpretation to your ideas you get a chance to breathe.
 - d) Length - Be brief and concise. Know what to say and say it.
- d. Movement and Gestures – Free and natural
 - 1) Posture and movement – Your presence creates a general impression of you as a speaker. Stand erect and alert, but don't look artificial. Avoid rocking back and forth or side to side, or slouching on one leg and then the other. Make your movements natural.
 - a) Feet about shoulder width apart
 - b) Body Squared to Audience
 - c) Shoulder, hips, and knees aligned
 - d) No swaying, pacing, or shifting weight
 - e) Movement is purposeful
 - 2) Facial Expression – Normal, casual conversation
 - 3) Gestures – Gesture around chest/shoulder height. Do not fidget or use distracting mannerisms (Not mechanical)
3. Final Preparation
 - a. Set up brief location
 - 1) Arrange seating
 - 2) Pre-stage handouts/displays/visuals
 - 3) Arrange for refreshments (if needed)
 - b. Check equipment – Perform equipment pre-use inspection

4. Deliver the brief
 - a. Ask developed questions.
 - b. Answer questions.
 - c. Be prepared to execute back-up plan: Hand out backup materials, if needed.
5. After the brief – Collect brief materials/media
 - a. Provide your contact information to audience members.
 - b. Depending on the type of brief, be available for further follow-up and questions.

D. Types of Support Material Used to Conduct a Formal Brief

1. Read-Ahead Material – Include an agenda and/or any background materials needed to prepare the listener before hearing the formal presentation.
2. Point, Talking, and Position Paper
 - a. Point Paper – A memory tickler or quick-reference outline used during meetings or to informally pass information quickly to another person or office.
 - b. Talking Paper – A quick-reference outline on key points, facts, positions, questions to use during oral presentations and speeches.
 - c. Position Papers – Publish the official beliefs and recommendations of a group.

Commonly, a position paper substantiates the opinions or positions put forward with evidence from an extensive objective discussion of the topic.

3. Visual Aids
 - a. General considerations
 - 1) Audience should be able to quickly look at visual aid and get the point
 - 2) Think about visual aids from the perspective of the audience
 - 3) Make it professional, neat, and organized
 - 4) Visual aid should be pertinent to speech

- b. There are various types of visual aids:
 - 1) Props
 - 2) Media clips (e.g., movies, music, newsreels)
 - 3) Charts/graphs
 - 4) Butcher paper/dry erase board
 - 5) Handouts
 - 6) PowerPoint® presentations
- c. When developing a PowerPoint® presentation, ensure it is:
 - 1) Be easy to see
 - 2) Be easy to understand
 - 3) Look professional
 - 4) Not distracting
 - 5) Have relevance to the topic, purpose, and audience
 - 6) Appropriate

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify the different types of formal briefs.
- B. Identify the format used to prepare and present a formal brief.
- C. Identify briefing considerations used during a formal brief.
- D. Describe types of support material used to conduct a formal brief.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 2200

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an equal opportunity advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to pick up where presentation skills left off and to help the students understand how they will prepare for and present their Race and Ethnic Studies guided discussion. The lesson will present to students the instructional skills needed to be an effective EOA. The lesson is taught from a military training perspective. It is an introduction to a skill that is improved by practice and experience. Students will leave with a basic understanding and practical experience of instructional skills required of an EOA.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 2200 Training Development and Delivery
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a study guide, small-group instructions, preparation time, and collaboration with a partner, students will develop and facilitate a 60-minute guided discussion, scoring a “GO” on the criterion checklist. Each student will also be required to score a minimum of 70% on a Criterion Referenced Test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the teaching lecture.	K	CRT
B. Describe the guided discussion.	K	CRT
C. Describe how to prepare for a training session.	K	CRT
D. Describe how to deliver a training session.	K	CRT
E. Prepare a teaching plan.	A	CC
F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion.	A	CC
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY

A. Teaching Lecture

1. Definition: A teaching lecture is a formal or informal presentation of information, concepts or principles given by a single individual (United States Air Force, 2003).
2. Types of teaching lectures: Formal and Informal
 - a. The formal lecture is usually conducted from behind a lectern and there is no verbal interaction between the instructor and the students.
 - 1) The instructor simply tells the students the information without giving the students a chance to intervene and ask questions.
 - 2) The communication is one-way. Usually a formal lecture is used with large groups (i.e., 50 people or more).
 - b. The informal lecture is conducted with verbal interaction between the instructor and students.
 - 1) The students and the teacher ask questions and provide comments to enhance the lesson.
 - 2) It is usually held in groups smaller than 50 people. If the instructor is experienced and able to handle larger groups, they may do an informal lecture with groups larger than 50 people.
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of the Teaching Lecture
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Ideal for introducing a subject and teaching facts
 - 2) Presents information to a large group of students at one time
 - 3) Allows for note taking and reference to other material
 - 4) Effective way of motivating students to learn by a person who has experience
 - 5) Supplement to other methods
 - 6) Prepares students for discussion
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Limits student participation

- 2) Unable to use lecture to teach skills
- 3) Difficult to evaluate learning
- 4) Difficult to maintain students' attention

B. Guided Discussion

1. Definition: Instructor controlled group process in which students share information and experiences to achieve a learning objective.
 - a. A method of teaching using questions to encourage participation
 - b. The learning situation involves exchanging ideas, opinions and experiences
 - c. During guided discussions, facilitators ask questions, pose problems, and direct student participation.
2. Basic Characteristics of a Guided Discussion
 - a. Tied to a standard of performance (measureable)
 - b. Self-contained unit of work
 - c. Adapted to the needs of the learner
 - d. Has a definite structure
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Guided Discussion
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Allows everyone to participate in the learning situation
 - 2) Pools knowledge and experience of all participants
 - 3) Stimulates and motivates participants when well organized
 - 4) More closely simulates real-world situations through discussions
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Can be very time-consuming

- 2) Limits the number of participants
- 3) Can degenerate quickly if not skillfully controlled
- 4) Some members may feel intimidated or reluctant to participate

C. Preparing the Training Session

There are many ways to prepare a training session. The following are simple guidelines:

1. Develop training objectives

Training objectives – a concise statement that describes what one should be able to do upon completion of training.

- a. Emphasis should be placed on what the trainee can do, rather than what they know or how they feel.
- b. Objectives describe learning in terms of student outcomes.
- c. Measurement of success is based on comparing student performance to the objective.

2. Conduct your research – read, review, and research up-to-date information

- a. Internal sources – personal experience and knowledge you already possess
- b. Internet sources – Search engine (Google, Yahoo, Bing, etc.) will result in numerous hits. Evaluate each site for validity:
 - 1) Accountability – who owns the website?
 - 2) Accuracy – is the information on the site accurate and reliable (closely related to accountability)?
 - 3) Objectivity – is the information biased or objective?
 - 4) Date – Is the information recent?
 - 5) Usability – Is the information presented in a way that is easy to use and understand?
- c. Library sources – can the information be accessed at the DEOMI library, online through Web OPAC, or other library search engines
 - 1) Books

- 2) Periodicals
 - 3) Full-text databases
 - 4) Newspapers
 - 5) Government documents
- d. Expert resources – educators, professionals, and organizations
3. Organize your lesson (Develop a teaching plan)
- a. Develop training content – training content is the information, definitions, descriptions, concepts, and skills that you present
 - b. Build an outline
 - c. Select your teaching pattern or strategy
 - 1) Chronological or sequential – arranging the content in the time order or in the order in things occurred
 - 2) Cause-effect – one set of conditions is presented as the cause of another set
 - 3) Problem-solution – “disease-remedy” pattern. Presents a problem and proposes a solution
 - 4) Pro-con – usually equally covers two sides to an issue
 - 5) Topical – categorizing the main points by topic
 - d. Prepare your introduction – A teaching lecture and guided discussion are introduced in the same way with attention, motivation, and overview steps
 - 1) Attention – the primary purpose is to gain the audience’s attention and focus them on the topic.
 - 2) Motivation – Describe the specific reason why the students need to participate in this lesson
 - 3) Overview
 - e. Develop your questions

During a guided discussion, the content for each lesson objective is discovered through question and answer rather than the instructor telling students as they would in a teaching lecture.

While some of your questions during the guided discussion are spontaneous, you need to develop your lead-off questions (LOQ) and follow-up questions (FUQ) as you develop your teaching plan.

1) LOQ – opens areas for discussion

You should have an LOQ for each main point in the discussion. A LOQ is used to initiate (spark) discussion and to get students thinking about the first main point you presented in the overview.

2) FUQ – solicits specific responses to cover lesson content

3) Spontaneous questions – used to extract more information and keep the discussion moving

f. Determine training time frames

1) Total time of training event

2) Time within each main point

3) Time within introduction and conclusion

g. Select training materials

1) Develop participant's guide or other handouts

2) Develop training tools (e.g., PowerPoint® visuals, chart paper, markers, videos, etc.)

D. Delivering the Training Session

1. Personalizing your lesson plan

a. Purpose – Personalization is the act of adding individual subject matter knowledge to the instructional process.

b. Examples of personalization

1) Subject- matter detail

2) Instructional techniques

- 3) Personal experiences
 - 4) Examples and analogies
 - 5) Introduction, transitions, and conclusion
2. Characteristics common to good instructors
- a. Effective instructors are knowledgeable
 - 1) Become the subject-matter expert
 - 2) Know more about the subject than your students
 - b. Effective instructors possess ability
 - 1) Leadership
 - a) Planning and organizational skills
 - b) Flexibility
 - c) Make best use of resources
 - d) Monitor progress and results
 - e) Discipline and reward
 - f) Skill to influence or persuade others
 - g) Maintain self-control
 - h) Lead by example
 - 2) Instructional skills
 - a) Know principles, methods, and techniques of instruction
 - b) How and when to apply them
 - c) Know the strategy and lesson content
 - c. Personality traits effective instructors possess
 - 1) Sincere

- 2) Nonjudgmental
 - 3) Patient
 - 4) Integrity
 - 5) Understanding
- d. Effective instructors are good communicators
- 1) Students understand why the information needs to be learned
 - 2) Inspire, encourage, persuade, and motivate
- e. Effective instructors have an intrinsic desire to teach
- f. Effective instructors have the respect of students

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the teaching lecture.
- B. Describe the guided discussion.
- C. Describe how to prepare for a training session.
- D. Describe how to deliver a training session.

The following topics will be conducted and evaluated for the Guided Discussion Activity:

- E. Prepare a teaching plan.
- F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3000

POWER AND PRIVILEGE



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will demonstrate that power and its associated privilege can sometimes create exclusive work environments at the expense of others. Power and privilege can also make it possible for certain groups to obtain and maintain control over those who have limited power and privilege, which can lead to discriminatory practices. It is the intent of this lesson to point out facts showing relationship between the powerful and the privileged. In this lesson, students will discover how ingrained and taken for granted power and privilege are and how they impact society. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional, you must understand that privilege and power are human relation issues that affect unit cohesion and mission accomplishment.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Star Power activity

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation—EOA 3000 Power and Privilege
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, comprehend how power and privilege impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define power.	K	CRT
B. Identify the types of power.	K	CRT
C. Identify the misuse (abuse) of power.	C	CRT
D. Define privilege.	K	CRT
E. Identify the types of privilege.	C	CRT
F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).	K	CRT
G. Recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure	Time
Star Power	Recognize effects of power among individuals	ISDE	3.5 Hours

POWER AND PRIVILEGE**A. Definition of Power**

Merriam-Webster (2013) defines power as “the ability or official capacity to exercise control over others; a person, group, or nation having great influence or control over others.”

B. Identify the Types of Power

1. Types of power (Cartwright & Zander, 1968)

a. Political power

In the official capacity, political power is held by the political leader of a state, such as a president, prime minister, or monarch. Political powers are not limited to heads of states, however, the extent to which a person or group holds such power is related to the amount of societal influence they can wield, formally or informally.

b. Physical Power:

The energy or motive force by which a physical system or machine is operated (e.g. turbines turned by steam power; a sailing ship driven by wind power; the human body digesting food and water).

c. Social power:

The potential influence of one person over another.

3. Bases of Social Power (Hershey & Blanchard, 2012)

a. Legitimate power

Based on a person in a higher position having control over people in a lower position in an organization.

b. Coercive power

Based on a person that leads by threat, real or imagined force. Fear of being hurt, poorly treated, or dismissed allows the wielders of this power to rule over the fearful. It is unlikely to win respect and loyalty of employees for long.

c. Reward power

Based on the person that motivates others by offering raises, recognition, promotions, awards, money, or goods to follow.

d. Expert power

Based on the person who sets the perception that one possesses superior skills, talent or knowledge.

e. Referent power

Based on the person who has the ability to convey a sense of personal acceptance or approval. It is held by people with charisma, integrity, and other positive qualities. It is the most valuable type of power.

f. Information power

Based on a person who possesses needed or necessary information for the successful functioning of the organization or mission. This is a short-term power that doesn't necessarily influence or build credibility.

g. Connection power

Based on a person who attains influence by gaining favor or simply acquaintance with a powerful person. This power is more commonly referred to as "networking" these days.

4. Categories of Power (French and Raven)

a. Formal (*Positional*) Power:

- 1) Formal power is conferred on a person; it is not necessarily earned. In other words, formal power is a function of position not necessarily ability.
- 2) It is a function of position, rank, or status.
- 3) Authority is given to a person who holds a certain position in the organization and is supported by the organization.
- 4) It may include the ability to reward and punish.

b. Informal (*Personal*) Power:

- 1) Informal power comes from forms of leverage; these types of power must be earned and maintained. Unlike formal power bases, they cannot be conferred.
- 2) It is mostly a function of ability, personality, or association.
- 3) It may be based on knowledge and skills.

- 4) Power based on expertise can only be exercised if others recognize the ability and have a use for it.
- 5) May be based on trust developed through friendship or personality characteristics.
- 6) Trust as a power base builds on common goals, fosters good relationships, and can overcome authority relationship viewed as negative.
- 7) May be based on association with a group or another person perceived to have power.

C. Identify the Misuse (Abuse) of Power

1. Definition:

“Abuse of Power- Improper use of authority by someone who has a position of power in an abusive way” (West’s Encyclopedia of American Law, 2nd ed.)

Abuse of power can take many forms, such as:

- a. Taking advantage of someone,
- b. Gaining access to information that shouldn’t be accessible to the public, or
- c. Manipulating someone with the ability to punish them if they don’t comply (Cuming, 1981).

2. Types of Abuse (Supervisory/Position)

In recent times, reports of power and its use have come to the forefront when analyzing unit readiness in the U.S. Armed Forces (Inspector General’s Office). Supervisors, those who retain “formal power” (positional power), can abuse their power in many ways.

- a. Speech: Supervisors can abuse their power through their speech, including making criticisms about employees’ physical appearance, work skills, and intellect.
- b. Tone: The tone of a supervisor’s voice for example. A supervisor raising her voice at an employee or using foul language can constitute emotional abuse.
- c. Ignoring/threatening: Ignoring and threatening employees with paycheck reductions or loss of a promotion are abusive.
- d. Physical: Touching, hitting, and slapping are all indications of the misuse of power.

3. Abuse of Power and its Effects

As an EOA, you may see the effects associated with the abuse of power within an organization. Using the climate assessment survey, otherwise known as the DEOCS, you might see issues and concerns that need to be addressed.

EOAs need to address these issues with their commands to minimize negative effects, such as stress, low self-esteem, and distress.

- a. The U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey conducted by the *Workplace Bullying and Trauma Institute* in September 2007 found that employees who suffered from abuse experienced a significant amount of stress at work and the stress lasted longer than a year, which impacted employee health.
- b. Moreover, employees reported feeling mentally distressed, which affected their focus at work.
- c. Other studies by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES), associated with the U.S. Department of Education (Counseling Outfitters) showed that employees dealing with workplace abuse suffer from lack of self-esteem and decreased productivity.

4. The Consequences of Abuse of Power

Supervisors who abuse their authority at work can face serious consequences.

- a. Lawsuits and fines
- b. UCMJ action
- c. Other non-judicial punishment

5. Resources

- a. Chain of Command
- b. Inspector General (IG)
- c. Labor relations agencies
- d. State and federal agencies that handle abuse and harassment in the workplace.

Note: If the abuse becomes physical, employees should contact law enforcement or other legal authorities.

D. Definition of Privilege

1. Privilege Defined

- a. A special advantage, immunity, permission, right, or benefit granted to or enjoyed by an individual, class, or caste. (Merriam-Webster Online, 2013)
- b. An advantage, immunity, or right held as a prerogative of status or rank, and exercised to the exclusion or detriment of others.

2. Privilege can be Earned or Unearned

- a. “Earned Privilege” is acquired as a result of effort or action.
- b. “Unearned Privilege” is an advantage based on social group membership (in-group) that simultaneously disadvantages members outside that social group (out-group).

Furthermore, members of advantaged social groups typically are unaware of their privileges, whereas members of disadvantaged social groups typically are sensitized to the disadvantages of not having the privilege (McIntosh, 1988; Wildman, et.al. 1996).

E. Types of Privilege

Privilege can also be linked to various forms of identity such as:

- Race/Ethnic privilege
- Socioeconomic privilege
- Sexual orientation privilege
- Sex (Biological) privilege
- Religious privilege (University of Vermont; Media Smarts, 2014)

1. Race/Ethnicity

Privileges associated with an individual’s race/ethnicity is considered unearned. Historically, racial privilege was based upon the dominant culture. However, all races and ethnicities have some form of privilege; though, some have more than others (Parillo, 2007)

2. Socioeconomic Privilege

- a. Socioeconomic privilege includes individual attitudes, behaviors, and systems of policies and practices that are set up to benefit the upper classes at the expense of the lower classes.

- b. Socioeconomic privilege, also known as classism or elitism, is grounded in a hierarchy belief system that ranks people according to socioeconomic status, family lineage, and other class related divisions. (Parillo, 2007)

3. Sexual Orientation Privilege

- a. Sexual orientation privilege is associated with the marginalization of non-heterosexual lifestyles and the view that heterosexuality is the normal sexual orientation. Instances of this include the idea that people fall into two distinct and complementary categories (male and female), that sexual and marital relations are normal only when between people of different sexes, and that each sex has certain natural roles in life.
- b. Department of Defense Directive 1020.02, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the Department of Defense* (2009) establishes policy, assigns responsibilities, and provides an overarching framework for DoD diversity, military EO, and civilian equal employment opportunity (EEO) programs and plans to prevent unlawful discrimination.
- c. In July 2014, President Obama signed an Executive Order banning Federal contractors from discriminating against employees on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity (CNN Politics, 2014).
- d. All Service members, regardless of sexual orientation, are entitled to an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. Harassment or abuse based on sexual orientation is unacceptable and will be dealt with through command or IG channels.
- e. However, perceived privileges associated with sexual orientation are evident in today's society.
- f. Historically, a heterosexual orientation came with certain privileges, such as:
 - 1) Public recognition and support for an intimate relationship
 - 2) Kissing, hugging, and being affectionate in public without threat or punishment
- g. As an EOA, it is important to note that sexual orientation **will not** be considered with race, color, religion, sex, and national origin as a class under the Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) program and will not be handled through the MEO complaint process.
- h. Executive Order 11478, section 1 prohibits discrimination in employment based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, handicap, or age, and to promote the full realization of equal employment opportunity through a continuing affirmative program in each executive department and agency. This policy of equal opportunity applies to and must be an integral part of every aspect of personnel policy and practice in the employment,

development, advancement, and treatment of civilian employees of the Federal Government.

4. Sex (Biological)

- a. Sex privilege is a term used to describe the perceived freedoms granted to a person (normally heterosexual) based upon their biological sex (e.g. public displays of affection, etc.).
- b. Transsexual, transgender, and sometimes homosexual populations, are denied the freedom enjoyed by heterosexual couples.

5. Religion

- a. Religious privilege is seen in a society that provides its dominant religion special status. The favoring of religious beliefs and religious figures is predominating within a society.
- b. Many societies privilege religions by providing official sanction and support for their holy days. Religious holy days have become official state holidays.

The U.S. Constitution proscribes Congress from enacting any law prohibiting the free exercise of religion.

c. Religious Accommodation in the DoD

As described in DoDI 1300.17, *Accommodation of Religious Practices Within the Military Services*, the DoD places a high value on the rights of members of the military services to observe the tenets of their respective religions. It is DoD policy that requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on mission accomplishment, military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.

Note: Federal government employees can file claims of discrimination under the Part 1614 EEO process on any of the bases covered under the laws EEOC enforces, and/or may also utilize additional complaint procedures described in EEO law.

F. Recall Social Dominance Theory (Dominate Group Privilege)

In your role as an EOA, specifically when assessing the organizational climate or even processing a complaint, you should be aware of some potential privileges associated with dominant groups. These privileges cause concern when they influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The theory behind social dominance in our society will help shed light on some issues and concerns seen by an EOA.

1. Social Dominance Theory

- a. According to social dominance theory, societies are organized into group-based hierarchies with inequitable distributions of limited resources favoring dominant groups at the expense of subordinates (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- b. Social dominance theory proposes that societies contain ideologies that either promote or attenuate intergroup hierarchies (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).
- c. The acceptance of ideologies that legitimize inequality and its associated behavior is partly determined by people's general desire for group-based dominance, which is captured by a construct associated with dominant group privilege. This allows the dominant group to maintain control and their privileges.

2. Privilege and Discrimination

- a. Within social dominance theory, individual and structural distinctions are made among groups based on gender and—arbitrary-set distinctions such as race, ethnicity, class, nationality, or religion (Sidanius et al., 2004, p. 861).
- b. Dominant groups derive psychological and material rewards from the privileges, esteem, and power they receive in the traditional status of hierarchy (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- c. Social dominance theory indicates that constant group-based oppression can influence systematic institutional and individual discrimination (Levin, 2004).
- d. Many social institutions, such as organizations, and powerful individuals disproportionately allocate (control) desired goods, such as selection for employment, power, and prestige, to members of dominant and privileged groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- e. Institutional discrimination can be accounted for in terms of consensual discrimination based upon specific societal norms embodied in the institution, which prescribe the nature and extent of this discrimination (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).

3. Dominant Group Demographics

The dominant group is the group with more power and privilege over minority groups. According to the 2012 statistics from the U.S. Census Bureau, the dominant groups within the United States are:

- Race: White alone, not Hispanic or Latino = 63%
 - Gender: Females = 50.8%
- a. From a statistical perspective, White females are narrowly identified as the dominant group. However, when identifying the dominant group (the group with the power and

perceived privilege) within a society, we sometimes have to look beyond the statistics and focus on who has the power and privilege.

- b. Understanding this concept can help an EOA understand the social dynamic of an organization during climate assessments and any possible discriminatory practices or behaviors associated with privilege.

G. Recognize and Address the Negative Effects of Power and Privilege

The following strategies will help the EOA recognize and address, as required, the negative effects of power and privilege.

1. Be aware of your surroundings. See if you can identify inequality, based upon power and privilege, while at work, watching television, listening to the news, or playing video games.

In day-to-day operations, keep in mind that privilege exists and it is real. However, it may not be overt.

2. Point out instances in which members of groups other than your own are being hampered by their exclusion from privilege.
3. Consider making a statement, write a letter, post a blog, or generate discussions/dialogue on instances of privilege that create inequality.
4. Acknowledge your privilege when it is pointed out to you and take that opportunity to learn something new about privilege.
5. Privilege will never go away until the systems in our society that cause discrimination go away.

In your own daily life, work to make those inequitable systems visible and call them into question when you can so that someday we all enjoy the benefits of being on equal footing with each other.

6. Address privilege philosophies that can influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The following can be associated behavior of an individual or group of people who may have a privileged identity as described by Sherry K. Watt (2001) in her paper “Difficult Dialogues, Privilege and Social Justice: Uses of the Privileged Identity Exploration (PIE) Model,” in *The College Student Affairs Journal*:

- a. Denial
Persons displaying denial may acknowledge the injustice, but make contradictory statements that indicate that they are having difficulty accepting it as a reality.

b. Minimization

To represent as having at a least degree of importance or value.

Today some dominant group members might talk about race and gender issues and minimize racism and sexism by saying, “Personal achievement mostly depends on personal ability. Racism or sexism isn’t prevalent anymore.”

c. Deflection

A person employing a Deflection defense may make a comment that avoids coming to terms with the realities of racism or heterosexism by deflecting the focus toward a less threatening target such as another individual or institution.

d. Rationalization

This defense can be identified by behavior in which an individual supplies a logical response regarding why atrocities happen in the realm of racism, sexism, heterosexism, and ableism.

An individual might present an alternative reason that does not require him or her to explore the roots of injustice in more depth.

e. Intellectualization

An Intellectualization defense can be identified when a person avoids feeling dissonant by focusing on the intellectual aspects associated with the topics of social injustice.

Goodman’s example of intellectualization can lead us to understand that intellectualization can be used to not only project power, but to also guard against the loss of it.

f. Principium

This defense can be identified by behaviors where one is avoiding exploration based on a religious or personal principle.

A person using this philosophy might state, “I find it upsetting and disheartening that homosexuals, or anyone for that matter, would have to bear such injustices. However, I do not believe that it is an injustice or discriminatory act to not allow homosexuals couples to cross the threshold of qualifications to be married.”

g. Benevolence

A Benevolence defense is when one presents behavior that displays an overly sensitive attitude toward a social and political issue based on a charity act.

7. Become Personally Aware of Privilege
 - a. To decode your social identity, examine your memberships in empowered groups:
 - 1) Consider the associated privileges.
 - 2) Think about how you define what is normal.
 - 3) Realize that accepting your privileges can make you uncomfortable.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations you use to justify privilege, and identify the logical flaws or personal dissonance.
 - b. Examine your memberships in marginalized groups:
 - 1) Consider the associated disadvantages of group membership.
 - 2) Think about the aspects of your social identity that makes you different than normal.
 - 3) Become aware of and understand the coping strategies you use to maintain self-esteem in relation to your membership.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations that others use to justify your disadvantages, and identify the logical flaws.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define power.
- B. Identify the types of power.
- C. Identify the misuse (abuse) abuse of power.
- D. Define privilege.
- E. Recall the types of privilege.
- F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).
- G. Recall the strategies to recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3050

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Recognizing personal prejudice and acts of discrimination is an important responsibility of an EOA. This lesson emphasizes how prejudice and discrimination impact society and the military. It is imperative to identify acts of illegal discrimination and take immediate action to resolve them. As an EOA, you must recognize how the manifestation of personal prejudice and the acts of discrimination can adversely impact leadership, unit cohesion, and mission accomplishment. This course includes one lesson of instruction.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 3050 Prejudice and Discrimination
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, comprehend how prejudice and discrimination can impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define prejudice.	K	CRT
B. Describe the levels of prejudice.	K	CRT
C. Define discrimination.	K	CRT
D. Describe the types of discrimination.	K	CRT
E. Describe institutional discrimination.	K	CRT
F. Describe the categories of prejudice and discrimination.	K	CRT
G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.	K	CRT
H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION

A. Definition of Prejudice

Preferred definition: Prejudice as an unreasonable negative attitude toward others because of their membership in a particular group. The quality that makes an attitude unreasonable is that it does not readily get modified when exposed to new and conflicting information (Fishbein, 2002, p. 5).

B. Levels of Prejudice

1. Cognitive prejudice

Refers to a stereotype. Whether favorable or unfavorable, a stereotype is an overgeneralization or exaggeration that ignores individual differences within a group.

2. Emotional prejudice

Refers to emotions and feelings of hostility or liking. Might be found in attitudes toward members of particular classes such as race, ethnicity, national origin, or creed.

3. An action-oriented level of prejudice

The positive or negative predisposition to engage in discriminatory behavior.

C. Define Discrimination

Discrimination is unfairly treating a person or group of people differently from other people or groups of people (Merriam-Webster Online, 2014).

The six basis of discrimination in accordance with DoDD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*, are race, color, national origin, sex, religion, and sexual orientation. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended includes age and disability.

D. Types of Discrimination

1. Type A: Isolate Discrimination

Occurs when an individual purposely acts to harm members of another group.

2. Type B – Small-Group Discrimination

Harmful action taken intentionally by a small number of dominant-group individuals acting

in concert against members of another group, without the direct support of the norms and of most social or community context.

3. Type C – Direct Institutionalized Discrimination

Defined as organizationally prescribed or community-prescribed action that by intention has a differential and negative impact on members of another group. These actions are not sporadic but are carried out routinely by a large number of members of another group guided by the legal or informal norms of the immediate organizational or community context.

4. Type D – Indirect Institutionalized Discrimination

Consists of dominant-group practices having a harmful impact on members of another group even though the organizationally or community-prescribed norms or regulations guiding those actions have been established with no intent to harm.

E. Institutional Discrimination

1. Carried out by the dominant group against non-dominant groups because it is the dominant group that generally controls the social institutions. Impact of institutional discrimination can be seen in society and the military (Plous, 2009).

2. Impact on Society – Employment

- a. Hiring practices such as last hired, first fired; higher likelihood that members will be fired during job layoffs because they were the most recently hired.
- b. Education requirements – Individuals who have been segregated to lesser funded schools cannot find employment in businesses that hire according to specified credentials that inferior schools do not offer.

3. Impact on Society – Housing

- a. Steering – A practice that may be used to place minorities in predominately minority neighborhoods.
- b. Red lining – Specifically used by insurance companies to discriminate against individuals living within specific areas (Housing and Urban Development).
- c. Zoning – Practice of marking areas of land and establishing specific restrictions affecting racial demographics.

4. Impact on Society – Education

- a. Testing – Tests used to measure the academic standing of students that may have inherent

cultural bias.

- b. Textbooks – School boards select textbooks. Many textbooks presently in use provide little or no information on minority groups, their minority histories, and contributions that minorities have made to American culture.
- c. Teacher Testing/Hiring – Historically minorities have lower scores than the majority on teacher qualifying tests, and thus, do not qualify for teaching positions.

5. Impact on the Military: Individual

- a. Individual Recruitment – Based on gender, test scores, education level, moral waivers, and regional recruitment.
- b. Retention – Some career fields are closed to women.

6. Impact on the Military: Unit

- a. Unit Readiness – In the Navy during the Civil War, African Americans were restricted to positions of servants, cooks, assistant gunners, or powder boys. During WWI, Filipinos (who were denied U.S. citizenship) served in the Navy as cooks, waiters, pantry-men, dishwashers, custodians, bed-makers, and valets.
- b. Mission Effectiveness – Statistics show Whites are the majority in senior leadership positions (i.e., flag officers, general officers, and Senior Executive Service) and lend itself to the perpetuation of racism. What appears as discriminatory is that the percentages of non-Whites and females in military high ranking positions are significantly lower than the general population.

F. Basis of Discrimination

The following basis of discrimination descriptions were taken from the U.S. Equal Opportunity Employment Commission:

1. Race discrimination

This involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because he/she is of a certain race or because of personal characteristics associated with race such as hair texture, skin color, or certain facial features.

2. Color discrimination involves treating someone unfavorably because of skin color complexion.

- a. Race/color discrimination also can involve treating someone unfavorably because the person is married to (or associated with) a person of a certain race or color or because of

- a person's connection with a race-based organization or group, or an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain color.
- b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same race or color.
3. Sex discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of that person's sex. Can involve treating someone less favorably because of his/her connection with an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain sex.
 4. Religious discrimination involves treating a person (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of his/ her religious beliefs.
 - a. The law protects not only people who belong to traditional, organized religions, such as Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, and Judaism, but also others who have sincerely held religious, ethical, or moral beliefs.
 - b. Religious discrimination also involves treating someone differently because that person is married to (or associated with) an individual of a particular religion or because of his/her connection with a religious organization or group.
 5. National origin discrimination involves treating people (applicants or employees) unfavorably because they are from a particular country or part of the world, because of ethnicity or accent, or because they appear to be of a certain ethnic background.
 - a. National origin discrimination also involves treating people unfavorably because they are married to (or associated with) a person of a certain national origin or because of their connection with an ethnic organization or group.
 - b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same national origin.
 6. Disability discrimination occurs when an employer or other entity covered by the Americans with Disabilities Act, as amended, or the Rehabilitation Act, as amended, treats a qualified individual with a disability who is an employee or applicant unfavorably because they have a disability.
 - a. Disability discrimination also occurs when a covered employer or other entity treats an applicant or employee less favorably because they have a history of a disability (such as cancer that is controlled or in remission) or because they believed to have a physical or mental impairment that is not transitory (lasting or expected to last six months or less) and minor (even if his/she does not have such an impairment).
 - b. The law requires an employer to provide reasonable accommodation to an employee or job applicant with a disability, unless doing so would cause significant difficulty or expense for the employer (i.e., undue hardship).

- c. The law also protects people from discrimination based on their relationship with a person with a disability (even if they do not themselves have a disability). For example, it is illegal to discriminate against an employee because his/her spouse has a disability.
7. Age discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) less favorably because of his/her age.
 - a. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) only forbids age discrimination against people who are age 40 or older. It does not protect workers under the age of 40, although some states do have laws that protect younger workers from age discrimination.
 - b. It is not illegal for an employer or other covered entity to favor an older worker over a younger one, even if both workers are age 40 or older.
 - c. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are both over 40.
8. Sexual orientation discrimination refers to a person's emotional, romantic, and sexual attraction to individuals of a particular gender (male or female). Sometimes referred to as sexual preference, though this term adds the concept of sexuality as fluid and incorporates the element of choice. Sexual identity is often interpreted as describing an individual's perception of their own sex, rather than sexual orientation. (American Psychological Association)
 - a. People are classified as heterosexual if their sexual focus is primarily people of the opposite sex/gender, homosexual if it is people of the same sex/gender, and bisexual if it is both men and women. Terms straight, gay, and lesbian are less formal terms; used by people to describe themselves and their friends and family. Sexual orientation discrimination occurs in the workplace because of prejudices among employees, preconceived notions, or misunderstandings of legally binding protections. Employees expect to be treated according to their role and performance at work, not their sexual orientation.
 - b. Federal laws protect employees from discrimination and/or harassment on the basis of many factors. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawed discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 provide protections for people based on age or disabilities.
 - c. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) Federal employees are protected by Executive Order 11478, as amended by Executive Order 13087, signed by President Clinton in 1998, to protect against discrimination over sexual preference in hiring, firing and promoting federal employees.

9. Specific manifestations of prejudice and discrimination can be found in the following basis of discrimination in accordance with DoDD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program* and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act as amended:
- a. Race
 - b. Color
 - c. Religion
 - d. Sex
 - e. National origin
 - f. Age
 - g. Disability h. Sexual Orientation

10. The DoD Human Goals Charter (2014) states

...We strive:

To make military service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion or national origin. To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

Executive order 13087 has made it illegal to discriminate against Federal civilians because of sexual orientation.

11. The DoD Human Goals Charter further states

...We strive:

To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, or genetic information, without reprisal and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

G. How Prejudice and Discrimination Can Manifest

1. In-group versus Out-group
 - a. In-group (most like me) = In-group bias
 - b. Out-group (least like me) = Out-group homogeneity

2. Social Learning and Conformity

- a. Laws, regulations, and norms of segregation or unequal access, which maintain the power of dominant groups over subordinate ones
- b. Mass media – Media's portrayal of racial and ethnic groups may be a person's principal source of information. If the media communicates primarily in stereotypes and the viewer has little opportunity for personal contact with members of that minority, the probability of the stereotype becoming the reality to the viewer is high.
- c. Educational system – Schools share responsibility for socializing groups of young people in particular skills and values in our society.
- d. Structure and functioning of work organizations.
- e. Actively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Verbally or physically harassing target group members
 - 2) Telling oppressive or offensive jokes
 - 3) Perpetuating stereotypes
 - 4) Avoiding out group
 - 5) Considering prejudice and discrimination to be a thing of the past
- f. Inactively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Condoning or accepting the status quo
 - 2) Ignoring acts of discrimination
 - 3) Integrated Threat Theory – perceived group threat or perceptions of threatened group interests occur when in-group members see an out-group as posing negative consequences to the interests of their in-group.
 - a) Realistic Threats – threats to political, economic, physical or material well-being of in-group
 - b) Symbolic Threats – perceived threats to in-groups morals, values, standards, beliefs and attitudes
 - c) Intergroup Anxiety – fear about negative outcomes for self, such as being embarrassed, rejected or ridiculed

- d) Stereotypes – when expectations are negative, conflict or unpleasant interactions are likely to be anticipated

H. Describe How Power Affects Prejudice and Discrimination

Power is at the core of discrimination. Without power, discrimination is ineffective. With power, discrimination maintains the dominance of one group over the other (Plous, 2009).

In most circumstances of discrimination, both power and prejudice lie beneath. Although prejudice and discrimination are related concepts, one does not automatically mean that the other is present.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define prejudice.
- B. Describe the levels of prejudice.
- C. Define discrimination.
- D. Describe types of discrimination.
- E. Describe institutional discrimination.
- F. Describe the basis of prejudice and discrimination.
- G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.
- H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3100

RACISM



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to ensure that each student can form the necessary framework to understand sources, causes, forms, and contemporary manifestations of racism, racial discrimination, and related intolerance issues. Emphasis is placed on the different definitions of race and the significance of the social definition of race. The instructor will combine an overview of the lesson plan 3100 Racism lecture's key points with small group activities designed to reinforce these key points and strengthen the learner's comprehension of how this knowledge impacts the duties of an EOA.

Recommended Reading

1. *Historical Overview of Racism in the Military*
2. *American Anthropological Association Statement on "Race"*

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 3100 Racism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, comprehend how racism can impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define race.	K	CRT
B. Define racism.	K	CRT
C. Describe types of racism.	C	CRT
D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.	K	CRT
F. Recognize racist behavior.	K	CRT
G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.	C	CRT
H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.	K	CRT
I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
The House We Live In	To increase student knowledge and awareness of racism and its impact on individuals.	ISDE

RACISM**A. Define Race**

1. “A division of human beings identified by the possession of traits that are transmissible by descent and that are sufficient to characterize persons possessing these traits as a distinctive human genotype” (DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, p. 19).
2. A group of people who are generally considered to be physically distinct in some way (e.g., skin color, hair texture, or facial features such as size and shape of the head, eyes, ears, lips, nose, color of eyes) from other groups and are generally considered by themselves and/or others to be a distinct group (Farley, 1995).
3. In October 1997, the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) announced the revised standards for federal data on race and ethnicity. The categories for race are now:
 - a. American Indian or Alaska Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - e. White
 - f. **Note:** Ethnicity: Hispanic or Latino; Not Hispanic or Latino

B. Define Racism

“Any attitude, belief, behavior, or institutional arrangement that favors one race or ethnic group (usually a majority group) over another (usually a minority group; Farley, 1995)”

“Any action or attitude, conscious or unconscious, which subordinates an individual or group based on skin color or race (treats as if of less value or importance; Ford, 1994, p. 11)”

Common elements of racism:

1. Prejudice and discrimination based on differences
2. A belief in the superiority of one over another

C. Types of Racism

Types

1. Individual Racism: Belief that one's own race is superior to another (racial prejudice) and exhibits behaviors that suppress the inferior race (racial discrimination).
 - a. Examples of *racist attitudes* include bigotry, belittling, and jealousy.
 - b. Examples of *racist beliefs* include racial stereotyping, classifying people according to race, and thinking that some races are better than others.
 - c. Examples of *racist behavior* include violence, name-calling, and discrimination in hiring practices.
2. Institutional Racism: Takes the form of the practices, customs, rules, and standards of organizations, including governments that unnecessarily disadvantage people because of their race, color, or ethnicity.
 - a. Consists of established laws, customs, and practices that systematically reflect and produce racial inequalities in U.S. society.
 - b. Is embedded in policies that have generally become accepted as normal, and might have or might have not have been intentionally written to practice racism.
 - c. More subtle, less visible, and less identifiable than individual acts of racism. Managers may not be racists as individuals, but they may discriminate as part of carrying out their jobs, without being aware their role is contributing to a discriminatory outcome.

D. Difference between Intentional and Unintentional Racism

Forms of Racism (Kinder & Sears, 1981)

1. Intentional or unintentional racism is due to social relationships between people which are structured by perceived biological and/or cultural differences.
2. Intentional racism is a conscious act, usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
3. Unintentional racism is an unconscious act not usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm. It is still damaging. Prejudice underlies the end result.
4. Examples include:

- a. A White waiter who serves a Hispanic patron last even though the Hispanic person put an order in first. This could be *intentional or unintentional racism* depending on whether or not the waiter was aware of what she/he was doing.
- b. A police officer who handles an African American suspect much more roughly or the bombing of a Black church describe *intentional or conscious racism* because they are motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
- c. A teacher's conveyance of beliefs/prejudices can be *unintentional or unconscious*. A lack of understanding of the student's background leads the teacher to misjudge the student through his or her own cultural lens. As a result, the student does poorly in the class.

E. Difference between Overt and Covert Racism

1. Overt racism – Blatant, obvious, and almost always meant to harm; can lead to mental and physical injury, violent destruction, or even death (Scarville, 1997).
2. Covert racism – Hidden, usually subtle, difficult to document treatment which proves harmful to members of subordinate racial groups (Scarville, 1997). Originates within established and respected forces in society, therefore, receives far less public condemnation.
 - a. Often oblivious to the victim, but not as overt as traditional forms of racism
 - b. Can be individual or institutional
 - c. More widespread in the United States today than overt racism, but is still very damaging
 - d. Includes sabotage, tokenism, and is almost always intentional

F. Racist Behavior

1. Definition of Racist
 - a. A person who believes that a particular race is superior to another (Oxford Dictionary, 2010).
 - b. Someone who does not like or respect people who belong to races that are different from their own and who believes their race is better than others (MacMillan Dictionary, 2010).
2. Racist Behavior (Gaertner & Dovidio, 1986)

- a. All racist behavior falls into the sociological phenomena of groups and power dynamics. It is a tool for domination and social control, a psychological tool for dominating one group over another.
- b. Racist behavior can be:
 - 1) Directed toward an individual or group.
 - 2) Intentional (conscious).
 - 3) Unintentional (unconscious).
 - 4) Based on skin color, ethnicity, or race.
 - 5) Perpetrated by an individual and/or an institution.
- c. Examples of racism include graffiti, racial and ethnic slurs, jokes, intimidation, and physical violence.

3. Contemporary Models

Racist Behavior				
Models of Racism				
	TRADITIONAL	SYMBOLIC (circa 1965)	MODERN (circa 1978)	AVERSIVE (circa 1986 – Today)
Ideology	Biological Superiority	Individual Effort is Key To Success	People Get What They Deserve	All People Should Have Equal Political, Social, & Economic Rights
Beliefs about minorities	Innately Inferior	Could Succeed if Worked Harder	Undeserving of Special Efforts to Redress Past Inequities	Victims of Past Injustices
Attitude toward discrimination	Deemed Justifiable & Desirable	Systematic Barriers to Advancement Ignored	A Thing of The Past	Non-Discriminatory Practices Favored
Attitude toward policies that address racial equality	Affront To Superior Status	Threat to The Cultural Ideals That Symbolize American Ethics	Violation of Norms and Fairness	Publicly Supported
Behavioral Consequences	Bigoted Language, Overt Discrimination, Violence	Opposition to Policies Designed to Promote Racial Equality	Opposition to Policies Designed to Promote Racial Equality	Avoidance, Interracial Anxiety, Unintentional Discrimination

- a. Subtle racism appears nonracial on the surface.

Beneath surface are negative attitudes and stereotyped beliefs that affect personal interactions. In organizations, subtle racism has a negative impact on interpersonal relations and breeds institutional racism.

b. Forms of subtle racism – Traditional, symbolic, modern, and aversive

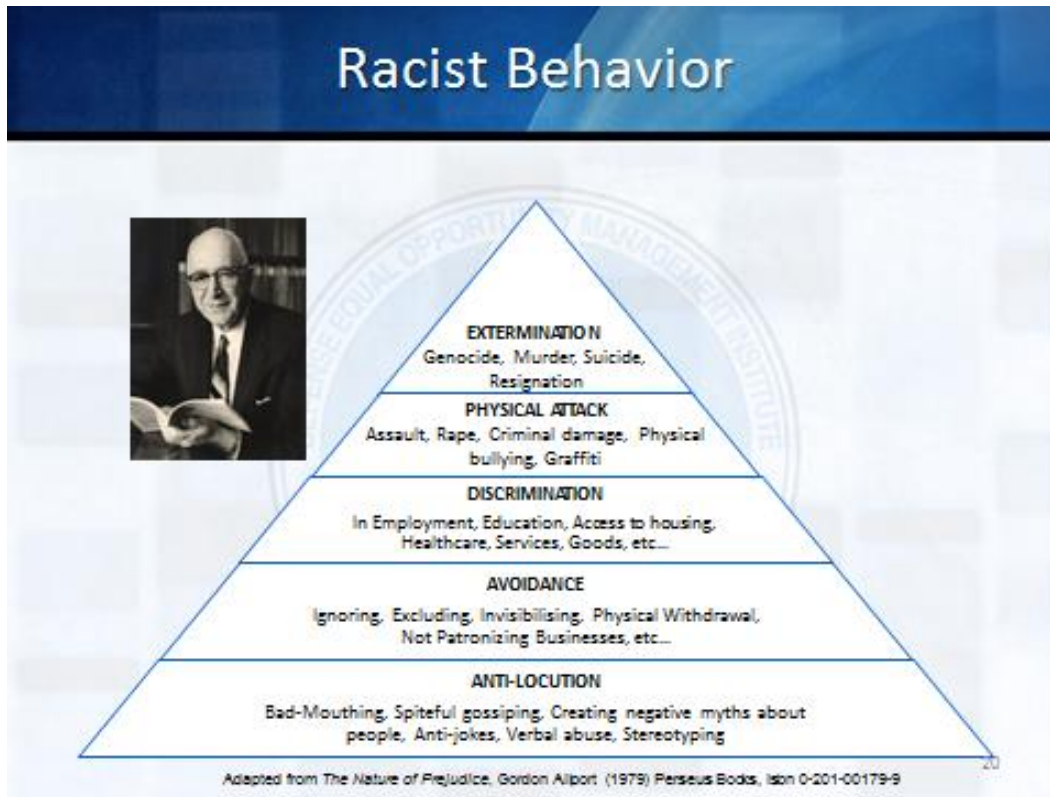
- 1) Traditional: Individual with traditional racist attitudes who acted out bigoted beliefs. Racial attitude measures were comprised of items attempting to assess the presence of prejudice, hostility, and derogatory beliefs.

After about 1965, however, standard racial attitude measures had two problems. First, by the middle 1960s, most White people knew the socially desirable answers so that the then standard items were more likely to trigger politically correct responses than valid attitudes. Second, that generation of items did not correlate well with what should have been racially relevant behavior, for example, reported voting intentions or hiring decisions. Replacement items were then developed. The new items that correlated best with racially relevant behavior were those of an abstract, moral tone, or items that used code words or symbols for blacks. These items were thought to tap a new form of racism called “symbolic racism.” (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414–431)

- 2) Symbolic: These are abstract, moral tone, code words, or symbols for races. New surveys tapped into this new form of racism. Replacement items were developed that correlated best with racially relevant behavior (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414–431).
- 3) Modern: Symbolic racism was renamed as “modern racism” (1978) to emphasize the contemporary nature. The principal tenets of modern racism are:
 - a) Discrimination is a thing of the past; blacks now have the freedom to compete in the marketplace and to enjoy those things they can afford.
 - b) Blacks are pushing too hard, too fast, and into places where they are not wanted.
 - c) Tactics and demands of activists are unfair.
 - d) Recent gains are undeserved.
 - e) Prestige granting institutions of society are giving Blacks more attention and status than they deserve.
 - f) Racism is bad.
 - g) Beliefs of modern racism do not qualify as racist because they are alleged to be empirically grounded (McConahay, 1986, pp. 91–126).

- h) Those whose beliefs are described as modern racism do not define their own beliefs and attitudes as racist.
- 4) Aversive: Around 1986, the concept of “aversive racism” began to emerge. According to this orientation, many White Americans with strong egalitarian values simultaneously have negative feelings and beliefs about Blacks. Attitudes need not be consistent and in this case may be the result of conflict between cognition and socialization. Aversive racists put high value on egalitarian beliefs; contradiction between those feelings and racial attitudes was handled by excluding the racist feelings from awareness. They typically avoid close contact with minorities or communicate their underlying negative attitudes in subtle, rationalizable ways. They are also negatively likely to be demonstrated in discomfort, uneasiness, fear, or avoidance of minorities rather than in outward hostility. It is difficult to document aversive racism through the techniques of behavioral research. (Gaertner, 1986, pp. 61–89)
4. Contemporary Views on Racism
- a. Many U.S. Americans have widely divergent views on whether a problem even exists.
 - b. Most minorities see racism as a problem and many feel it has gotten worse.
 - c. Racism is often invisible to many White Americans in the U.S. for several general reasons:
 - 1) They suffer less from it.
 - 2) They do not attribute their misfortune to race.
 - 3) They do not always see the suffering that minorities endure.
5. Acting Out
- a. Gordon Allport’s (1979) five intensity levels of hostile actions:
 - 1) Antilocution
 - 2) Avoidance
 - 3) Discrimination
 - 4) Physical Attack
 - 5) Extermination

- b. Antilocution – Most people who have prejudices talk about them to like-minded friends and occasionally with strangers (e.g., bad-mouthing, name calling), but many never go beyond this mild degree of hostile action.
- c. Avoidance – As prejudice becomes more intense, it leads to avoiding members in the disliked group—even if inconvenient. The prejudiced person does not directly harm the disliked person or group. They take on the burden of accommodation and withdrawal. Examples of avoidance include maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, or asking for a transfer.
- d. Discrimination – The prejudiced person makes detrimental distinctions by actively excluding all members of the group in question from certain types of employment, residential housing, unequal pay for equal work, giving awards or job assignments based on race, political rights, educational or recreational opportunities, churches, hospitals, or other social privileges.
- e. Physical Attack – The majority group vandalizes, burns, or destroys minority group property and carries out violent attacks on individuals or groups. Emotional prejudice leads to acts of violence or semi-violence. Examples of physical attacks include knockout games, unwanted family of another race may be forcibly ejected from a neighborhood or so severely threatened that they leave in fear; this was seen in Nazi Germany during WWII. Gravestones in cemeteries may be desecrated or other property vandalized.
- f. Extermination – The majority group seeks extermination or removal of minority group. Examples of extermination include the Wounded Knee Massacre in 1890, an event that ended the last of the Native American Indian wars in American history, marks the ultimate degree of violent expression of prejudice; the Final Solution towards the later part of WWII killing millions of Jews by the Nazis in Germany; Ethnic Cleansing in Bosnia; and Saddam’s attempt to exterminate the Kurds in Northern Iraq.



G. Internal and External Factors that Contribute to Racism

1. Internal Factors

- a. Lack of understanding of the history, experiences, values, and perceptions of ethnic groups other than one's own.
- b. Stereotyping members of an ethnic group without consideration of individual differences within that group.
- c. Ethnocentrism is judging other ethnic groups according to the standards and values of one's own group.
- d. Assigning negative attributes to members of other ethnic groups.

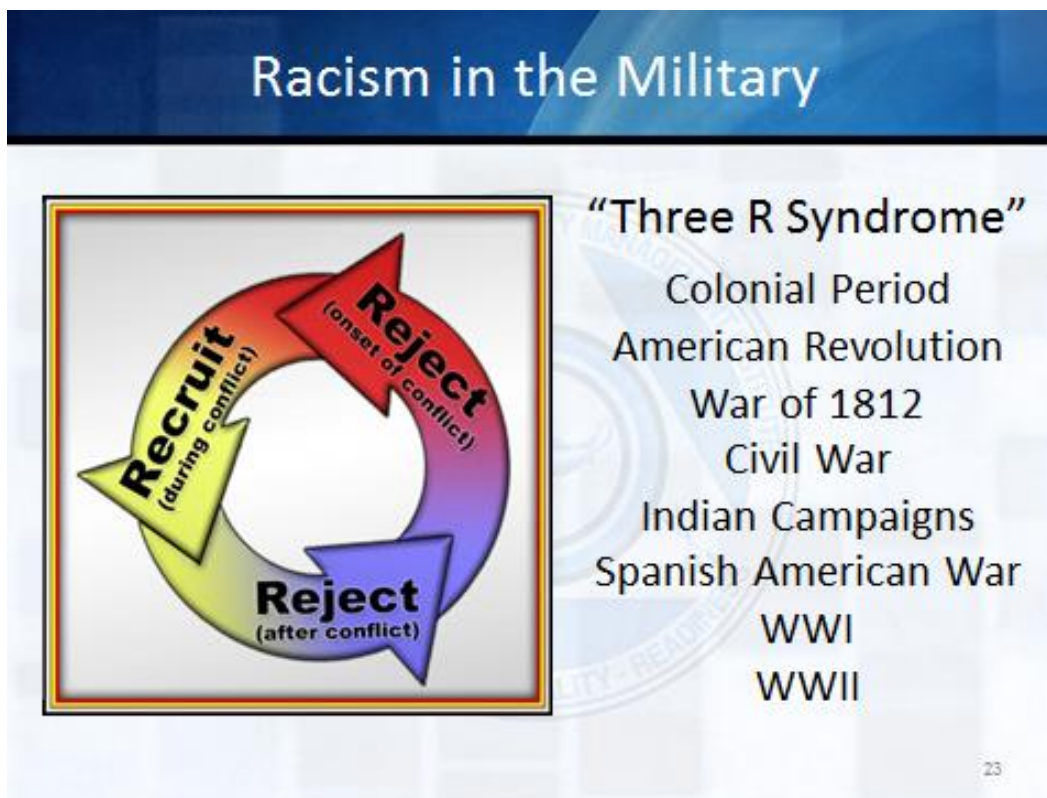
2. External Factors

- a. Family, peers, and friends are very important influences on the development of individual racism.
- b. Social visibility – Differences in physical appearance are easiest differences to identify and use for discrimination.

- c. Contact – The amount and kind of contact develops racial thinking; ideas tend to be vague and partially attributable to ethnocentrism.
- d. Mass media – Television, newspapers, magazines, radio, and the Internet—major sources of stereotypical images.
- e. Unequal power – When groups of unequal power interrelate, the stronger group tends to dominate the weaker group. The dominant group resists sharing its powers.
- f. Competition – This occurs when two or more individuals are striving for the same, and sometimes scarce, resources; certain groups look at other groups as a threat if they obtain control of one or more of the resources.

H. Historical Events that Contributed to Racism in the Military

1. The “Three R Syndrome”



- a. Reject – Minorities were not allowed to enlist in the armed services at the onset of periods of hostilities.
- b. Recruit – When the need for military personnel increased because of manpower demands and insufficient numbers, minorities were recruited, usually during a conflict and after

enormous casualties. After induction, most minorities were segregated, poorly trained, and/or relegated to low levels or hazardous jobs.

- c. Reject – When hostilities were over, the units were disbanded and the racial minorities were released from any requirements to serve, despite any desire to continue service. In some cases, minorities were denied veterans' benefits.

2. Impact of the “Three R Syndrome”

- a. In colonial times, laws excluded minorities from being provided with arms and/or ammunition. Basis of this was fear of slave revolts that would upset the colonists' economic security and way of life and reverse the roles.
- b. Militia Act of 1792 restricted militia enrollment to only free and able white male citizens.
- c. Marine Corps (1798) adopted a policy forbidding the enlistment of Negroes, Mulattos, and American Indians. Policy remained in effect until 1942.

3. Quota systems

The U.S. Navy had a quota of 5% Blacks until it was forced to be lifted during the Civil War because of a massive personnel shortage.

4. Segregation

- a. Hispanic men were placed in either White or colored units based on their skin color.
- b. Navy Steward's Branch included 72% of all African Americans in the Navy during WWII.
- c. Even after the Fair Employment Practices Commission was established in 1941, the Marines continued to operate segregated basic and field trainings.
- d. Japanese Americans serving in WWII were restricted to the European Theatre due to the leadership's allegations of disloyalty and belief they could not be trusted to fight the Japanese in the Pacific Theatre.

5. Hazardous Duties

- a. American Indians fought both for and against the United States during various conflicts, serving as infantrymen, code talkers, sharpshooters, guides, guerrillas, and spies.
- b. Port Chicago Naval Base, California. On July 17, 1944: 202 African American enlisted men were killed and another 233 were injured when two transport vessels loading ammunition suddenly exploded. This accounted for almost 15% of all Black naval casualties during WWII. Protesters were tried and sentenced for mutiny.

c. In WWI, Filipinos served as dishwashers, custodians, bed makers, and valets.

6. Historical Examples

- a. Minorities could only serve in the lower pay grades.
- b. Some White officers sacrificed higher rank because they refused to command Black men.
- c. An institutional climate of acceptable discrimination allowed individual racism to flourish.

7. Desegregation

President Harry S. Truman ordered the desegregation of the Armed Services in July 1948, with Executive Order 9981. The order declared equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the Armed Services with regard to race, color, religion, or national origin. He also established the Gillem Board to determine the best way to integrate the Services.

I. Strategies to Combat Racism in the Military

1. Combating Racism

- a. Awareness – Groups are aware and are making others aware of the existence of individual and institutional racism in its contemporary and subtle forms. Within the unit, celebrations such as National American Indian Heritage Month and Black History Month help promote awareness of the contributions these groups have made to the military and the United States.
- b. Education – Awareness is facilitated through education. Courses, small group discussions, workshops, guest speakers, and movies provide educational opportunities for the unit. Topics related to racism can be addressed, including how racism dehumanizes people, the tremendous financial costs of racism, and contemporary racism.
- c. Participation – An inclusive model of decision-making that is representative of all people promotes diversity and aids in the reduction of racial stereotyping. Active commitment by leadership to initiatives that encourage members of all groups to take advantage of programs and services on base, such as mentoring programs, special interest clubs, and other organizations will also combat racism.
- d. Legislation – Federal, state, and local programs and laws written to ensure equal opportunity for all U.S. citizens. **DoD Directive 1350.2 defines the policy of nondiscrimination in the military.** It sets the standard for all programs, chain of command, responsibilities, and etc. for equal opportunity. Legislative programs and laws

simultaneously provide benefits for significant parts of the majority and for deprived minorities.

- e. Mass Media – Media programs have had positive effect in reducing prejudice. It is an excellent medium to attack prejudicial attitudes and prevent discrimination. Public service announcements, public relations materials, and advertisements that positively depict the diversity of the military and that encourage everyone from all walks of life to enlist are beneficial.
- f. Change – There have been significant positive changes for most racial groups in this country. However, there is still a long way to go to ensure equal opportunity is afforded to all groups. Through proactive actions EOAs can be change agents or champions of changes.

2. Leadership

- a. Leaders set standards that create an environment for everyone to excel free of hostility, intimidation, and unfair treatment. Climate and behavior of an organization is an indicator about the attitudes and actions demonstrated by leaders.
- b. Leadership actions to effectively reduce and eliminate racist behavior:
 - 1) Establish policies prohibiting racist behaviors and racial discrimination.
 - 2) Provide thorough investigations of informal and formal complaints.
 - 3) Adhere to established timelines for complaint investigations.
 - 4) Enforce penalties against offenders.
 - 5) Enforce penalties against unit commanders or other superiors who allow racist behaviors to continue.
 - 6) Ensure information moves up the chain of command on problems and incidents relating to racist behaviors.
 - 7) Protect those who make complaints by ensuring reprisal is not occurring. Ensure all information is a need to know basis.
 - 8) Publicize the availability of hotlines for complaints.
 - 9) Publicize the availability of complaint channels.
 - 10) Take extra steps beyond mandatory requirements to understand and correct underlying issues or problems.

11) DEOCS

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define race.
- B. Define racism.
- C. Describe types of racism.
- D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.
- E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.
- F. Recognize racist behavior.
- G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.
- H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.
- I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3150
EXTREMISM



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

As an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA), it is important to understand and recognize extremism. While extremist groups might seek to join the military and recruit military members to their causes, military members must reject participation in organizations that promote supremacist causes. Knowing about extremist groups will help you combat extremism in the military. Upon completion of this lesson, the student will have a better understanding of extremist groups and organizations. This will enhance student knowledge, thus preparing them as an equal opportunity advisor in dealing with extremist identification and issues.

This lesson will focus on awareness and current issues requiring the attention of future EOAs. It will also provide information that describes sources of extremism information, definitions, and recruitment of DoD personnel, common themes in extremist ideologies, common characteristics of extremist organizations, DoD policies, and command functions regarding extremist activities.

Recommended Reading

1. Seven Stage Hate Model, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin March 2003 (in library or online)
2. DoDI 1325.06, Handling Dissident and Protest Activities Among Members of the Armed Forces

References

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2. Anti-Defamation League. (2009). *Hate on display: A visual database of extremist symbols, logos, and tattoos*. Retrieved from http://www.adl.org/hate_symbols/default.asp
3. Atkins, S. E. (2002). *Encyclopedia of modern American extremists and extremist groups*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
4. Department of Defense Instruction. (2009). *Handling dissident and protest activities among members of the armed forces* (DoDI 1325.06). Washington, D. C. (*Incorporating Change 1, February 22, 2012*)
5. Extremism. (1986). *Allusions—Cultural, Literary, Biblical, and Historical: A Thematic Dictionary*. Retrieved from <http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1G2-2505500248.html>
6. FBI Federal Bureau of Investigation . (2013). *Hate Crimes*. Retrieved from http://www.fbi.gov/about-us/investigate/civilrights/hate_crimes/hate_crimes/
7. George, J. & Wilcox, L. (1992). *Nazis, communists, klansmen, and others on the fringe: Political extremism in America*. Buffalo, NY: Prometheus Books.
8. Halle, L.J. (1972). *The ideological imagination*. Chicago: Quadrangle Books.
9. Mulloy, D. J. (2004). *American extremism: History, politics and the militia movement*. New York: Routledge.
10. Schafer, J.R. and Navarro, M.A., (2003). *The law enforcement bulletin: The seven-stage hate model*. http://www.fbi.gov/stats-services/publications/law-enforcement-bulletin/2003-pdfs/mar03leb.pdf/at_download/file

Additional Service Specific Sources

1. Department of the Army Pamphlet. (2000). Extremist activities (DA PAM 600-15).
2. Department of the Navy Instruction. (2007). Navy equal opportunity (EO) policy (OPNAVINST 5354.1F).
3. Department of the Navy, Marine Corps Order. (1997).
4. Guidelines for handling dissident and protest activities (MCO 5370.4B).
5. The Secretary of the Army's Task Force on Extremist Activities. (1996).
6. U.S. Air Force Instruction 51-903. (1998). Dissident and protest activities (AFI).
7. U.S. Coast Guard. (2007). Personnel manual (COMDTINST M1000.6A).

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 3150 Extremism
2. Computer, Screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, know how extremism impacts the readiness of our military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define key terms associated with extremism.	K	CRT
B. Identify prohibited activities.	K	CRT
C. Identify the seven stages of hate.	K	CRT
D. Recognize extremist ideologies.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the traits and symbols associated with extremism and hate groups.	K	CRT
F. State extremist organizations’ recruiting motives toward DoD personnel.	K	CRT
G. Identify strategies to combat extremism in the military.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

EXTREMISM

A. Key Terms Associated with Extremism

1. Ideology: A set of beliefs about the nature of people and society; an organized collection of ideas about the best and most appropriate way to live.
2. Extremism: A tendency or disposition to go to extremes or an instance of going to extremes, especially in political matters. For example, the extremism of the Nazis.
 - a. “Any political theory favoring immoderate uncompromising policies.” (dictionary.com)
 - b. Can also be a term used to describe the actions or ideologies of individuals or groups who take a political idea to its limits, regardless of unfortunate repercussions, and show intolerance toward all views other than their own.
3. Extremist: A person who favors or resorts to immoderate, uncompromising, or fanatical methods or behavior. Extremists can be politically radical or advocate supremacist causes based on race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or national origin. (FBI, 2011)
 - a. Relative to the negative impact on military readiness, an “extremist” is a person who advocates the use of force or violence; advocates supremacist causes based on race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or national origin; or otherwise engages to illegally deprive individuals or groups of their civil rights.
4. Supremacism: The belief that a particular race, religion, gender, species, belief system, or culture is superior to others. For example, “white supremacism” (George and Wilcox, 1992).

Supremacists believe they are entitled to dominate, control, or rule those who do not fall into their race, religion, gender, species, belief system, or culture.

B. Prohibited Activities

The First Amendment to the Constitution of the United States provides that, *“Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.”*

As military members, you retain these rights as citizens of the United States. There are, however, prohibitions to military personnel regarding the exercise of these rights per DoDI 1325.06.

Individuals who hold extremist views are in conflict with the standards expected of all military members and participation in extremism is inconsistent with the duties of military service.

1. Prohibited Activities. According to DoD Instruction 1325.06, military members are prohibited from participating in any of the following activities:
 - a. Military personnel must not actively advocate supremacist, extremist, or criminal gang doctrine, ideology, or causes.
 - b. This includes any organization that advances, encourages, or advocates illegal discrimination based on race, creed, color, sex, religion, ethnicity, or national origin.
 - c. Or those who advance, encourage, or advocate the use of force, violence, or criminal activity or otherwise advance efforts to deprive individuals of their civil rights.
 - d. Military personnel must reject active participation in criminal gangs and other organizations that advocate supremacist, extremist, or criminal gang doctrine, ideology, or causes. Active participation includes, but is not limited to:
 - 1) Fundraising
 - 2) Demonstrating or rallying
 - 3) Recruiting, training, organizing, or leading members
 - 4) Distributing material (including online)
 - 5) Knowingly wearing gang colors or clothing
 - 6) Or otherwise engaging in activities in furtherance of the objective of such gangs or organizations that are detrimental to good order discipline or mission accomplishment or are incompatible with military service.
2. Federal employees
If an extremist organization advocates or attempts to bring about political, religious, economic, or social change through the use of force, violence, or ideologically-motivated criminal activity, then the Federal Government precludes Federal employees from actively participating in any of the activities listed above.
3. Furthering the objectives of extremist organizations is viewed as detrimental to the good order, discipline, or mission accomplishment of the unit and are, therefore, subject to appropriate disciplinary action.

C. The Seven Stages of Hate

Extremist groups are closely related to hate groups.

Understanding the stages of how hate groups develop can help you, as an EOA, watch for the behaviors that may indicate a hate or extremist group within the military.

Stages of Hate

Schafer and Navarro (of the FBI) have identified seven stages that hate groups go through. If unimpeded, haters will pass through these seven successive stages without skipping a stage.

In the first four stages, haters vocalize their beliefs. In the last three stages, haters act on their beliefs. As an EOA, being able to assess the stage of hate a person expresses can help you determine the best intervention strategy required to deter the development from continuing. (http://www.fbi.gov/stats-services/publications/law-enforcement-bulletin/2003-pdfs/mar03leb.pdf/at_download/file)

Stage 1 – Grouping

Irrational haters seldom hate alone. They feel compelled, almost driven, to entreat others to hate as they do. Peer validation bolsters a sense of self-worth and, at the same time, prevents introspection, which reveals personal insecurities. Further, individuals otherwise ineffective become empowered when they join groups, which also provide anonymity and diminished accountability.

Stage 2 – Defining

Hate groups form identities through symbols, rituals, and mythologies, which enhance the members' status and, at the same time, degrade the object of their hate. For example, skinhead groups might adopt the swastika, the iron cross, and the Confederate flag. Group-specific symbols or clothing often differentiate hate groups. Group rituals, such as hand signals and secret greetings, further fortify members. Hate groups, especially skinhead groups, usually incorporate some form of self-sacrifice, which allows haters to willingly jeopardize their well-being for the greater good of the cause. Giving one's life to a cause provides the ultimate sense of value and worth to life. Skinheads often see themselves as soldiers in a race war.

Stage 3 – Disparaging

Hate is the glue that binds haters to one another and to a common cause. By verbally debasing the object of their hate, haters enhance their self-image, as well as their group status. In skinhead groups, racist song lyrics and hate literature provide an environment wherein hate flourishes. In fact, researchers have found that the lifespan of aggressive impulses increases with ideation. In other words, the more often a person thinks about aggression, the greater the chance for aggressive behavior to occur. Thus, after constant verbal denigration, haters progress to the next more openly hostile and bitter stage.

Stage 4 – Taunting

Hate, by its nature, changes incrementally. Time cools the fire of hate, thus forcing the hater to look inward. To avoid introspection, haters use ever-increasing degrees of rhetoric and violence to maintain high levels of agitation. Taunts and offensive gestures

serve this purpose. In this stage, skinheads typically shout racial slurs from moving cars or from afar. Nazi salutes and other hand signals often accompany racial epithets. Racist graffiti also begins to appear in areas where skinheads loiter. Most skinhead groups claim turf proximate to the neighborhoods in which they live. One study indicated that a majority of hate crimes occur when the hate target migrates through the hate group's turf.

Stage 5 – Attacking without weapons

This stage is critical because it differentiates vocally-abusive haters from physically-abusive ones. In this stage, hate groups become more aggressive, prowling their turf seeking vulnerable targets. Violence coalesces hate groups and further isolates them from mainstream society. Skinheads, almost without exception, attack in groups and target single victims. In addition to physical violence, the element of thrill seeking is introduced in Stage 5. The adrenaline “high” intoxicates the attackers. The initial adrenaline surge lasts for several minutes; however, the effects of adrenaline keep the body in a state of heightened alert for up to several days. Each successive anger-provoking thought or action builds on residual adrenaline and triggers a more violent response than the one that originally initiated the sequence. Anger builds on anger. The adrenaline high combined with hate becomes a deadly combination. Hard-core skinheads keep themselves at a level where the slightest provocation triggers aggression.

Stage 6 – Attacking with weapons

Some attackers use firearms to commit hate crimes, but skinheads prefer weapons, such as broken bottles, baseball bats, blunt objects, screwdrivers, and belt buckles. These types of weapons require the attacker to be close to the victim, which further demonstrates the depth of personal anger. Attackers can discharge firearms at a distance, thus precluding personal contact. Close-in onslaughts require the assailants to see their victim eye to eye and to become bloodied during the assault. Hands-on violence allows skinheads to express their hate in a way a gun cannot. Personal contact empowers and fulfills a deep-seated need to have dominance over others.

Stage 7 – Destroying

The ultimate goal of haters is to destroy the object of their hate. Mastery over life and death imbues the hater with godlike power and omnipotence, which, in turn, facilitates further acts of violence. With this power comes a great sense of self-worth and value, the very qualities haters' lack. However, in reality, hate physically and psychologically destroys both the hater and the hated.

D. Extremist Ideologies

Extremist groups sometimes fall under certain ideologies (Atkins, 2002).

1. Nationalism – Some extremist organizations will use “Nationalism” to perpetuate their agenda of hate, intolerance, and inequality.
Common to the nationalist’s perspective is the policy of asserting that the interests of one’s own nation are separate from the interests of other nations or the common interest of all nations.
2. Supremacy – The belief that your race or ethnicity is superior to all others and should dominate society. Supremacy, as with racial supremacies in general, has frequently resulted in anti-black and anti-semitic violence.
3. Separatism – Setting oneself or others apart based on culture, ethnicity, race, or religion.
4. Anarchism – A political ideology that considers the state to be unnecessary, harmful, or undesirable. National anarchists appeal to these youths in part by avoiding the trappings of skinhead culture—flight jackets, shaved heads and combat boots—in favor of hooded sweatshirts and bandanas. They act the part of stereotypical anarchists, as envisioned by most Americans outside of far-left circles: black-clad protesters wreaking havoc at political conventions and anti-globalization rallies.
5. Religion – extremist ideology based on intolerance toward other religions. Anti-Semitism is a prime example of this ideology.
6. Ecoterrorism – environmental activists who engages in illegal activities.

The FBI defines ecoterrorism as “the use or threatened use of violence of a criminal nature against innocent victims or property by an environmentally oriented, sub-national group for environmental-political reasons, or aimed at an audience beyond the target, often of a symbolic nature.”

E. Traits and Symbols Associated with Extremists and Hate Groups

It is important for EOAs to be aware of traits and symbols associated with hate groups because he/she advises leadership on procedures for handling dissident activities and protest activities among members of the Armed Forces.

- DoDI 1325.06, *Handling Dissident and Protest Activities Among Members of the Armed Forces*

This policy assigns responsibilities, and provides procedures for handling dissident activities and protest activities among members of the Armed Forces.

It is important to note that DoD does not maintain an official list of hate groups.

While many extremist groups advocate violence, some extremists avoid violence at all costs. So, one cannot say that the terms extremist and hate group are synonymous.

The terms extremism or extremist are almost always applied by others to a group rather than a group labeling it.

People within an extremist group will deny that they practice or advocate violence; instead they would more likely call themselves political radicals, who speak in terms of acts of resistance, militant action, or the use of force.

According to George and Wilcox, there are a number of specific traits or behaviors that tend to represent the extremist style. As a caution, we are all fallible human beings and some of us may resort to these behaviors from time to time without bad intentions. With extremists, these lapses are not occasional; rather they are habitual and a strongly-established part of an extremist's character.

1. Traits/Behaviors associated with extremists (George & Wilcox, 1992)
 - a. Character assassination – Extremists often attack the character of an opponent rather than deal with the facts or issues raised. They will question motives, qualifications, past associations, alleged values, personality, looks, and mental health as a diversion from the issues under consideration.
 - b. Name calling and labeling – Extremists are quick to resort to taunts (e.g., pervert, racist, and crackpot) to label and condemn opponents and to divert others from listening to their arguments.
 - c. Irresponsible sweeping generalizations – Extremists tend to make sweeping claims or judgments with little to no evidence, often confusing similarity with sameness. That is, they assume that because two or more things are alike in some respects that they are alike in all respects.
 - d. Inadequate proof for assertions – Extremists tend to be very fuzzy about what constitutes proof for their assertions and tend to get caught up in logical fallacies where they assume that a prior event explains a subsequent occurrence simply because of their before-and-after relationship. They tend to project wished-for conclusions and to exaggerate the significance of information that confirms their prejudices and to derogate or ignore information that contradicts them.
 - e. Tendency to view opponents and critics as essentially evil – Extremists feel that their opponents hold differing views because they are bad, immoral, dishonest, hateful, cruel, prejudices, etc., and not merely because they simply disagree, see matters differently, or are mistaken.
 - f. Dualism worldview – Extremists tend to see the world in terms of absolute good and evil, for them or against them, with no middle ground or intermediate position. All issues are ultimately moral issues of right and wrong, good or bad, with the right and good positions

coinciding with their interests. Their slogan is often, "Those who are not with me are against me."

- g. Tendency to argue by intimidation – Extremists tend to frame their arguments in such a way as to intimidate others into accepting their premises and conclusions. To disagree with them is to ally oneself with the devil or to give aid and comfort to the enemy. They tend to be very judgmental and moralizing, allowing them to define the parameters of the debate by keeping their opponents on the defensive.
- h. Use of slogans, buzzwords, and thought-stopping clichés – For many extremists, shortcuts in thinking and in reasoning seem necessary to avoid troublesome facts and compelling counter-arguments. Simple slogans substitute for more complex abstractions.
- i. Assumption of moral superiority over others – The most obvious assumptions are claims of racial or ethnic superiority—a master race. Less obvious are claims of ennoblement because of alleged victimhood, a special relationship with God, or membership in a special or elite class, and a kind of aloof, high-minded snobbishness that accrues because of the weightiness of their preoccupations, their altruism, and their willingness to sacrifice themselves (and others) to their cause.
- j. Doomsday thinking – Extremists often predict dire or catastrophic consequences from a situation or from a failure to follow a specific course, and they tend to exhibit a kind of crisis-mindedness. It can be a Communist takeover, a Nazi revival, nuclear war, earthquakes, floods, or the wrath of God. Whatever it is, it is just around the corner unless we follow their program and listen to their special insight and wisdom, to which only the truly enlightened have access. For extremists, any setback or defeat is the beginning of the end.
- k. Belief that it's OK to do bad things in the service of a "good" cause – Extremists might deliberately lie, distort, misquote, slander, defame, or libel their opponents and/or critics, engage in censorship or repression, or undertake violence in special cases. This is done with little or no remorse as long as it is in the service of defeating the Communists, Fascists or whomever. Defeating an enemy becomes an all-encompassing goal to which other values are subordinate. With extremists, the end justifies the means.
- l. Tendency to personalize hostility – Extremists often wish for the personal bad fortune of their enemies, and celebrate when it occurs. When a critic or an adversary dies or has a serious illness, a bad accident, or personal legal problems, extremists often rejoice and chortle about how he or she deserved it. For example, right-wing extremists celebrated the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr. and leftists agonized because George Wallace survived an assassination attempt. In each instance their hatred was not only directed against ideas, but also against individual human beings.
- m. Emphasis on emotional responses and less emphasis on reasoning and logical analysis – Extremists have an unspoken reverence for propaganda, which they might call education or consciousness-raising. Symbolism plays an exaggerated role in their thinking, and

they tend to think imprecisely and metaphorically. Effective extremists tend to be effective propagandists. Propaganda differs from education in that the former teaches one what to think, and the latter teaches one how to think clearly.

- n. Hypersensitivity and vigilance – Extremists perceive hostile innuendo in even casual and innocuous comments, imagine rejection and antagonism concealed in honest disagreement and dissent, and see latent subversion, anti-Semitism, perversion, racism, disloyalty, and so on in innocent gestures and ambiguous behaviors. Although few extremists are actually clinically paranoid, many of them adopt a paranoid style with its attendant projective mechanisms, hostility and distrust.
- o. Use of supernatural rationales for beliefs and actions – Some extremists, particularly those involved in cults and religious movements, claim some kind of supernatural rationale for their beliefs and actions; their movement or cause, they believe, is ordained or looked upon favorably by God.
- p. Advocacy of double standards – Extremists generally tend to judge themselves or their interest group in terms of their intentions, which they tend to view generously, and their critics and opponents by their acts, which they tend to view very critically. They would like you to accept their assertions on faith, but they demand proof for yours.

Hate Symbols

As an EOA, it is important that you are knowledgeable of and alert to the symbols, logos, and tattoos that extremist groups use to identify themselves and their group affiliation. Being aware of these symbols and what they mean can assist you in combating extremism in the military.

While some people may use or display extremist symbols in ignorance, extremists use these symbols to display a sense of power and belonging. Symbols are also a quick way of identifying others who share their beliefs.

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Additional information about hate groups and extremist symbols can be found in your student guide and on the Intranet. The Anti-Defamation League (ADL) maintains a database of hate group symbols. As an EOA, you should familiarize yourself with the symbols of hate, and learn to recognize the symbols and what they mean so you are better prepared to support the military standards of conduct and eliminate extremism in the military.

F. Extremist Organizations Recruiting Motives

Military personnel, public officials, and law enforcement officers are actively sought by extremist groups. Extremist leaders seek to recruit members with military experience to exploit their:

- Discipline
- Knowledge of firearms and explosives
- Tactical skills
- Access to weapons and intelligence
(DA PAM 600-15, 2000)

In addition, members of extremists groups are joining the military, not to serve their country but to receive training, specifically in discipline and tactical skills, and to learn how to better defend themselves and their ideals.

1. Young extremists are encouraged by leaders to enlist in the military to gain access to weapons, training, and other military personnel. Some extremist groups even provide advice to their members in how to respond to questions from military recruiters.

2. Military members are trained to be proficient with weapons, combat tactics, and explosives, to train others in their use, and to operate in a highly disciplined culture that is focused on the organized violence of war. This is why military extremists present an elevated threat to public safety.

Even the nonviolent activities of military personnel with extremist tendencies (e.g., possessing literature, researching information via computer) can have detrimental consequences for the good order, discipline, readiness, and cohesion of military units.

G. Strategies to Combat Extremism

It is the responsibility of every military member to help combat extremism in the military.

- Just the presence of a member with extremist views can have an adverse impact on the performance of a unit.
 - Other members who oppose or disagree with the extremist views may say or do nothing because they fear damaging the unit's cohesiveness.
1. Awareness of extremism and extremist groups is the first step in combating extremism. (DA PAM 600-15, 2000)
 - a. Examine personal viewpoints in light of military values and loyalty.
 - b. Reject affiliation with any extremist organizations.
 - c. Decline the distribution or circulation of extremist literature.
 - d. Encourage others to avoid extremist affiliations and views.
 - e. Report indicators of extremism to the appropriate command.
 2. Extremism is prohibited in the military in accordance with DODI 1325.06.

Increasing employee awareness about extremist ideologies and discriminatory behavior or acts will broaden your effectiveness as an Equal Opportunity Advisor to the command. Combating extremism in the military begins with the individual.

3. Increase “Cultural Competency” and Teamwork (esprit-de-corps)

Extremists’ views divide the unit into opposing factions and the team concept required for mission accomplishment is lost.

4. As an EOA, you should be vigilant to the signs of extremism by paying attention to: (DA PAM 600-15, 2000)
 - a. Surreptitious meetings

- b. Off-duty clothing (e.g., skinhead dress, extremist tattoos)
 - c. Music selections and reading materials
 - d. Extremist graffiti or symbols in personal and common areas.
5. In addition, EOAs should assist the unit command to:
- a. Educate and counsel unit members on the incompatibility of military service with extremist views.
 - b. Be aware of unit members' extremist beliefs.
 - c. Be alert for indicators of extremist ties, views, or behaviors .
 - d. Include questions on extremism in climate assessments.
 - e. Enforce policy on participation in extremist group activities.
 - f. Advise unit members of the consequences for participation in extremist activities.
 - g. Monitor information available on extremists groups, activities, and philosophies.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define key terms associated with extremism.
- B. Identify prohibited activities.
- C. Identify the seven stages of hate.
- D. Recognize extremist ideologies.
- E. Recognize the traits and symbols associated with extremism and hate groups.
- F. State extremist organizations' recruiting motives towards DoD personnel.
- G. Identify strategies to combat extremism in the military.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3200

SEXISM



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Sexism is the discrimination against people based on their sex rather than their individual merits. It can refer to three subtly different beliefs or attitudes namely the belief that one sex is superior to the other; the belief that men and women are very different and that this should be strongly reflected in society, language, as well as the law. Sexism can also refer to simple hatred of men (misandry) or women (misogyny). This lesson will emphasize the importance of objectivity, fairness, openness, and avoidance of a personal agenda in the job of an EOA. It is important for an EOA to have some skepticism and to approach problems with empathy rather than sympathy.

Recommended Reading

History of Women in the Military

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® Slide presentation–EOA 3200 Sexism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, comprehend how sexism can impact the military, with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify the foundation of sexism.	K	CRT
B. Define sexist behavior.	K	CRT
C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.	K	CRT
D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.	K	CRT
E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.	K	CRT
F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SEXISM**A. The Foundation of Sexism**

1. Definition of Sexism

Sexism is a belief and attitude that one sex is superior to the other, thereby justifying sexual inequalities. Sexism is a prejudice, which may lead to discrimination based on a person's sex.

2. Sexist Attitudes

May stem from traditional stereotypes of gender roles and may include the belief that a person of one sex is intrinsically superior to a person of the other.

- a. A job applicant may face discriminatory hiring practices, or (if hired) receive unequal compensation or treatment compared to that of their opposite-sex peers. Extreme sexism may foster sexual harassment, sexual assault, and other forms of sexual violence (Doob, 2012).
- b. Although both men and women can be target and victims of sex discrimination, a vast literature show that sex discrimination in the Unites States is overwhelmingly a matter of men targeting women (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995 p.39).
- c. It has been 50 years since the United States Commission on Civil Rights has examined civil rights in the military. The Commission has authority to examine questions related to sexual assault in the military because the issues involve both sex discrimination and the denial of equal protection in the administration of justice.
- d. The issue of sex discrimination involves female Service members, who represent 14 percent of the military population, and the likelihood that they are over five times more likely to experience some form of sexual assault, as defined by the DoD, than their male counterparts (Under Secretary of Defense, 2013).

3. Gender Role and Gender Typing

Gender role socialization is the first aspect of the development of sexism. It is established during our socialization process (McDowell, 1986, p. 168)

- a. Socialization – All-encompassing educational process from which values, goals, beliefs, attitudes, and gender roles are acquired. It is an elaborate process by which individuals become distinctive and actively functioning members of the society in which they live. It is the primary method of learning culture.
- b. Gender typing – A socialization process by which children, at an early age, learn appropriate gender roles (Corsini, 1987, pp. 1028).

- 1) Reinforced by family, peers, and the environment
 - 2) Continues throughout an individual's lifetime
 - c. Gender roles – Behaviors, interests, attitudes, skills, and personality traits a culture considers appropriate for males and females (Corsini, 1987, p. 1027).
4. Values and attitudes

Sexism can also be attributed to our values, which enforce our attitudes.

- a. Values – represent something important in our existence; a type of belief, centrally located within our self-concept, about how we ought or ought not to behave.
- b. Attitude – as a state of mind or feeling with regard to some matter: a disposition.
- c. Prejudice – An antipathy based upon faulty and inflexible generalization. It may be felt or expressed. It may be directed toward a group as a whole or toward an individual because he/she is a member of that group.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \textit{Values} \\
 + \\
 \textit{Attitudes} \\
 (\textit{Unreasonable and negative}) \\
 = \\
 \textit{Prejudice}
 \end{array}$$

B. Sexist Behavior

1. Definition of Sexist behavior is defined as verbal and/or nonverbal behaviors that convey insulting, offensive, or condescending attitudes based on the gender of the respondent. (Fitzgerald et al., 1988).
2. Dr. Allport's Levels of Intensity

Consider how these levels can be aligned to sexist behavior when acting out prejudice.

- a. Antilocution – Catcalls, bad mouthing, name calling (e.g., babe, chick, the old lady, beefcake, and stud-muffin).
- b. Avoidance – Joining all male/female clubs, maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, asking for a transfer.

- c. Discrimination – Unequal pay for equal work, establishing all male/female clubs, giving awards or job assignments based on gender.
 - 1) Sex discrimination is defined as treating individuals differently in their employment specifically because of their sex (e.g., unfair or unequal access to professional development resources and opportunities due to a member's gender). It is illegal to create artificial barriers to career advancement because of an individual's sex. *Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members (WGRA)* is conducted by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC).
 - 2) Examples of blatant sex discrimination include sexual harassment, sexist language and jokes, physical violence, and other forms of obviously unequal treatment in the family, employment, politics, religion, law, and other areas (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995, p. 39)
- d. Physical attacks – Rape, spouse abuse, sabotage of another's work, vandalizing property.
- e. Extermination – Killing your spouse, ignoring or pretending they do not exist.

C. Influences that Perpetuate Sexism

1. Mass Media and Stereotyping Allow Sexism to Continue

From a historical perspective, sexism has been perpetuated in many ways.

a. Mass Media

Historically, the mass media portray females as either sexual objects or as people who fight too hard in order to survive in "a man's world."

b. Stereotyping

Stereotypes may or may not originate in a kernel of truth, they aid people in simplifying their categories, they justify hostility, and sometimes they serve as projection screens for our personal conflict. However, there is an addition and exceedingly important reason for their existence. They are socially supported continually revived and hammered in by our media of mass communication—novels, short stories, newspaper items, movies, stage radio, and television. (Allport, 1979, p. 200)

2. Societal Influences that Allow Sexism to Continue

a. Behavior.

Historically, boys were encouraged to compete from early childhood. They learn that competition is ok and that winning is important. Until recently, girls were more likely to

participate in activities which stressed service and cooperation. As a result, studies have shown that women today tend to react differently to competition than men. Sometimes they will withdraw from competitive situations. Given a choice, they are more likely to set up a cooperative system, rather than a competitive one. They also tend to be more concerned with fairness and will try to equalize relationships, even when they are not equal. For example, they may give credit where it isn't due (Strauss, pp. 17–19; Bem, 1993, pp. 19–20).

- b. Ability: It could be said that women and men have different abilities and aptitudes.

Men's and women's bodies are different because of the reproductive design. Differences based on productivity, however, do not generalize to the ability to shoot a gun or wash a baby. Most studies done, do not take into account the effect of lifetime gender role training. (Burke, 1996, pp. 192–193)

- c. Psychology/Personality

Some people perceive that factual biological differences result in psychological or personality differences. For example, women are emotional, dependent, won't make calm, logical decisions, women have mood swings—unreliable for positions of responsibility. In a 1995 Newsweek cover story, *The New Science of the Brain: Why Men & Women Think Differently*, the author, Begley, concluded that the “overlap between men's and women's scores on just about every psychological test is huge. Any randomly chosen woman might do better at a ‘male’ skill than a man and vice versa.” She also stated a Yale study which found that, in one particular experiment, “42 percent of the women's brains “worked like the men's.” Perhaps the most arresting implication of the research is not that there are undeniable differences between males and females, but that their differences are so small relative to the possibilities open to them (Burke, 1996, pp. 189–192).”

- d. Ignoring, speaking for, clarifying, and interrupting

Discounting input by giving the impression that the speaker has nothing important to say is usually unable or unprepared to respond or is incapable of getting the message across.

- e. Pro-Sexism

It is accommodating sexist behavior by reinforcing or encouraging it, rather than questioning, checking, or opposing it. People are pro-sexist for a number of reasons. Some people are socialized to accept it; some go along to be more acceptable—sometimes because it will help them gain power and make more effective changes. Whatever the reason, it is often not an easy choice. Regardless of the intention, a person who is pro-sexist must understand that the message will be that sexist behavior is ok. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 30–32; 36–37; 63–65)

3. Cultural Influences that Allow Sexism to Continue

From childhood on, many males and females in our culture are taught to exhibit certain behaviors.

The preference for biological rather than cultural explanations is suggestive of accounts once offered. To experts around the turn of the century, an “innate sexual disqualification” rather than “social prejudice” was obviously to blame. Similar, if more subtle, cultural binders remain, much of the research and even more of the media coverage concerning “real differences” present contested findings as established facts. Yet the point on which there is greatest consensus is that experts have reached no consensus on these issues. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 28–29)

4. Institutional Roles Influencing the Continuance of Sexism

- a. Job role labels—There is such a strong gender association with some jobs—we use labels that set others apart (women doctor, male nurse, female service member) and expect men to do certain jobs and women to hold certain jobs.
- b. Unnecessary division—Actor: one who acts, why then say actress? Then there is the waiter, but waitress. Men on airplanes/not stewards—all flight attendants
- c. Media—Has continued to turn sexual images of both women and men into entertainment.

D. Historical Events that Contributed to Sexism in the Military

1. Historical Events

Historically, sexism has been perpetuated in the military. To demonstrate the historical behavior, let’s use the Three R Syndrome, first introduced in the racism lesson.

- a. Reject: Army regulations did not allow women to enlist, and so many women masqueraded as men in order to serve their country.
- b. Recruit: Spanish American War 1898—When the United States formally intervened to aid in Cuba’s quest for independence from Spain, only men were recruited for an Army that would fight the Spanish American War. Before the war barely got off the ground, an epidemic of typhoid fever spread through the Army camps. The medical treatment facilities were unsanitary and understaffed for handling the large number of sick and wounded. Because the Army was unable to recruit enough men to provide medical treatment, Congress authorized the Army to appoint women as Army nurses under contract, but without military status. Some 1,500 women were recruited and served for approximately four years.

- c. **Reject:** It was emphasized that the nurses were civilian contract workers and not to be confused with soldiers who cared for the sick. Although medical care was much more organized and effective under direct military control, most Army personnel opposed giving military status to women.
- d. **Recruit:** There is evidence that Army leaders wanted women workers other than nurses, but the Secretary of War would not permit it. General John J. Pershing, Commander of the American Expeditionary Forces in Europe (AEF), however, proceeded without authorization and issued a call for women to serve as military switchboard operators. Approximately 7,000 women applied, but only those who could speak French were considered. The 233 who were accepted for service took an enlistment oath, purchased uniforms, and completed two weeks of training in communications and self-defense before being sent to France. They became known as the “Hello Girls.”
- e. **Reject:** The Hello Girls were praised in the newspapers for their bravery and they were awarded service medals when the war ended. Then, without warning, they were sent civilian service termination letters instead of honorable military discharges because (despite what the women were told when they were recruited) the Army still considered them contract civilians.
- f. **Recruit:** In 1920, the Army Reorganization Act granted military nurses the status of officers with “relative rank” from second lieutenant to major, but they were not given the rights and privileges generally accorded those ranks.
- g. **Reject:** In 1925, the 1916 Naval Reserve Act was changed to read “male citizens” instead of “citizens” as enlistment qualifications. Women could no longer enlist in the Navy and Marines without Congressional approval. The number of women in the Services continued to decline.
- h. **Recruit:** World War II 1941–1945—When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the Services once again began recruiting women. Recruitment of women was a big undertaking. Posters urged women to join the Services and “free a man to fight.” In 1942, the War Department was still in desperate need of women to fill support roles and free men for combat. Amid much controversy, Congress passed legislation to form the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC).
- i. **Reject:** President Truman signed the Women’s Armed Services Integration Act of 1948. Women finally had permanent military status and opened the door for women to serve in peacetime and provided a means for mobilizing women in the event of war. But, the number of women on active duty could not exceed 2 percent of the force, the number of high-ranking female officers in each service branch was limited, and certain career fields were not open to women, particularly those where there was a potential for combat. That same year, the President signed the Selective Service Act of 1948, authorizing a peacetime draft of men. There was then less incentive for recruiting women to fill the military ranks in peacetime, and their numbers dropped. When the conflict began in Korea, all of the Services stepped up their recruiting efforts, but they were unsuccessful

in getting the numbers they wanted. By 1951, only 1% of the total military force was female, even though a goal was set for the maximum 2%.

- j. Recruit: Finally, on November 8, 1967, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed Public Law 90-130, which removed restrictions on the careers of female officers in the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps. The law eliminated the 2% cap on the number of women serving and the ceiling on the highest grade they could achieve. Later in 1978, the WAAC was disestablished and the women became part of the regular Army.

2. Current Policies

- a. Opportunities for servicewomen have increased dramatically since 1948, when the Women's Armed Services Integration Act of 1948 gave women a permanent place in the military services. Your required reading should have made you aware of this fact up to today's progress. Let's talk about DoD policy leading this issue.
- b. In February 1988, the DoD adopted a Department-wide policy called the "Risk Rule," that set a single standard for evaluating positions and units from which the military service could exclude women. The rule excluded women from noncombat units or missions if the risks of exposure to direct combat, hostile fire, or capture were equal to or greater than the risk in the combat units they supported. Each service used its own mission requirements and the Risk Rule to evaluate whether a noncombat position should be open or closed to women.
- c. The National Defense Authorization Act for fiscal years 1992 and 1993 repealed the prohibition on the assignment of women to combat aircraft in the Air Force, the Navy, and the Marines Corps. The act also established the Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces to study the legal, military, and societal implications of amending the exclusionary laws. The Commission's November 1992 report recommended retaining the direct ground combat exclusion for women.
- d. In January 1994, the Secretary of Defense, in response to advice from the Implementation Committee, rescinded the Risk Rule. In the DoD's view, the rule was no longer appropriate based on experiences during Operation Desert Storm, where everyone in the theater of operation was at risk. The Secretary of Defense also established a new DoD-wide direct ground combat assignment rule that allows all service members to be assigned to all positions for which they qualify, but excludes women from assignments to units below the brigade level whose primary mission is direct ground combat.
- e. The purpose of this change was to expand opportunities for women in the services. Additionally, the Secretary stipulated that no units or positions previously open to women would be closed. At that time, the Secretary issued a definition of direct ground combat to ensure a consistent application of the policy excluding women from direct ground combat units.

E. Factors that Impact the Full Integration of Women in the Military

1. Stereotypes that Impact Full Integration

- a. Psychological – Don't have the killer mentality, can't handle stress, emotional, mood swings, too feminine (i.e., perceived as weak, not taken seriously, given office jobs) or too masculine (i.e., labeled lesbians; Herbert, pp. 68–73)
- b. Physical – For example women are the weaker sex and have no endurance

All services physical fitness tests are based on age and gender. Men willingly accept the differing age standards that affect them, but complain about the lower standards for women (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52).

- c. Pregnancy issues – During contingencies the ability to deploy pregnant women is restricted by policy. Under some conditions, pregnant women can participate in field exercises, but they cannot deploy overseas or out to sea. In the Navy, women are removed from the ship when they are 20 weeks into a pregnancy. The effect of this “unplanned loss” depends on how long it takes to get a replacement. (Harrell, 1997, p. 39)

Service men say that policies for pregnancy adversely affect their units. Some accuse women of intentionally getting pregnant in order to avoid deployments. Men complain they must do more work because of the limitations doctors put on pregnant women and blame individual women personally rather than service policy. (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52)

- d. Leadership issues – For example, no man would follow a woman into battle; and women can't make logical decisions.
- e. Sexual harassment – As reported in the 2012 *Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*, 23% of women and 4% of men indicated experiencing sexual harassment in the last twelve months. The report also states that 47% of women and 15% of men indicated experiencing sexist behavior (DMDC, 2012a, *2012 Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*)
- f. Teasing and offhand comments – Although the law does not prohibit simple isolated incidents that are not very serious, harassment is illegal when it is so frequent or severe that it creates a hostile or offensive work environment or when it results in an adverse employment decision such as the victim being fired or demoted. (EEOC.gov/laws/types/sex.cfm)
- g. First names – When ranks/last names are used for members of one sex versus the other, it implies superiority of one sex over another, establishes a power relationship, shows disrespect towards, or discounts members of one sex. Women are often caught in the grip of a paradox. They are far more often called by their first names and touched by men. (Feldman, 1993, p. 24)

2. Sexism and Ego Defense Mechanisms

Remember when you learned about ego defense mechanisms in the Socialization lesson? Now, let's associate some of those mechanisms into the Sexism lesson.

- a. Denial – “There is no way she outdid me in the push-ups” or “No way, she returned fire with her weapon, before I did!”
- b. Projection – “If she didn't dress so provocatively, she wouldn't get so much attention.”
- c. Rationalization – “Boys will be boys.” “It's expected that the men in my shop unload the truck when supplies are delivered, most items are too heavy for the women to carry.” “I was not promoted because of a quota that promote unqualified candidates specially women”

F. Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

1. EOA Responsibilities/Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexist Behaviors in the Military

- a. Self-Analysis/Self-Awareness – Know self. “How has Sexism influence/affected me?” “What behaviors do I displayed that may be interpreted as sexist?”
- b. Model behavior
 - 1) Role model – Walk the talk. Acknowledge and understand difference, don't group people and assume they all have the same characteristics; this will reduce your stereotyping.
 - 2) Challenge – challenge inappropriate behaviors
 - 3) Advocate for EO – Advocate fair treatment. Deal with standards, qualifications, and a person's ability to meet them, rather than perceptions and beliefs about what is appropriate.
- c. Keep current on EO issues/information
- d. Education and training – train at all levels

2. Leadership Strategies that will Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

- a. Policy and administration – Development and implementation of legislation, laws, and policies that do not discriminate on the basis of gender
- b. Prevention – Periodic climate assessment, education/training awareness

- c. Set the example – Organizational culture from top to bottom
- d. Mission – Fully utilize all personnel. Zero tolerance for negative impact of sexism on mission readiness.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify the foundation of sexism.
- B. Define sexist behavior.
- C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.
- D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.
- E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.
- F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3050

SEXUAL HARASSMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding sexual harassment and recognizing harassment behaviors is vital for an EOA. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional it is important that you recognize sexual harassment, understand the impact it has on individuals and the organization collectively in a military setting, and apply strategies to prevent sexual harassment in your unit.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® Slide presentation–Sexual Harassment
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and study guide, comprehend how sexual harassment can impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define sexual harassment.	K	CRT
B. Describe types of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.	K	CRT
D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

SEXUAL HARASSMENT**A. Definition of Sexual Harassment**

The term sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or

Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or

Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as abusive work environment harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. Workplace is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment. (*Title 10 United States Code (U.S.C.) § 1561, Complaints of Sexual Harassment: Investigation by Commanding Officers*)

1. The term "sexual harassment" is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:
2. Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or
 - a. In the context of this definition, *explicit* is a full precise expression in the form of verbal, nonverbal, or physical behavior(s). In other words, things being said or acted upon or demonstrated in a clear, overt, and open manner that are "clearly out of bounds."
 - b. *Implicit* means implied or inferred behaviors that are not clearly expressed, but are understood. These behaviors can also be verbal, nonverbal, or physical in nature. Implicit behaviors are closely associated with the subtleties of sexual harassment and often take the form of innuendoes. Examples include hints of something improper, indirect remarks, or gestures suggesting impropriety.

- c. Third party sexual harassment means that the victim does not have to be the only person affected by the harassment behavior, but could also be anyone affected by the offensive behavior in the defined “workplace”—“an expansive term for military members that includes conduct on/off duty, 24 hours a day” (DoD Directive 1350.2).
3. Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or
 4. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual’s work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.
 - a. A “hostile environment” occurs when service members or civilians are subjected to offensive, unwanted, unsolicited comments and behaviors of a sexual nature. If the behavior in question has the purpose (intent) or effect (impact) of unreasonably interfering with their work performance, then the environment is classified as “hostile.” A “hostile environment” brings the topic of sex or gender differences into the workplace. It does not necessarily include the more blatant acts of *Quid Pro Quo*. Rather, it normally includes those actions in the “gray areas” or the nonviolent behaviors which are gender based.
 - b. Assessing whether the behavior is appropriate or offensive must be done from the perspective of the recipient, not the alleged harasser. The primary concern is the victim’s perspective and not the intent of the alleged harasser. While the intent (purpose) of the alleged offender is given consideration, the effect (impact) of such behaviors on the subject or recipient may sometimes cause the intent to be irrelevant.
 5. This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. “Workplace” is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day.
 - a. Work environment is defined according to DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, 20. It is the workplace or any other place that is work-connected, as well as the conditions or atmosphere under which people are required to work.
 - b. The Reasonable Person Standard Test has two components:
 - 1) Objective portion

The objective test requires a hypothetical exposure of a “**reasonable person**” to the same set of facts and circumstances—How would a reasonable person under similar circumstances react or be affected by such behavior?

If such “reasonable person” perceives the harassing behaviors as creating an intimidating, hostile or abusive work environment then the objective test has been met.

2) Subjective portion

The subjective test requires that the victim or subject perceives the harassing behaviors as intimidating or hostile or as creating an abusive work environment.

6. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment.

The definition of sexual harassment emphasizes supervisory and command responsibilities. Some examples of supervisory and command responsibilities include:

- a. Examining his/her behaviors.
 - b. Providing an environment free of intimidation, hostility, and psychological stress.
 - c. Controlling social interactions so that they do not interfere with productivity.
 - d. Taking corrective action(s) whenever sexual behavior is displayed.
 - e. Holding everyone responsible and accountable for their actions.
 - f. Establishing and enforcing behavioral standards.
 - g. Taking disciplinary action as appropriate.
 - h. Examining the totality of the circumstances (e.g., nature of advances, and context of occurrence).
7. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment.

B. Types of Sexual Harassment

1. Quid Pro Quo

In a “*Quid Pro Quo*” sexual harassment situation, the person who is the harasser is usually a person who is in a position of power (e.g., supervisor, manager, and instructor). The victim is usually a person who feels s/he must respond to the sexual advance in order to gain something in return. It is important to note that it is not necessary for the victim to respond

or act upon the sexual advance for the sexual harassment offense under “*Quid Pro Quo*” to apply.

2. Hostile Environment

For workplace conduct to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, it need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim perceives, the work environment as hostile or offensive.

C. Behaviors that Constitute Sexual Harassment

1. Verbal

Verbal behavior refers to comments made to, about, and in the presence of a person. For example:

- a. Turning work discussions into sexual topics.
- b. Sexual connotations or innuendoes while referring to someone as honey, baby, hunk, stud, darling, and etc.
- c. Telling lies or spreading rumors about a person’s personal sex life.
- d. Telling jokes or stories and making comments with sexual connotations.
- e. Making sexual comments about a person’s clothing, body, or sexual activities.
- f. Asking questions about a person's sexual life, fantasies, preferences or history
- g. Whistling or making catcalls at someone.
 - 1) Although behaviors are not blatant or overt in nature, if they convey overtones or undertones that are suggestive in nature, it might result in sexual harassment. In terms of service policies and regulations, either suggesting or encouraging a subordinate to wear shorter or tighter clothing could also result in sexual harassment.
 - 2) It is difficult to determine the nature of the behavior that would constitute sexual harassment. Although a behavior may be very much unprofessional, if behavior does not have a sexual connotation, it does not constitute sexual harassment.

2. Nonverbal

According to the definition of sexual harassment, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated *unwelcome...gestures...* of a sexual nature is engaging in sexual harassment (DoDD 1350.2). Some examples are:

- a. Paying unwanted attention to someone by ogling or staring at their body.
- b. Displaying sexually suggestive visuals (e.g., centerfolds, calendars, cartoons).
- c. Items depicting sexual parts of the body (e.g., ashtrays, coffee cups, figurines).
- d. Sexually oriented entertainment in organizations, base facilities, or officially sanctioned functions.
- e. Sexually suggestive gestures with hands or through body movement (e.g., blowing kisses, licking lips, winking, grabbing crotch, lowering pants, raising skirts, etc.).
- f. E-mails, text messages, or any type of electronic communication that is sexual in nature.

3. Physical

Physical behavior refers to unwanted touching of an individual. For example:

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

D. Effects of Sexual Harassment

1. Work Related

The Supreme Court has recognized that harassment in the workplace is a violation of the Civil Rights Act, and although past cases have clarified employer responsibilities for preventing and correcting harassment, many other issues are uncertain.

Determining when social interaction becomes “unwelcomed” sexual harassment, and just how severe or widespread offensive conduct must be to constitute a hostile work

environment is not very clear. In the rest of this section we will examine in more detail individual, organizational, and economic effects of sexual harassment in the workplace.

a. Individual

- 1) Studies have shown that some of the negative job ramifications for victims of sexual harassment include:
 - a) decreased job satisfaction
 - b) decline in job performance
 - c) decreased motivation
 - d) decreased motivation
 - e) decreased morale
 - f) increased absenteeism
 - g) lowered productivity
 - h) impaired relationships between co-workers
- 2) As a result, commanders should not merely be concerned with whether steps have been taken to ensure that an affirmative defense can be raised in the event that a sexual harassment complaint is filed. Rather, they should address whether mechanisms are in place for evaluating the extent that employees perceive conduct of a sexual nature is offensive and the effect those perceptions have on their self-esteem and work performance.

b. Organizational

- 1) Many emotional factors may result when employees return to the workplace after filing a complaint, such as a rise in retaliatory actions. Types of organizational withdrawal include avoiding work duties (work withdrawal), job turnover, retirement, and etc. (job withdrawal). Some of the organizational effects of sexual harassment resemble individual effects and include:
 - a) lower productivity
 - b) damaged reputation
 - c) emotional factors
 - d) organizational withdrawal

- 2) Understanding the impact that sexual harassment can have on your unit will help you to help your commander improve command policy regarding filing and processing sexual harassment complaints and help design prevention programs.
- 3) Improving job attitudes will mediate the influence that sexual harassment has on organizational withdrawal.

c. Economic

- 1) The costs of sexual harassment to the economy are staggering. The EEOC has estimated that the monetary cost of sexual harassment for civilians in fiscal year 2011 was \$52.3 million. The costs to the military include things such as:
 - a) lost duty time
 - b) lost productivity
 - c) decreased unit morale/cohesion
 - d) mission accomplishment
 - e) medical treatment
 - f) reassignment costs
 - g) family impacts
 - h) suicide
- 2) Imagine the economic impact of the time spent on inquiries/investigations including investigators, the alleged harasser, the complainant, witnesses, and others, training stand-downs, unplanned losses such as the harasser and/or the complainant.

2. Effects on the Victim

a. Psychological

- 1) A victim is often not only affected by the sexual harassment itself, but also other related stress such as workplace gossip and a disrupted work history. Sexual harassment victims experience a wide variety of symptoms, including:
 - a) Decreased self-esteem and self-confidence
 - b) Difficulties with trust

- c) Depression
 - d) Anxiety
 - e) Fear of rape
 - f) Increased fear of crime in general
 - g) Seemingly “contradictory” emotional responses to harassment
 - h) The victim may regard sexual harassment as a shameful experience, which may lead to social isolation and/or alienation from co-workers who may have experienced similar harassment.
- 2) Those who experience sexual harassment may also experience intangible emotional costs inflicted by anger, humiliation, frustration, withdrawal, and dysfunction in work and family life.

b. Health-Related

In addition to the psychological abnormalities caused by sexual harassment, researchers have documented a variety of physical health complaints. Common physical health complaints include:

- 1) Headaches, neck, and back pain
- 2) Gastrointestinal disturbances
- 3) Tiredness/fatigue
- 4) Sleep disturbance
- 5) Weight loss and loss of appetite
- 6) Dental-related problems

c. Individual/Victim Coping Strategies

1) Detachment

To cope with sexual harassment, both victims and harassers may discount or invalidate the victim’s claim that sexual harassment has occurred or is occurring. A victim may minimize the situation by treating it like a job or deciding that the incident was really not important.

2) Denial

This is the most common form of discounting that victim's abuse. This means pretending the situation is not happening or trying not to notice that sexual harassing behaviors are taking place. Denial may take the form of trying to forget about the situation or incident in order to put the incident behind him/her.

3) Relabeling

This involves offering excuses for the harasser or interpreting the behavior as flattering. For example, "S/he is not really like that... S/he did not mean to harass me... S/he was only joking... Maybe I'm being a little too uptight."

4) Avoidance

The victim may ask to be transferred, use frequent leave, or go to sick call frequently to avoid the harassing situations.

E. Strategies to Combat Sexual Harassment

The commander and other leaders within your unit must have the attitude that sexual harassment is a serious problem that interferes with productivity and that it will not be tolerated.

Prevention is the best tool and as an EOA you play a pivotal role by assisting the commander with policy awareness, training, command climate assessments, complaints processing, and overall advisory assistance concerning the prevention of sexual harassment.

1. Proactive Strategies

Commitment from the top makes a difference, and when senior management is perceived as making the prevention of sexual harassment a top priority, this attitude of seriousness will be passed down and throughout the entire unit. The best approach will be positive and oriented toward addressing the issue or concern. Sexual harassment programs should be direct and not overly threatening, and should include everyone—employees at all levels. Proactive sexual harassment prevention strategies include the following:

- a. Addressing and stopping existing sexist or other behaviors of a sexual nature that may create an atmosphere conducive to sexual harassment. In most cases, employees will stop behaving in ways that offend others if they are informed about their behavior in private and in a respectful, non-threatening way.
- b. Ensuring organizational policy letters are up-to-date, outlining procedures on what to do in the event sexual harassment occurs. A written, posted policy statement regarding sexual harassment is a strong indicator of top management support.

- 1) Using bulletin boards for passing on information concerning prevention of sexual harassment. Bulletin boards must be visible to all members of the public (e.g., organizations, services agencies, and any other location that is visible to the public). Most important, be familiar with DoD, EEOC, and your Service's regulations and policies on sexual harassment.
- 2) Conducting sexual harassment prevention trainings, such as: workshops, seminars, guest speakers, symposiums, informal and formal group discussions, etc.). During the training, have individuals role-play in situations, and discuss individuals' differences in culture, personal space, socially accepted behaviors, and internalized values (enculturation).
- 3) Conducting unit climate assessments on a regular basis. Climate assessments are tools that assist commanders at all levels in determining their human relations climate. The program identifies those human relations factors, both positive and negative, that may affect mission readiness such as unit morale, equal opportunity and treatment, interpersonal relationships, and communications.

2. Reactive Strategies

- a. Once a sexual harassment complaint has been filed, there are reactive strategies you will need to assist your commander with:
 - 1) Ensure all actions/complaints are dealt with in a timely manner.
 - 2) Conduct appropriate follow-up actions and check for reprisal or retaliation.
 - 3) Based on reactive measures, you need to reengage and reemphasize proactive strategies.
- b. If you do nothing, most likely nothing will be done. The system is for you so use it. You will learn more about complaint processing procedures in your service specific training. Always refer to your Service's policies and procedures for specific guidance.

3. Techniques

Service members are encouraged to try to resolve acts of sexual harassment or to report them to the chain of command or other appropriate agencies. In order to do this, Service members must be trained on a variety of strategies they can use to prevent or resolve sexual harassment in the unit or work area. The following strategies can be a valuable tool in dealing with sexual harassment:

a. Direct Approach

- 1) Write down thoughts before approaching the individual involved. Confront the harasser and tell him/her exactly what behavior is offensive and unwanted and that it

must stop. Avoid verbal attacks. Instead, use common courtesy staying focused on the behavior being addressed and its impact. In most cases, the alleged harasser will stop behaving in ways that offend others if he/she is informed about offensive behavior in private, respectful, and non-threatening way.

- 2) Individuals should let the harasser know how they feel.
- 3) Individuals should let the harasser know that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues.

b. Indirect Approach

Send a letter to the harasser stating the facts (i.e., an objective description of the incident), specific behaviors that are offensive and unwelcome, personal feelings about the inappropriate behavior, expected resolution, and that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues. Subjects of sexual harassment should keep a copy of the letter for record in the event an informal/formal complaint is subsequently required.

c. Third Party Approach

- 1) Request assistance from another person (i.e., intermediary). Ask someone else (a co-worker, supervisor, or leader) to talk to the harasser on your behalf, or to accompany you to resolve the conflict.
- 2) A third party or intermediary does not speak for the subject. Instead, he/she relates specifically what behavior the subject wants stopped, and makes clear that continued behavior will result in reporting the incident to the chain of command.

d. Report the Harassment to the Chain of Command

- 1) Chain of Command: Report the behavior to immediate supervisor or others in the chain of command and ask for assistance in resolving the situation. The decision to report an incident of sexual harassment is often viewed as a last resort by most of the subjects. However, reporting does have its place even when the subject has been successful in stopping the harassment. The letter to the harasser becomes a valuable tool in the process of reporting sexual harassment to the chain of command.
- 2) Filing an Informal/Formal Complaint: Details of filing an informal/formal complaint are described in respective service regulations and instructions.
- 3) Use Resources Appropriate for Your Branch of Service. Familiarize yourselves with the details of your respective service policies on the prevention of sexual harassment and grievance procedures. Other sources of assistance include:
 - a) Local EO/EEO Office

- b) The Inspector General (IG)

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define sexual harassment.
- B. Describe types of sexual harassment.
- C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.
- D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.
- E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3300

SYSTEM vs. VICTIM FOCUS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from nonfederal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an equal opportunity advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context

Lesson Overview

Provide information so students understand that victim focus, which can be physical, psychological, or economic, tends to concentrate on symptoms of problems while system focus tends to center on the causes. Stress to students that it is imperative for leaders to be dual focused to eliminate discrimination by spotlighting causes as well as symptoms. Begin by defining key terms. Thoroughly discuss the process of blaming the victim and explain why the system rarely is blamed. Use the Drawbridge Activity in the small group environment to explore the distribution of power and its effect(s) on our ability to focus on the system.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 3300 System vs. Victim Focus
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective:

Given examples and a study guide know how system victimization impacts mission readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define victim.	K	CRT
B. Define victim focus.	K	CRT
C. State the process of blaming the victim.	K	CRT
D. State the ideological process of blaming the victim.	K	CRT
E. Define system focus.	K	CRT
F. Identify the method to prevent victim focus.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SYSTEM vs. VICTIM FOCUS**A. Victim**

Definition of Victim

In the “Handbook on Justice for Victims” printed in 1999, “victims” are defined in the broad sense as persons who, individually or collectively, have suffered harm.

Types of Harm

1. Physical and mental injury

- a. Physical injuries resulting from victimization may not always be immediately apparent. This may be particularly true in cases of domestic violence where the injuries occur on parts of the body that are normally clothed.
- b. Physical injuries may be a permanent effect of crime and there is evidence that this has a negative effect on long-term psychological recovery, since the physical scars serve as a constant reminder of the crime.

2. Emotional suffering

Anger is a reaction that some victims and helpers find difficult to deal with. It may be directed at other victims, helpers, bystanders, organizations and also at oneself. Among some groups and in some cultures there may be a feeling that it is wrong to express anger even when it is strongly felt. There may be pressure on victims to control their emotions.

3. Economic loss

The financial impact of crime is less well documented. Victims may incur costs in the following ways: repairing property or replacing possessions, installing security measures, accessing health services, participating in the criminal justice process, for example, attending the trial, obtaining professional counseling to come to terms with the emotional impact, taking time off work or from other income-generating activities, funeral, or burial expenses.

4. Substantial impairment of fundamental rights

- a. Acts of omissions that violate national laws or internationally-recognized norms relating to human rights.
- b. Many victims face insensitive treatment by the police, prosecutors, and court officials, thus causing a “second injury.” This applies particularly to certain, especially vulnerable, categories of victims, such as migrants, minorities and victims of sexual offenses, as well as refugees, prisoners of war, and civilian victims of war and civil strife.

5. Victimization

“Unwarranted singling out of an individual or group for subjection to crime, exploitation, tort, unfair treatment, or other wrong” (Business Dictionary.com).

Victimization looks at how society responds to victims and the systems that deal with victims “Victim Focus” or “System Focus.”

B. Victim Focus

1. Definition of Victim Focus

Victim focus is a reactive problem-solving approach, which narrowly defines problems in terms of the victims. This viewpoint sees the cause of the problem as the victims themselves. We focus on and study the victims only, find out how we can fix them and then integrate them back into the system.

2. Victim Focus is Reactive

Sometimes this process is unavoidable. The concern enters when victim focus becomes the organization’s primary means of problem solving. Why is it that in some of our organizations, we often seem to fix the same problem(s) again and again and the only difference often being the person presenting the concern? This practice may be partially linked to the way victims are viewed.

C. Process of Blaming The Victim

Steps involved with blaming the victim.

Step 1 – Identify a social problem.

No one would argue that social problems are abundant and readily identifiable.

- a) Be structural or social in origin.
- b) Be of considerable magnitude.
- c) Appears as viable alternatives that society is able to provide (i.e., solutions).

Step 2 – Study those affected by the problem and discover how they are different from the rest of society.

Many cultural beliefs associated with the protected “social order” stereotype victims while others help observers evaluate and assess victim behavior. So we

look at those who “have” the problem and separate them in some way as a special group that is different.

The different ones are seen as less competent, less skilled, and in short, less human. All the news reports and original files of early racial incidents at bases around the world identified the blacks as being different and the ones with the issues.

Step 3 – Define the differences that are the root of the problem. By taking a very individualized focus, blaming the victim identifies—or even manufactures—traits that differentiate victims from the rest of us (i.e., the poor are poor because they are unfit).

Step 4 – Assign someone to initiate a humanitarian program to correct the impact of the differences.

D. Ideological Process of Blaming the Victim

1. The belief system itself

It is the way of looking at the world, the set of ideas, and concepts.

2. Systematic distortion of reality reflected in those ideas

Victims are viewed as numbers or statistics instead of individuals.

So if we determined earlier that victims are the cause of their own problems, we can easily view them as statistics that need to be addressed, instead of members of a society affected by the very system they are a part of.

3. Distortions must not be a conscious and an intentional process

These beliefs and concepts are so widely accepted by society, it’s not considered intentional, but merely in line with how things are “supposed to happen.”

4. Distortions, although not intentional, must serve a specific function.

Maintaining the status quo in is the interest of a specific group.

E. System Focus

1. Definition of System Focus

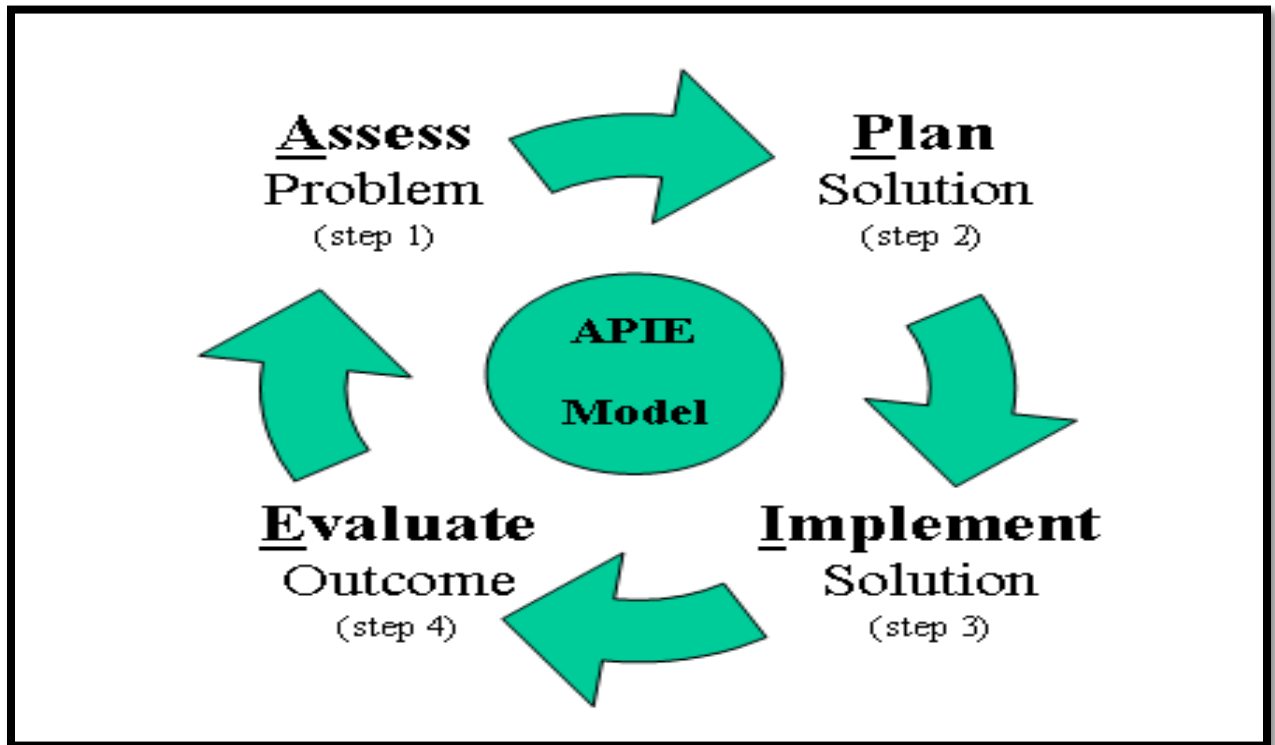
System focus is “a problem-solving approach that broadly defines problems as being a part of or caused by the system, organization, society, or community.” We look at the system that produces the victims and address the problem by determining how we can change or improve the system, as well as the victims, to prevent further problems. System focus is proactive.

2. Reasons System Focus is Overlooked

- a. It is not a quick fix. Prevailing theories blame institutions, offenders, or victims. Intentionally or not, each one may amount much more to “system defending.”
 - 1) The law does not change socialization.
 - 2) Easier to make victim conform. Victims often find themselves re-victimized by the process.
 - 3) Institution blaming focuses on regulatory failures. It pleads for greater resources, efficiency, and power while asking victims to be more cooperative and supportive but not to expect too much against the intractable problem.
 - 4) Offender blaming finds the inherent traits either of all people or in a select group of evil people. It suggests we can be more vigilant in identifying, punishing and isolating the problem. Victims must be constantly on their guard and help root out problems.
- b. Victims desire conformity. Victims often find themselves re-victimized by the process. If the victim thinks they will be re-victimized, perhaps the grievance procedures could be strengthened to protect victims’ rights.
- c. System is a self-perpetuating process. The system tends to maintain the status quo.
 - 1) If the perception of the victim is s/he did something to facilitate the actions taken against him or her or if the reality for the victim is that there will be consequences for taking action then the system will maintain its status quo.
 - 2) The purpose and intention of system focus does not relieve the victim of his or her responsibilities and contribution to the problem.

F. The Method to Prevent Victim Focus

The APIE is used as a method to prevent victimization.



Use the APIE method to identify, process, and prevent victimization. The four steps of the APIE method are:

Step 1 – Assess the symptoms and causes of the problem.

Roots are all the elements and behaviors that collectively characterize an organization. Roots determine how things work in a given organization.

During your assessment, you will find things out about the organization. The task here is to determine where change is needed—where a root may need to be removed, or tweaked, or added. The goal is to determine whether the roots support or hinder the efforts of the organization. Assessment is critical, since it provides the basis for planning change.

Step 2 – Plan solutions to symptoms and causes

One of the most crucial and difficult steps in the process is identifying the actual problem. While this might seem to be an easy procedure, the key to defining the problem is locating the “real,” not associated symptoms. Problems usually are obscure, disguised, or locked inside some form of emotional distress relating to supervision, poor troop performance, or in other mission requirement.

1. Contrast the current roots with the desired change/outcome.
2. What should we be? The commander/manager driving the root modification is the change agent.
3. Develop a full scale plan for deliberately and definitively bringing about the change.
4. Changes must be direct and straightforward.

Step 3 – Implement Changes

1. Repeatedly articulate new solutions, elements, and behaviors.
2. Create supportive traditions.
3. Create appropriate heroes and heroines.
4. Influence communication networks (formal and informal; i.e. Facebook, etc...)
5. Recruit new root guards.
6. Reward change agents.
7. Change the system

Step 4 – Evaluate Changes

1. Evaluate after a reasonable amount of time has passed (e.g., 6 months to a year).
2. Determine success of change.
 - a. Was the real problem identified?
 - b. Was the action taken appropriate?
3. Determine if the change should be terminated. If so, return to planning stage.
4. Reassess the organization.
 - a. Use the same methods as in the original assessment (APIE).
 - b. The main difference in the reassessment is that the focus is on expected outcomes from the planning stage.

APIE (acronym)

Assess the symptoms and causes of the problem.

Plan solutions to symptoms and causes.

Implement changes.

Evaluate changes.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define victim.
- B. Define victim focus.
- C. State the process of blaming the victim.
- D. State the ideological process of blaming the victim.
- E. Define system focus.
- F. Identify the method to prevent victim focus.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3350

RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY/ACCOMMODATION



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding religion and its diversity, especially within your unit, will help you assist leaders when they are faced with issues of religious accommodation and discrimination. This course includes one lesson of instruction: Religious Diversity/Accommodation. Within this lesson are topics of content that address the sample behaviors for the course objective. Each topic includes non-graded progress checks to review and reinforce key teaching points.

Recommended Reading

1. DoD Instruction 1300.17, *Accommodations of Religious Practices within the Military Services*
2. *Religious Guidelines in the Federal Workplace*

References

1. Department of Defense. (2009). DoDI 1300.17, *Accommodation of religious practices within the military services*. Washington, D.C.
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6. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. (2008). *EEOC compliance manual (915.003)*. Washington, D.C.

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9. U.S. Army Regulation. (2010). AR 600-20, *Army command policy*. Headquarters, Department of the Army, Washington, D.C.
10. U.S. Coast Guard Instruction. (1994). COMDTINST M1730.4B , *Religious ministries within the Coast Guard*.
11. U.S. Department of Transportation, Washington, D.C.
12. . U.S. Supreme Court. (1997, August 14). *Guidelines on religious exercise and religious expression in the federal workplace*. Washington, DC: The White House Office of the Press Secretary.

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 3350 Religious Diversity
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, know how religious discrimination impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define religion as described in DoD Directive 1350.2.	K	CRT
B. Describe how DoD addresses religious accommodation requests.	K	CRT
C. State how to recognize religious discrimination.	K	CRT
D. Identify strategies to combat religious discrimination in the military.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY/ACCOMMODATION**A. Definitions**

1. The Department of Defense places a high value on the rights of members of the military Services to observe the tenets of their respective religions, or no religion at all.
2. It is DoD policy that states accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on military necessity to include mission accomplishment, military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.
3. DoD Directive 1350.2 defines religion as:

“A personal set or institutionalized system of attitudes, moral or ethical beliefs, and practices that are held with the strength of traditional religious views, characterized by ardor and faith, and generally evidenced through specific religious observances.”

4. Derivation (*DoD Religion Definition Origin*)

This definition developed as a result of two Supreme Court cases that dealt with conscientious objectors, *U.S. v. Seeger*, 380 U.S. 163 (1965) and *Welsh v. U.S.*, 398 U.S. 333 (1970). The Court decided it was unconstitutional to confine conscientious objector status only to those who are religious in the traditional theistic sense (e.g., Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, Jewish, Muslim), when those who follow non-theistic religious faiths (e.g., Buddhists). The court also decided that non-religious men and women may also hold passionate and ethically-based objections to serving in combat or in the military. In coming to this conclusion, the Justices broadened the definition of religion to be used by the Court, as well the scope of those protected by that definition.

5. Functional Definition of Religion

It seeks to convey the substance of what religion does, what it looks like in action, rather than telling us what religion is (which would be a substantive definition). Because of its functional nature, the definition focuses on the dynamics of belief and the level of commitment one has to a set of beliefs. As a result, the definition embraces individuals and groups. It embraces those who hold individual spiritual views, large groups and organizations that profess theistic beliefs (e.g., the Roman Catholic Church, Sunni and Shi'a Islam, Judaism), and, as noted earlier, protects those who profess atheistic beliefs as well.

The following instructions and regulations include the same functional definition:

- a. AR 600-20 (*Command Policy*);
- b. SECNAVINST 5350.16A (*Equal Opportunity Within the Department of the Navy*); and the

- c. AFI 36-2706 (*Military Equal Opportunity Program*).
- d. U.S. Marine Corps is guided by SECNAVINST 5350.16A.

6. Faith Groups

- a. The Establishment Clause of the First Amendment of the U. S. Constitution (i.e., “*Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof*” or “*abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.*”) has been interpreted to mean, in part, that the Federal Government (including the military) may not decide which religions are legitimate and which are not.
- b. The Internal Revenue Service possesses a list of faith groups, but this list includes only those groups whose members have requested tax-exempt status. Not all faith groups desire or request such status.
- c. Data reflected by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) reflects only what service members voluntarily elect to share and so cannot be considered definitive or exact. This information is collected only at Military Entrance Processing Stations (MEPS) and is not updated, except at the specific request of the service member.
- d. Various DoD instructions (e.g., DoDI 1336.5, E4.A2, DoDI 7730.54, and DoDI 1300.18 [E7.A2]) include lists of faith groups, but these are for software coding purposes only; they are neither definitive nor exclusive.
- e. Chaplain representation reflects only those faith groups who choose to endorse chaplains and have put forward candidates who meet DoD standards regarding education, physical fitness, age, and etc.
- f. The Veterans Administration (VA) maintains a list of faith group symbols that may be placed on federally-funded grave markers, but this list reflects only those faith groups whose members have applied for inclusion of their symbol(s) on the list. As of 2011, a total of 48 symbols have been approved.

7. Chaplains

- a. Chaplains are one of this nation’s first religious accommodations in the military.
- b. Since the American Revolution, chaplains have served in the Armed Forces, seeking to ensure that all men and women in uniform and in the DoD have the opportunity to worship— or not— in accordance with their faith and conscience.
- c. Chaplains are endorsed by their faith group as men and women willing to serve in the religiously pluralistic DoD setting, respecting the religious rights of all.

- d. Chaplains and their assistants are the only people in the DoD with whom military personnel may share confidential information without fear of disclosure, regardless of the content of the conversation.

8. Oaths

- a. All who take an oath of office in the DoD to “support and defend the Constitution of the United States,” are taking part in a ceremony that involves two issues of religious diversity and accommodation.
- b. Some religious people feel constrained to avoid swearing an oath, believing such an utterance violates religious tenets. Thus, all military and DoD civilian personnel are given the option of either swearing or affirming.

9. Conscientious Objector

- a. Conscientious objector status began as a religious accommodation and is most frequently used by men and women of faith.
- b. Military members may seek this status without citing a religious motive or possessing religious beliefs.

10. Clergy-Penitent Privilege

- a. A privileged communication is one made by a service member to a chaplain or chaplain’s assistant that will not be disclosed in a court of law without specific permission from the Service member.
- b. The parameters are outlined in the Manual for Courts Martial, Part III (Military Rules of Evidence), Section V (Privileges), Rule 503 (p. III-24)., Rule 503, which states that communications between a service member and chaplain, or chaplain’s assistant, will not be disclosed in a court of law without specific permission from the service member.
- c. Service members need to be aware that to obtain the protection of the privilege, the communication made to the chaplain or chaplain's assistant must (1) be made to the chaplain or chaplain’s assistant in his/her official capacity; (2) be intended to be a private communication; and (3) be made as a matter of conscience or a formal act of religion.
- d. DoD Instruction 1300.06 (Conscientious Objection), paragraph 7.2, specifically disallows privileged status to communications between a chaplain and service member that take place in the course of the mandatory interview during the conscientious objector application process.

11. Worship

- a. Worship services are accommodated except when precluded by military necessity.
- b. If the time required for religious worship falls within normal duty hours or duty rosters, the service member may request exception from those hours and rosters but must be prepared to perform alternative duty or duty hours.
- c. Commanders may grant ordinary leave as an option for a service member's request to observe lengthy holy periods or days.

12. Federally-Funded Burial/Headstones

- a. The Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) furnishes, upon request and at no charge to the applicant, a headstone or marker for the grave of any deceased eligible veteran in any cemetery around the world, regardless of their date of death.
- b. For eligible veterans who died on or after November 1, 1990, the VA may also provide a headstone or marker for graves that are already marked with a private headstone or marker. When the grave is already marked, applicants have the option of applying for either a traditional headstone or marker or a new device.
- c. The VA maintains a list of faith group symbols that may be placed (carved or engraved) upon the headstone or marker. Symbols are added to this list as faith groups submit requests.

B. Accommodations

DoDI 1300.17 states that military departments will accommodate individual expressions of sincerely-held beliefs (i.e., conscience, moral principles, or religious) of service members unless they have an adverse effect on military readiness, mission accomplishment, unit cohesion, and good order and discipline.

1. All requests for accommodation of religious practices will be assessed on a case-by-case basis.
2. Each request must be considered and based on:
 - a. Sincerely-held beliefs of the requester,
 - b. its unique facts,
 - c. the nature of the requested religious accommodation,

- d. the effect of approval or denial on the service member's exercise of religion, and
- e. the effect of approval or denial on mission accomplishment, including unit cohesion.

3. Accommodation Procedures:

Military commanders should consider the following factors when determining whether to grant a request:

- a. The importance of military requirements in terms of mission accomplishment, including military readiness, unit cohesion, good order, discipline, health, and safety;
- b. the religious importance of the accommodation to the requester;
- c. the cumulative impact of repeated accommodations of a similar nature;
- d. alternative means available to meet the requested accommodation; and
- e. previous treatment of the same or similar requests, including treatment of similar requests made for other than religious reasons.

If a waiver of current Service policy is required to approve a request, the decision authority rests with the Secretary concerned.

4. Common Religious Accommodation Request

- a. Time off for religious observances, rituals, and holidays

When considering such requests, military leaders should refer to DoD Instruction 1300.17 for guidance. With regard to civilian requests for time off for religious reasons, military leaders and/or civilian supervisors should refer to the rules outlined in 5 U.S.C. 5550a, Subpart J—Adjustment of Work Schedules for Religious Observances, which states that Federal employees are entitled to time off to observe religious holidays, exercises, and functions. For more information on this Title 5 provision, see the section on “Religious Accommodation of Civilian Federal Employees” on the DEOMI website (www.deomi.org, under Religious Diversity).

- b. Religious Apparel

DoDI 1300.17 states that “under Public Law 100-180, section 508 [reference (c)], members of the Armed Forces may wear visible items of religious apparel while in uniform, except under circumstances in which an item is not neat and conservative or its wearing shall interfere with the performance of the member's military duties.”

- 1) Individual Service uniform/grooming implementing regulations are the authority per law and DoD policy.

- 2) Members may wear items of religious apparel while in uniform, except when the items would interfere with the performance of military duties or the item is not neat and conservative.
- 3) When evaluating religious accommodation requests regarding grooming (e.g., hair length and styles) and body art, factors to consider include whether approving the accommodation would:
 - a) Impair the safe and effective operation of weapons, military equipment, or machinery;
 - b) pose a health or safety hazard to the service member wearing the religious apparel and/or others;
 - c) interfere with the wear or proper function of special or protective clothing or equipment (e.g., helmets, flak jackets, flight suits, camouflaged uniforms, protective masks, wet suits, and crash and rescue equipment); and
 - d) otherwise impair the accomplishment of the military mission.

c. Dietary Requirements

Some faith groups have religious tenets that prohibit eating specific foods or prescribe how food should be prepared. These dietary restrictions are normally prohibitions against specific foods rather than requirements to eat only a few select foods.

d. Medical Requirements

Service members may request accommodation of these beliefs and practices, using the chain of command and, particularly with regard to waivers of immunization, the combined instruction entitled “Immunizations and Chemoprophylaxis.” In addition, the SECNAVINST 1730.8B (Accommodation of Religious Practices) addresses the issue of DNA samples.

5. Accommodating Requests

- a. DoD Policy - According to DoDI 1300.17, “Requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.”
- b. Note the wording of DoDI 1300.17: “Requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders. ...” The word *should* is here to emphasize the fact that commanders should first think “yes” in response to such requests, rather than rejecting them without due consideration. Commanders must be able to explain how granting an accommodation may have an adverse impact upon military readiness, safety,

or good order and discipline.

- c. Requests for religious accommodation, however, are not guaranteed. Operational needs or safety concerns may dictate that commanders deny such a request. You can play a role in assisting the commander to make a wise decision, especially to the degree that you are familiar with the DoDI 1300.17 and the other regulations and instructions that address religious accommodation.
- d. Civilian Policy – These rules and regulations attempt to apply secular standards to faith issues. The policy is trying to address religion using reason: “Federal law requires an agency to accommodate employees’ exercise of their religion unless such accommodation would impose an undue hardship on the conduct of the agency's operations...” (Supreme Court, 1997)

6. Uncommon Request

In 1996, Congress passed a law that allowed for ceremonial use of peyote, for sacramental purposes only, by members of the Native American Church. The Federal Government, including the military Services, was directed to accommodate peyote usage as an element of religious practice under strict conditions. This public law, and all the DoD regulations and instructions regarding it, apply only to peyote. No other hallucinogenic drugs may be used by military members or Federal workers for religious purposes, and it is important to remember that peyote may only be used by *bonafide* members of the Native American Church.

7. Decision Making Factors

a. Importance of Military Requirement

For commanders, the military mission is paramount, so s/he will take into consideration such things as unit cohesion, standards, and readiness when considering requests for religious accommodation. At the same time, s/he must remember that the DoDI 1300.17 urges commanders to think “yes” first, rather than “no.”

b. Importance to Requester

Determining the importance of the request is subjective, so EOAs and commanders must take care and ensure this is given due consideration.

c. Cumulative Impact

It is important for EOAs and commanders to consider each request individually and in conjunction with the other factors before making a final decision.

d. Alternatives

What alternatives exist that might meet the requested accommodation? Ask the requester! Chances are this is not the first time he/she has requested the accommodation. Religious accommodations often must be requested anew at each duty station, or with every new commander.

e. Previous Treatment of Similar Requests

It can be helpful to do some research, talk with other EOAs, talk with chaplains, to see how other accommodation requests have been addressed.

8. White House Guidelines

a. Section 1: Religious Exercise and Expression in the Federal Workplace

- 1) Religious expression
- 2) Religious discrimination
- 3) Accommodation of religious exercise
- 4) Establishment of religion

b. Section 2: Guiding Legal Principles

- 1) Religious expression
- 2) Discrimination in terms and conditions
- 3) Coercion of employees' participation or non-participation in religious activities
- 4) Hostile work environment and harassment
- 5) Accommodation of religious exercise
- 6) Establishment of religion

c. Section 3: General

These guidelines govern the internal management of the civilian executive branch and are not intended to create any new law or equity by a party against the United States, its agencies, its officers, or any person.

9. Restrictions

Some of the same issues that commanders seek to accommodate must, when mission needs dictate; religion practices must either be postponed or restricted. These include not only

worship activities, but might also include, for example, requiring Jewish personnel, who normally wear the yarmulke, to cease doing so if in a position where such headgear might constitute a safety hazard; requiring those who have waivers of immunization for religious reasons to receive shots against an imminent threat of widespread contagion; requiring those who are normally excused from working or standing duty on their Sabbath to do so; and so on.

C. Discrimination

Religious discrimination is behavior in which a person or group is treated differently because of what they do or do not believe. This behavior can be seen in the following ways:

1. Discounting

This occurs when another person's religious practice or values—dissimilar to one's own—are dismissed, or discounted, as less important. This can translate into denial of that person's opportunity to practice his/her own beliefs, or a tendency to think a person is trying to gain special privileges.

2. Religious Jokes and Slurs

These are similar to racial or ethnic jokes, with a religious theme.

3. Mandating

Overtly or covertly requiring a person to participate in a religious service or public prayer (e.g., at a staff meeting or mandatory formation). Mandating worship, prayer, or any other religious behavior constitutes discrimination against those who do not wish to worship, pray, or engage in religious behavior.

4. Stereotyping

Religion is as much a source of stereotypes as race, gender, and other factors.

5. Exclusion

Refusing to associate with people because of their religious beliefs

6. Ignoring and Indifference

a. Ignoring – Failing to recognize and address legitimate religious needs, such as providing alternative services, or considering the religious or worship needs of individuals of faith, or the needs of those with no faith.

b. Indifference – Lack of concern for those with religiously-focused concerns, to include

those who wish to be free from religion.

7. Harassment

Religious speech, to include sharing one's faith with others, is as free and protected as any other speech. Where that freedom and protection ends, however, is when evangelizing or proselytizing activities conducted by a service member becomes harassment.

D. Strategies to Combat Religious Discrimination

As an EOA, you have a responsibility to be conversant with religious issues within your unit. A number of strategies exist to ensure you can discuss religious accommodation and/or discrimination issues with your commander and other leaders with intelligence and insight

EOA involvement can prevent or help to resolve religious accommodation and discrimination issues. This will create greater unit cohesion and better morale.

1. Do some research on various faith groups, or get together with a unit member whose faith is new to you and learn and have knowledge on what that person believes and practices.
2. Be aware and capable of advising about religious issues within your unit, or the military as a whole, as well as national trends.
3. Research unit religious demographics and keep commanders aware of issues that pertain to the religious groups within your unit.
4. Research unit religious demographics and keep commanders aware of issues that pertain to the religious groups within your unit.
5. Work with unit chaplain.
6. Stress to commanders and other unit leaders the:
 - a. Importance of religious faith, and the accommodation thereof
 - b. Rights of those who do not profess a religious faith (i.e., atheists, agnostics, and humanists)
 - c. Importance of understanding DoDI 1300.17 and regulations, policies, and directives as these apply to possible or actual religious discrimination
7. Ensure all unit members understand the overarching importance of the military mission.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define religion as described in DoD Directive 1350.2.
- B. Describe how DoD addresses religious accommodation requests.
- C. State how to recognize religious discrimination.
- D. Identify strategies to combat religious discrimination in the military.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3700

SEXUAL ASSAULT PREVENTION AND RESPONSE (SAPR)



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

The lesson is divided into two segments, lecture, and scenarios. The lecture will provide information for participants to understand the definitions and differences between sexual assault and sexual harassment, to clarify EOA's role, and to identify reporting options and requirements. The lesson incorporates a series of scenarios designed to elicit discussion with students (while remaining in the auditorium) to determine the required course of action for their role as EOAs.

Recommended Reading

None

References

1. Abbey, Antonia, Ph.D. (2002). *Alcohol-related sexual assault: A common problem among college students*. Wayne State University, Department of Community Medicine. Retrieved from www.collegedrinkingprevention.gov/media/journal/118-abbey.pdf
2. Commandant of the Marine Corps. (2013, March). Marine Corps Order (MCO) 1752.5B, *Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) Program*.
3. Department of the Army. (2012, September). Army Regulation 600-20, *Army Command Policy*, RAR Issue.
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5. Department of Defense. (2009). *Defense task force on sexual assault in the military services (DTF-SAMS) Report*.
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7. Department of Defense. (2012). *2012 Workplace and gender relations survey of active duty members (WGRA)*. Washington, DC: Defense Manpower Data Center.
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9. Department of Defense. (2013, April). Directive 6495.01. *Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) Program*. Washington, DC. . Change 1.
10. Department of Defense. (2014). *Department of Defense annual report on sexual assault in the Military: Fiscal Year 2013*.
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14. Secretary of the Navy Instruction (2005, December). (SECNAVINST) 1752.4A, *Sexual Assault Prevention and Response*.
15. Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office. (2010, December). *Findings from the 2010 prevalence/incidence survey of sexual assault in the Air Force*.
16. Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office. (2015, January 12). *Safe helpline*. Retrieved from <http://www.myduty.mil>
17. Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office. (2015, January 12). *SAPRO website*. Retrieved from <http://www.sapr.mil>
18. Under Secretary of Defense (Personnel and Readiness). (2014, February 1). Department of Defense Instruction 6495.02. *Sexual assault prevention and response program procedures*, Change 1.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Handout of Service SAPRO links (Embedded in Student Guide)
3. Handout of Sexual Assault Flow Chart (See Student Guide)
4. Handout of DEOCS 4.0 (See Student Guide)

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation—EOA 3700 Sexual Assault Prevention and Response
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, students will know how sexual assault affects military readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe SAPR policies in the DoD.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the difference between sexual harassment and sexual assault.	K	CRT
C. Discuss the myths and misconceptions associated with sexual assault.	K	CRT
D. Describe negative effects of sexual assault on military readiness.	K	CRT
E. Recognize reporting options for sexual assault victims.	K	CRT
F. Recognize strategies to prevent sexual assault	K	CRT
G. Identify sexual assault referral agencies.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SEXUAL ASSAULT PREVENTION AND RESPONSE**A. SAPR Policies in the DoD**

1. Oversight of the Department's Sexual Assault Prevention and Response programs is the responsibility of the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office, or SAPRO.

The DoD SAPR mission is to prevent and respond to the crime of sexual assault in order to enable the military readiness and reduce—with a goal to eliminate—sexual assault from the military.

2. SAPRO:
 - a. Develops policy and programs to improve prevention efforts.
 - b. Sets training standards and assesses whether those standards have been met.
 - c. Enhances treatment and response to victims, and ensures system accountability.
 - d. Collaborates closely with services and numerous outside organizations to fully implement those policies and programs.
3. DoD SAPR Strategic Plan Lines of Effort
 - a. Prevention – Deliver consistent and effective prevention methods and programs.
 - b. Investigation – Achieve high competence in the investigation of SA.
 - c. Accountability – Achieve high competence in holding offenders appropriately accountable.
 - d. Advocacy/Victim Assistance – Deliver consistent and effective victim support, response, and reporting options.
 - e. Assessment – Effectively standardizes measure, analyze, assess, and report program progress.
4. DoD SAPR Strategic Plan Objectives
 - a. Prevention – Cultural imperatives of mutual respect and trust, professional values, and team commitment are reinforced to create an environment where sexual assault is not condoned, tolerated, or ignored.
 - b. Investigation – Investigative resources yield timely and accurate results.
 - c. Accountability – Perpetrators are held accountable appropriately.

- d. Advocacy/Victim Assistance – DoD provides high quality services and support to instill confidence and trust, strengthen resilience, and inspire victims.
- e. Assessment – DoD incorporates responsive, meaningful, and accurate systems of measurement and evaluation into every aspect of the SAPR program.

B. Differences between Sexual Harassment and Sexual Assault

1. Definition of Sexual Harassment

- a. Sexual Harassment – A form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, request for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:
 - 1) Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly, a term or condition of a person’s job, pay, or career, or,
 - 2) Submission to or reflection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or,
 - 3) Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual’s work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.
- b. This definition emphasizes that this workplace conduct is actionable as an “abusive work environment” harassment that can result in concrete psychological harm to the victim and be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive the work environment as hostile or offensive (“Workplace” is an expansive term for Military members and can include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day). Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a Military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment. Similarly, any Military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment. (DoDD 1350.2)

2. Definition of Sexual Assault

Intentional sexual contact characterized by the use of force, threats, intimidation, or abuse of authority or when the victim does not or cannot consent. The term “sexual assault” includes a broad category of sexual offenses consisting of the following specific UCMJ offenses:

Rape, sexual assault, aggravated sexual contact, abusive sexual contact, forcible sodomy (forced oral or anal sex), or attempts to commit these acts (DoDD 6495.02 Ch 1 Feb 12, 2014), USCG COMDTINST 1754.10C.

3. Examples of Sexual Harassment

- a. Verbal comments
- b. Obscene or sexually explicit media
- c. Nonverbal actions
- d. Physical touching
- e. Unwanted requests to perform sexual acts or sexual favors

4. Examples of Sexual Assault

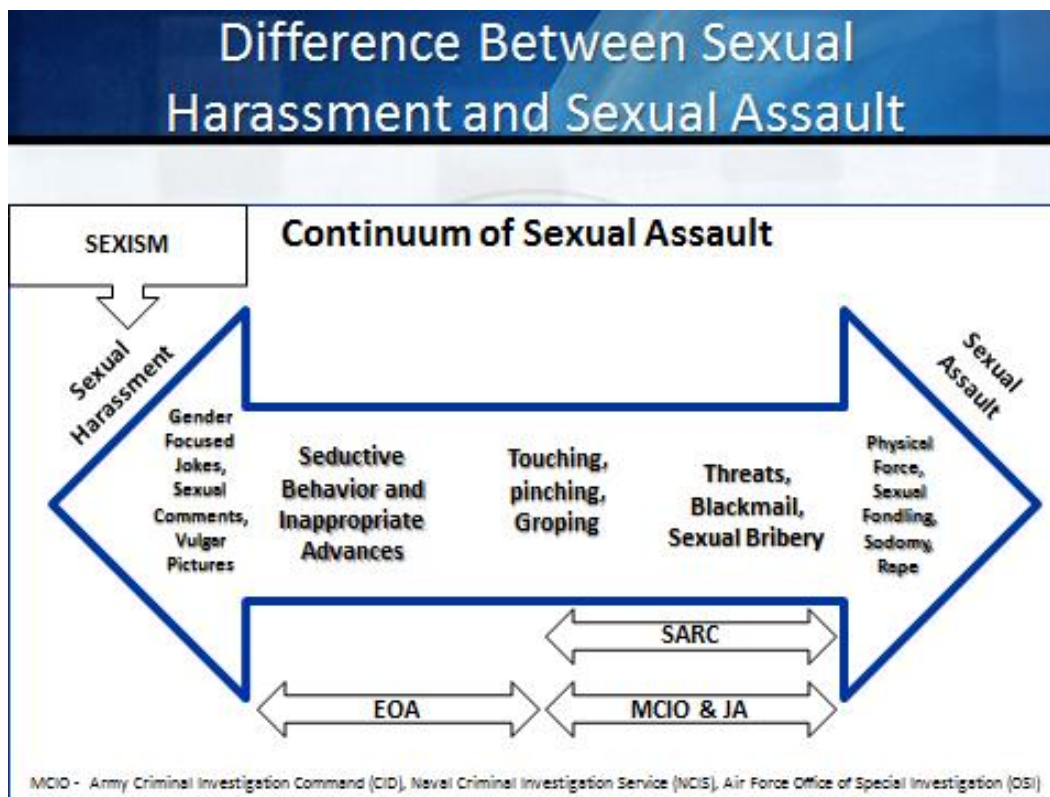
- a. Grabbing without permission
- b. Making someone give or receive oral sex
- c. Touching a person while incapacitated
- d. Threatening or coercing someone to have sex
- e. Touching with an object without consent
- f. Having sex with someone without consent

5. Consent

- a. Consent is words or overt acts indicating a freely-given agreement to the sexual conduct at issue by a competent person.
- b. An expression of lack of consent through words or conduct means there is no consent.
- c. Lack of verbal or physical resistance or submission resulting from the accused's use of force, threat of force, or placing another person in fear does not constitute consent.
- d. A current or previous dating relationship by itself or the manner of dress of the person involved with the accused in the sexual conduct at issue shall not constitute consent.
- e. Consent is not given when a person used force, threat of force, coercion or when the victim is asleep, incapacitated, or unconscious. Consent is a critical concept regarding sexual assault.

- f. According to research, alcohol is a significant factor in sexual assault incidents in the military, similar to trends at colleges and universities. The link between extreme alcohol use and sexual assault in the military is clear. In an article that summarizes numerous research efforts that were conducted for over a decade, the connection between excessive use of alcohol by college students and sexual assault is well documented. This research describes the connections between alcohol abuse and sexual assault among college students, but is also applicable to the military. Dr. Abbey states that at least 50 percent of sexual assaults among college students are associated with alcohol use. She concludes that “because of the strong association of alcohol use and sexual assault, programming and intervention of these two areas should be coordinated.”

6. The Sexual Assault (“S”) Continuum



This continuum is very useful, not only in identifying how assaults may occur, but also in giving some warning signals before they happen. This is important to you, as EOAs for several reasons. First and foremost, as we stated in the introduction, as EOAs you are not part of the Sexual Assault Response Team, so it is important for you to know when behaviors move from harassment into assault, and when and how to make a referral or report. But as EOAs, you have responsibilities regarding sexual harassment and it is in addressing sexual harassment that you can play a role in preventing sexual assault, and also become a strategic partner to your commanding officer in ensuring the climate is free of sexual harassment.

- a. The continuum begins with sexism and sexist attitudes that many, if not most, of us learn in childhood and are often reinforced by our society, environment, and culture in adulthood. Briefly defined, sexism is those attitudes or behaviors, based on stereotypes of traditional sexual roles that can lead to devaluation or discrimination against a person because of their sex or gender. There appears to be a link between what is learned in our early stages of development concerning our sexist behaviors that perpetuate forms of sexual harassment or degradation of the opposite sex. Obviously, not everyone who grows up with sexist attitudes winds up sexually harassing or assaulting others. Many “outgrow” or control these attitudes, but for some, sexism can predispose them to harassment and even assault.
- b. Sexual harassment can include gender-focused jokes, sexual comments, vulgar pictures, unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. While sexual harassment can involve physical contact, it can also involve verbal or nonverbal manifestations of a sexual nature. Sexual harassment is handled by EOAs. That is clearly in your line of responsibility. You are trained to address it, and you are clear on the policies and regulations regarding it.
- c. Sexual harassment can involve unwanted touching; however, touching is the “middle area” of the continuum where sexual harassment moves toward sexual assault. That difference is nonconsensual, physical contact or threat to force submission, sexual assault is characterized by use of force, physical threat, and or abuse of authority, or when the victim is unable to consent or incapacitated.
- d. On the far end of the spectrum, any of the behaviors that fall under sexual assault are the domain of the Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC), or the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Victim Advocate (SAPR VA), and your best course of action is to hand off to the SARC.

C. Sexual Assault Myths and Misconceptions

There are numerous myths and misconceptions regarding sexual assault. Most sexual assault myths shift blame from the perpetrator to the victim; as a result, victims are less likely to report assaults or receive adequate care.

Some of the most challenging myths involve male sexual assault. Male victims of sexual assault contend with myths of male strength and sexuality, which leads many to believe that “real men” do not get raped and that males raped by other men must be homosexual. This is an example of victim blaming. In fact, in the United States, 5 to 10 percent reported rapes are of males. With such low numbers of male sexual assaults among the general population, civilian terminology and sexual assault prevention and response programs remain focused principally on female victims. This terminology and these programs have been adopted by the military with little consideration of the fact that the Armed Forces are comprised of 85 percent males and 15 percent females. This focus on female victims in a predominantly male environment makes it all the

more difficult for male sexual assault victims to seek assistance; likewise, within the military, incidents involving male victims, as is also true of female victims, are under reported.

Historically and across all cultures, the act of sexual assault is more about power and control than sexual gratification.

D. Negative Effects of Sexual Assault on Military Readiness

1. Individual

- a. Beyond the physical wounds of sexual assault, victims' psychological reactions can be prolonged and harmful such as:
 - 1) PTSD
 - 2) Fear and anxiety associated with reporting barriers, confusion, embarrassment, shame, and self-blame
 - 3) Difficulty sleeping
 - 4) Lack of concentration
 - 5) Depression
- b. Victims of sexual assault may be unable to perform their assigned duties due to medical treatment or counseling, or if relocated from the unit to ensure their safety.
- c. Victims who continue to serve in the same unit with their assailant are likely to have diminished abilities to perform their duty due to concerns over personal safety and potential re-victimization.

2. Unit

- a. A unit's military readiness is highly dependent on the quality and quantity of its personnel. Sexual assault directly and indirectly diminishes readiness, adversely affecting the units of both victims and assailants. These impacted Service members are frequently absent from duty because of medical, legal, investigative, and administrative matters. Their absences affect unit divisions of labor, productivity, teamwork, their co-workers, and cohesion. Sexual assault can also affect the mission due to the distraction of leadership to address the issue.
- b. Sexual assault also has a negative impact on recruiting and retention in the military services. Service members won't reenlist if they view the military as a hostile and unsupportive environment, and fewer young people will join the military if they are concerned about a climate that tolerates sexual violence and assault.

E. Strategies to Prevent Sexual Assault

1. SAPRO plays a key role in developing DoD’s sexual assault prevention strategy.
 - a. DoD’s sexual assault prevention is more than risk management.
 - b. It takes as broad community approach encompassing all personnel at every level to end sexual assault throughout the DoD.

Strategies to Prevent Sexual Assault

Objective: To deliver consistent and effective prevention methods and programs.
End-state: Cultural imperatives of mutual respect and trust, professional values, and team commitment are reinforced to create an environment in which sexual assault is not tolerated, condoned, or ignored.

★ Leaders are the “center of gravity” for prevention efforts

Spheres of Influence

Society
DoD/Services/Units
Leaders at all levels
Relationships
Individual
Beliefs, Attitudes, & Values

Social-Ecological Model

Key Means – Resources	Key Ways – Objectives	Supporting End states
DoD Benchmark Prevention Programs and Research	Develop DoD national benchmark prevention program that sets the example for civil society to follow	Acceptance and endorsement of the values shared by DoD
Directives, strategies, and policies	Institutionalize sexual assault prevention practices and programs throughout Department	Institutionalized culture & values supported by policies
Leader mentoring and unit climate	Influence personal values, attitudes, and behaviors	Establishment and maintenance of a culture/climate that supports the prevention of sexual assault
Education, skills building, & training	Promote healthy and supportive relationships between peers, partners, family, and friends	An environment in which Servicemembers’ networks support a culture of sexual assault prevention
Education, skills building, & training	Promote healthy social-emotional relationship skills	Identify, act, and intervene to prevent inappropriate behaviors associated with sexual assault

Excerpted from the 2014-2016 DoD Sexual Assault Prevention Strategy 33

The DoD has launched a serious effort to get its people to engage in active bystander intervention to prevent sexual assault.

- c. Active bystanders take the initiative to help someone who may be targeted for a sexual assault by a predator.
 - d. Active bystanders also take the initiative to help friends who aren’t thinking clearly from becoming perpetrators of a crime.
 - e. Intervention doesn’t mean that you only step in to stop a crime in progress; rather, these steps are early intervention, before the crime began.
2. Commanders play a central role in this strategy and can make a difference in the fight against sexual assault by:

- a. Creating an environment of dignity and respect, and intolerance of sexual violence.
 - b. Setting the right standards and vigorously enforcing those expectations.
 - c. Encouraging troops to demonstrate the courage to identify and correct inappropriate behavior regardless of the perceived cost to their social standing.
3. Though sexual assault prevention is more than risk management, commanders and senior enlisted leaders understand they are responsible for mitigating the sexual assault risks. Some include:
- a. Gender separation in barracks and dormitories.
 - b. Installation of cameras and additional lighting.
 - c. Enacting curfews and increasing the number of safety patrols.
 - d. Commanders also recognize that social marketing campaigns, including the use of sexual assault prevention campaign posters, and consistent leadership messages on sexual assault are critical to prevention efforts.
4. Equal opportunity professionals can exert considerable influence by:
- a. Keeping commanders aware of their organization's climate through ongoing assessments and assisting them in formulating action plans for resolution (see DEOCS 4.0 handout).
 - b. Helping them foster an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust, and teamwork.
 - c. Being a change agent by dispelling sexual assault myths and misconceptions. Myths and misconceptions if left unchecked, pave the way to more violent incidents. If faulty attitudes and beliefs that lead to sexual assault can be stopped and awareness and education be introduced, sexual assault can decrease dramatically.

F. Reporting Options for Sexual Assault Victims

1. Unrestricted
 - a. Command and law enforcement are notified.
 - b. An investigation is initiated.
 - c. Legal proceeding usually follows if there is sufficient evidence. In situations where a victim wants to participate in the military justice process, a victim makes an Unrestricted

Report. However, the victim can access care and services without participating in the military justice system.

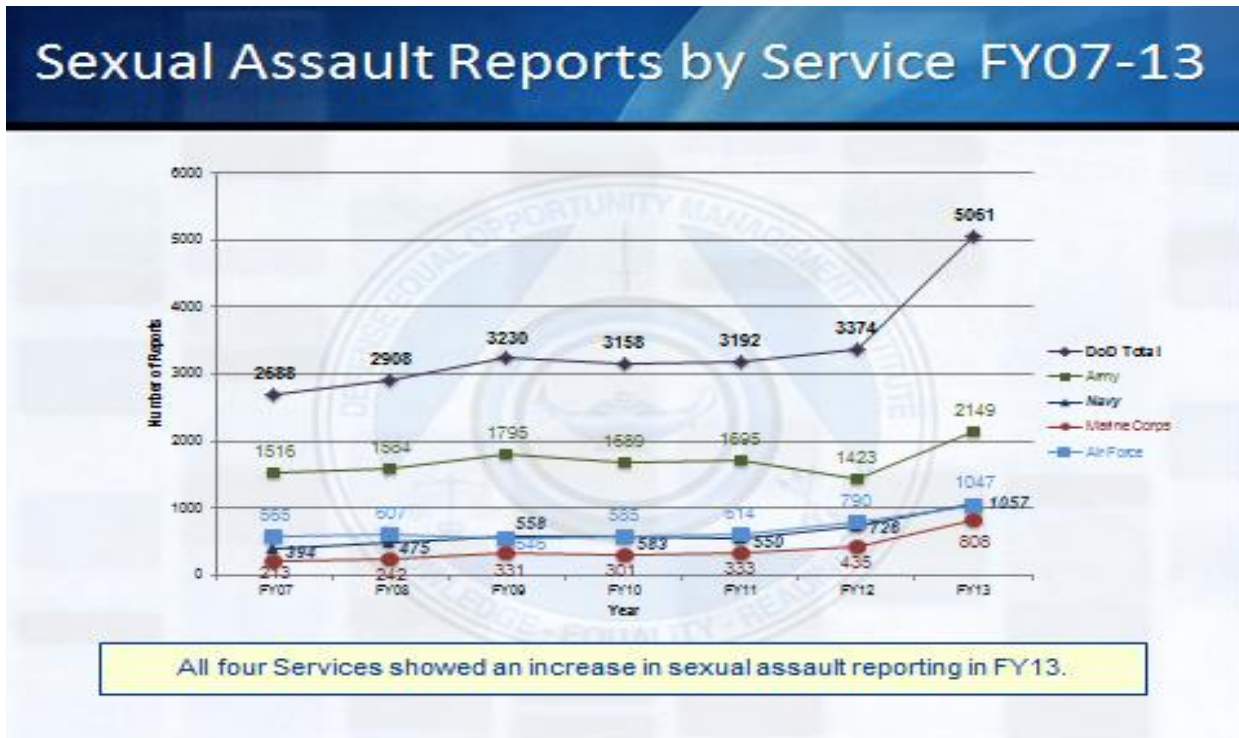
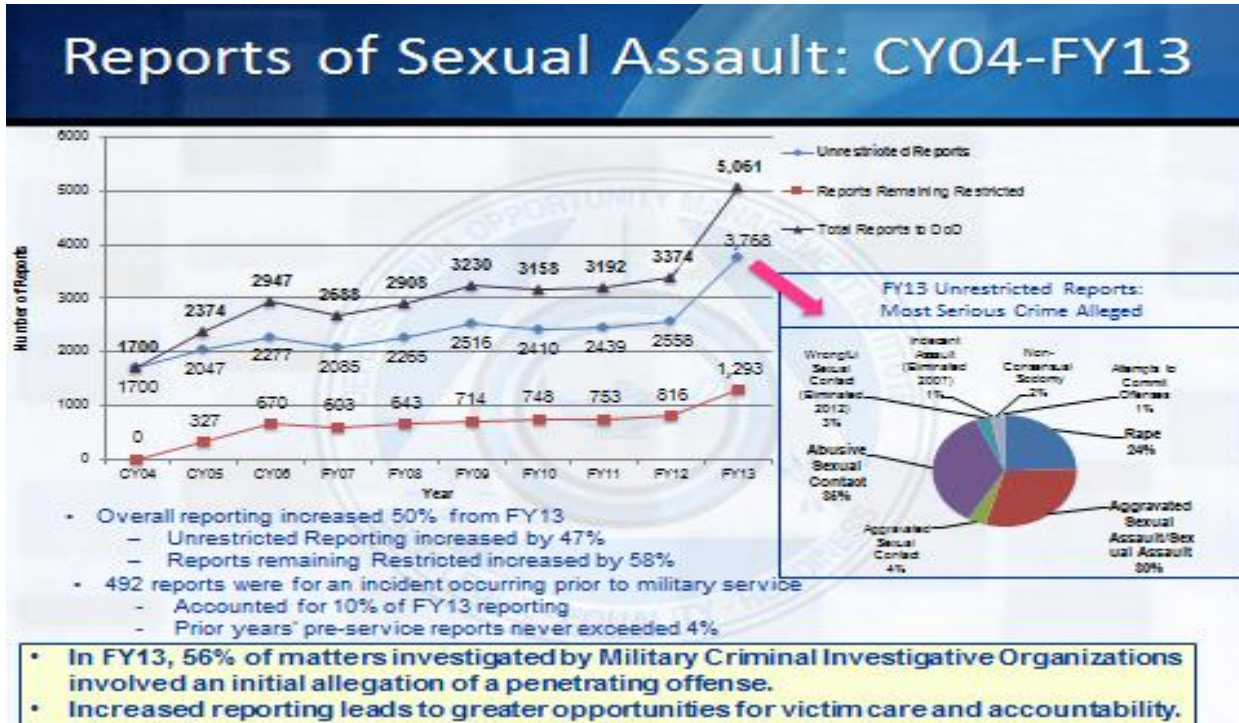
- d. A SARC shall be notified, respond or direct a SAPR VA to respond: assign a SAPR VA.
- e. Victim is offered healthcare treatment and a SAFE.
- f. If a victim elects this reporting option, a victim may not change from an Unrestricted Report to a Restricted Report.

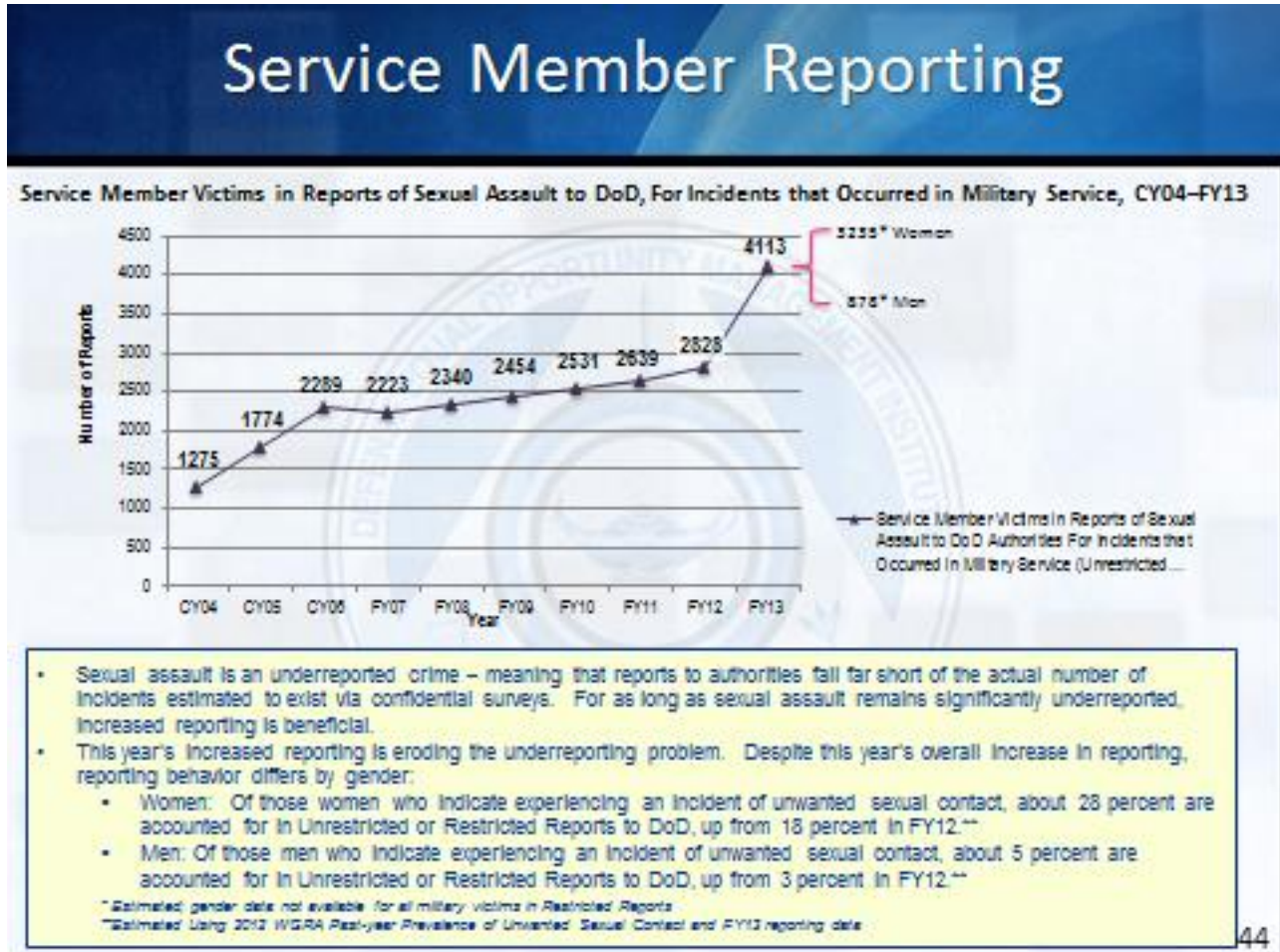
2. Restricted

- a. The restricted reporting is for victims of sexual assault who wish to confidentially disclose the crime to specifically identified individuals without triggering the official investigative process.
- b. Victims receive healthcare treatment and the assignments of a SARC and SAPR VA representative. Also victims who desire restricted reporting under this policy must use one of the following reporting avenues: SARC, SAPR VA, or healthcare personnel.
- c. Restricted reporting is not anonymous reporting. When a victim discloses the matter to anyone other than a SARC, VA, or medical provider, the communication is not protected. If the sexual assault is disclosed to a friend who is in law enforcement or chain of command, the report becomes unrestricted. If a victim elects this reporting option, the victim can change from a Restricted Report to an Unrestricted Report at any time.

3. Who is eligible?

- a. All Service members, including victims prior to enlistment or commissioning (unrestricted and restricted reporting), except for cases that fall under FAP (e.g., dependents 17 and below or when perpetrated by a family member, or domestic/intimate partner). DoD policy currently does not cover retirees.
- b. Adult military dependents (unrestricted and restricted reporting), except for cases that fall under FAP (e.g., dependents 17 and below or when perpetrated by a family member, or domestic/intimate partner.)
- c. Nonmilitary individuals (unrestricted reporting only) to include DoD civilians, their adult family members, and DoD contractors stationed OCONUS and eligible for treatment in the MHS.





G. Sexual Assault Referral Agencies

1. Department of Defense (DoD) Safe Helpline is a groundbreaking crisis support service for members of the DoD community affected by sexual assault. Safe Helpline provides live, one-on-one support and information to the worldwide DoD community. The service is confidential, anonymous, secure, and available worldwide, 24/7 by click, call, or text—providing victims with the help they need anytime, anywhere.

Sexual Assault Referral Agencies

DoD Safe Helpline
Sexual Assault Support for the DoD Community

WWW.Safehelpline.org

Members (TSMs) Transitioning Service

<u>On Line HelpLine</u>	<u>Safe Helpline</u>	<u>Info by Text</u>
Get Live Help Now	Live Help 24/7 Call 877-995-5247 VOIP 24/7	Text Zip Code or Installation/Base Name to 55-247 (inside the US) or 202-470-5546 (outside US)

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2. Safe Helpline services (click, call, and text) are owned by the DoD Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office (SAPRO) and are operated through a contract the Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network (RAINN), the nation's largest anti-sexual violence organization. However, your information will remain confidential. RAINN will not share your name or any other personally-identifying information with SAPRO or your chain of command, unless required by law.
3. The SHL Mobile Application capability affords those Service members OCONUS or in deployed combat areas resources, self-care plans, and various coping exercises, such as breathing and meditation. In addition, it provides a Voice-Over-Internet Provider (VOIP) feature that allows a survivor to connect to the DoD SHL 24/7 with no charge from anywhere in the world.
4. Transitioning Service members (TSMs): Safe Helpline staff is specially trained to focus on the unique challenges faced by TSMs, which will allow them to provide appropriate resources to TSMs who are victims of sexual assault. A veteran-specific resource dashboard includes benefits, resources, and referrals available 24/7. Additionally, TSMs will be able to text their location to be connected with VA resources.
5. Each service has their own website dedicated to assist in referring victims of sexual assault.

Sexual Assault Referral Agencies

- DoD SAPR
<http://sepr.mil>
- Army SHARP
<http://www.sexualassault.army.mil/>
- Navy SAPR
http://www.onic.navy.mil/fr/family_readiness/fleet_and_family_support_program/sexual_assault_prevention_and_response.html
- Marine Corps SAPR
https://www.marinepower.usmc.mil/portal/page/portal/M_RA_HOME/MF/Sexual%20Assault%20Prevention
- Air Force SAPR
<http://www.sexualassaultpreventionresponse.af.mil/index.asp>
- National Guard SAPR
<https://www.jointservicesupport.org/sepr/default.aspx>
- Coast Guard SAPR (State Laws)
<http://www.sepr.mil>
http://www.uscg.mil/worklife/rape_sexual_assault.asp

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6. Referral agencies an EOA can refer a victim of sexual assault to:
 - a. Sexual Assault Response Coordinator/ Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Victim Advocate
 - b. Military Criminal Investigative Organization as applicable

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe SAPR policies in the DoD.
- B. Recognize the differences between sexual harassment and sexual assault.
- C. Discuss the myths and misconceptions associated with sexual assault.
- D. Describe negative effects of sexual assault on military readiness.
- E. Recognize strategies to prevent sexual assault.
- F. Recognize reporting options for sexual assault victims.
- G. Identify sexual assault referral agencies.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 4000

CULTURAL AWARENESS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson provides an introduction into race, ethnicity, and culture in America. The Cultural Awareness lesson introduces the student to the race and ethnic groups designated by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB). This lesson also introduces the student to the concept of culture and how people adapt to cultural differences. The lesson explores the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity which explains six levels of how people react to different cultures. The lesson then introduces the 3C concept, cross-cultural competency, and uses the 3C bulls-eye to describe the levels of cultural competence. This lesson is an introductory lesson to the race and ethnic studies portion of the EOAC.

Recommended Reading

Office of Management and Budget (OMB), *Federal Register*, October 30, 1997.

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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. EOA Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 4000 Cultural Awareness
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objectives

Given examples, reading assignments, and a study guide, comprehend how cultural awareness impacts mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define race and ethnicity.	K	Q
B. List the OMB race and ethnic groups.	K	CRT
C. Describe the concept of culture.	C	CRT
D. Describe the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS).	C	CRT
E. Describe Cross-Cultural Competency (3C).	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test Q = Question & Answer SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

CULTURAL AWARENESS**A. Race and Ethnicity**

1. Race

- a. Anthropological perspective.

“A division of human beings identified by the possession of traits that are transmissible by descent and that are sufficient to characterize persons possessing these traits as a distinctive human *genotype*” (DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, p. 19).

- b. “... a group of people who are generally considered to be physically distinct in some way (e.g., skin color, hair texture, or facial features such as size and shape of the head, eyes, ears, lips, nose, color of eyes) from other groups and are generally considered by themselves and/or others to be a distinct group.” (Farley, 1995)
- c. Race as a social construct.

When demographic information is collected, the racial categories represent a social-political construct for respondents to consider themselves to be and “generally reflect a social definition of race recognized in this country.”

2. Ethnicity

- a. Ethnicity, as noted by Parrillo, is a cultural concept in which a large number of people who share learned or acquired traits and close social interaction regard themselves and are regarded by others as constituting a single group on that basis.
- b. Ethnicity differs from race in that members within a racial category may identify with one or more ethnic groups based on cultural or national origin characteristics (e.g., customs, traditions, language) either retrained or passed on through generations.
- c. Ethnic groups sometimes live within the same communities and maintain many of their traditional cultural features.

B. OMB Race and Ethnic Groups

1. Race/Ethnic Groups and OMB

- a. The Office of Management and Budget (OMB) developed the five race and two ethnic groups to provide a common language to promote uniformity and comparability of data collected for research.

- b. OMB defines the concept of race as outlined for the U.S. Census as not “scientific or anthropological” and takes into account “social and cultural characteristics as well as ancestry,” using “appropriate scientific methodologies” that are not “primarily biological or genetic in reference.”
- c. Five race groups
 - 1) American Indian or Alaska Native
 - 2) Asian
 - 3) Black or African American
 - 4) Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - 5) White
- d. Two ethnic groups
 - 1) Hispanic or Latino
 - 2) Not Hispanic or Latino

C. Concept of Culture

1. Culture

- a. According to Parrillo in his book, *Strangers to These Shores*, culture is the physical or material objects, as well as, the nonmaterial attitudes, beliefs, customs, lifestyle, and values shared by members of a society and transmitted to the next generation.
- b. According to the *U.S. Army and Marine Corps Counterinsurgency Field Manual*, culture is a “web of meaning” shared by members of a particular society or group within a society.

2. Attributes of Culture

- a. A system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and artifacts that members of a society use to cope with their world and with one another
- b. Learned, through a process called enculturation
- c. Shared by members of a society; there is no “culture of one”

- d. Patterned, meaning that people in a society live and think in ways forming definite, repeating patterns
 - e. Changeable, through social interactions between people and groups
 - f. Internalized, in the sense that it is habitual, taken for granted, and perceived as “natural” by people within the society.
3. Cultural adaptation describes how people adapt to other cultures.
- a. Assimilation. The process of re-socialization that seeks to replace one’s original worldview with that of the host culture.
 - b. Adaptation. The process whereby one’s worldview is expanded to include behavior and values appropriate to the host culture.

D. Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)

1. Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)
- a. Ethnocentric – Defined as using one’s own set of standards and customs to judge all people, often unconsciously.
 - b. Ethnorelative – Refers to being comfortable with many standards and customs and to having an ability to adapt behavior and judgments to a variety of interpersonal settings.
2. Ethnocentric Stages
- a. Denial – At this stage people are unable to construe cultural differences in complex ways.
 - b. Defense – People at this stage have more ability to construe cultural difference, but they attach negative evaluations to it.
 - c. Minimization – People at this stage bury cultural differences within already-familiar categories of physical and philosophical similarity.
3. Ethnorelative Stages
- a. Acceptance – People at this stage enjoy recognizing and exploring cultural differences.
 - b. Adaptation – At this stage, people use knowledge about their own and others’ cultures to intentionally shift into a different cultural frame of reference. They can empathize or take another person’s perspective.

- c. Integration – People at this stage attempt to reconcile the sometimes conflicting cultural frames that they have internalized.

E. Cross-Cultural Competency(3C)

1. Cross-Cultural Competency (3C)

- a. 3C is a set of culture-general knowledge, skills, abilities, and attributes (KSAs) developed through education, training, and experience that provide the ability to operate effectively within a culturally complex environment. 3C is further augmented through the acquisition of cultural, linguistic, and regional proficiency, and by their application in cross-cultural contexts. (Draft DoD Policy)
- b. 3C is a set of knowledge, skills, and attributes that enables leaders and soldiers to adapt and act effectively in a cross-cultural environment (Training and Doctrine Command, TRADOC).
- c. 3C is the ability to quickly and accurately comprehend, then appropriately and effectively act, in a culturally complex environment to achieve the desired effect (Air Force Culture and Language Center, AFCLC).
- d. Navigating cultural differences can present operational, strategic, and tactical challenges to our forces.
- e. Effective leaders and operators must be able to adapt across these cultural lines and differences daily.

2. The 3C Model



- a. Self – It is important to understand your own beliefs, and personal and cultural values as one way of appreciating multicultural identities.

- b. Unit/Joint Agency – In order to communicate, cooperate, or lead such teams, one must have the cross-cultural competence to work with and lead individuals who are different from themselves
- c. Coalition/Host Nation – Effective coordination and integration of these commands depends upon understanding and addressing differences effectively to create a truly integrated team.
- d. Adversary – Lack of cultural knowledge about the adversary can have grave consequences for military war fighters, civilians, and our nation as a whole.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define race and ethnicity.
- B. List OMB race and ethnic groups.
- C. Describe the concept of culture.
- D. Describe the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS).
- E. Describe Cross-Cultural Competency (3C).

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 4050

WHITE AMERICANS



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Lesson Overview

The objective of the Ethnic Studies Series is to provide students with opportunities to increase their awareness of the history, socialization, values, religious beliefs, and contemporary issues of major American cultural subgroups that have significant impact on the military. In this lesson, students will learn about the White American racial category.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and online lesson material.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given an online lesson module and a study guide, know the racial identity associated with the White American culture. After completing all Race and Ethnic study modules, students must achieve a minimum passing score of 70% on the Race and Ethnic studies comprehensive exam.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the White American category according to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB).	K	CRT
B. Recall historical experiences unique to White Americans.	K	CRT
C. Recall demographic facts associated with White Americans.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

WHITE AMERICANS

A. OMB and Census Definition

1. The Office of Management and Budget (OMB) officially describes White Americans as “a person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa.”
2. In the 2010 Census, the White American population includes people who marked the “White” checkbox along with entries such as Caucasian or White; European entries such as Irish or German; Middle Eastern entries such as Arab, Lebanese, and Palestinian; and North African entries such as Algerian, Moroccan, and Egyptian (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

B. Historical Experiences

1. European American History
 - a. In 1620, English pilgrim men and women aboard the famous Mayflower, founded Plymouth colony in Massachusetts. Their encounters with American Indians were mutually respectful and bound by a six-point treaty outlining moral behavior toward each other. By 1627, 160 colonists lived in Plymouth colony. From 1629 to 1640, more than 20,000 English Puritans—men, women, and children—immigrated to the Massachusetts Bay colony when King Charles I shut down Parliament, silencing the Puritan voice. These immigrants, like their predecessors, migrated to the New World to obtain religious freedom even though it was an economic strain to leave England. They were predominately educated and middle class (Betlock, 2012).
 - b. William Penn, Quaker, and founder of the Province of Pennsylvania and the English North American colony, ventured to Germany several times between 1671 and 1677 on behalf of the Quaker religion and returned with a wave of religious German immigrants. Today, Pennsylvania is still the hub for Anabaptist religions, including Mennonites and Amish. Pennsylvania also became home to German Lutheran refugees from Catholic provinces, and German Catholics who were discriminated against overseas (Rippley, 2015).
 - c. More Irish immigrants arrived in the United States in the 1700s than the previous century. Most of these immigrants were Presbyterians who left because of religious persecution by the Protestants. The English also prompted Catholic Irish to seek refuge in the United States. Most Irish immigrants arrived in New England, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas. The Protestant Irish immigrants became acclimated and socially accepted quite easily (Rapple, 2015).
 - d. Similarly, there were a small number of French immigrants who arrived in the United States prior to the 1700s, but it wasn't until the French Revolution from 1787 to 1799 that political refugees sought a life in the United States. A wave of Roman Catholic refugees

immigrated to the United States, many of whom were wealthy aristocrats, as well as working class people. Approximately 100 priests also arrived at that time, which was significant because until then there were only about 25 Roman Catholic priests in the colonies. These new priests had a powerful influence on the growth of the Catholic Church in the United States (Hillstrom, 2015).

- e. A large wave of French immigrants came to the United States after Napoleon's defeat in 1815. This influx lasted until the 1860s.
- f. About 30,000 French arrived between 1849 and 1851 to make a fortune during the California Gold Rush, but unfortunately few of these immigrants' wealthy goals succeeded (Hillstrom, 2015).
- g. In 1800, Ireland and England became the United Kingdom, but discontent among the Irish prevailed and many came to the United States for a new start. The majority of the Irish immigrants were skilled laborers, while others were political dissenters. In the 1820s and 1830s most Irish immigrants were unskilled Catholic peasants fleeing their country to find opportunity. The Potato Famine of 1845-1851 led to the largest influx of Irish immigrants to the United States. Most went to large urban cities mainly in the Northeast and in New Orleans, Chicago, and San Francisco. Longstanding English stereotypes of Irish being lazy, drunk scoundrels spread to the United States making it difficult for Irish to assimilate into mainstream society. Despite the negative stereotypes, prejudice, and poverty, they had some advantages over other immigrants. Most spoke English, had come from a country similar to the United States, and arrived in great numbers so they had a support system, an ethnic enclave (Rapple, 2015).
- h. English migration to the United States rose dramatically toward the end of the 1800s due to England's economic problems, cheaper steamship fares, the building of the transcontinental railroad, and the expansion of industrialization, which lured skilled and semiskilled English laborers. The sharp incline in English immigration reached its peak in 1882 and 1888 as annual migration hit 80,000 (Hanft, 2015).
- i. The first wave of Finnish migration to the United States was from 1864 to 1894. The immigrants, who were from northern Finland and Norway, made their way to the States to find better work. From a largely agricultural background, they labored on farms in Minnesota, and in copper mines in Michigan (Wargelin, 2015).
- j. The biggest Norwegian immigration period lasted 14 years from 1880 to 1893 when approximately 18,290 migrated annually due to a slow economy and industrial slowdowns while the United States greatly needed people who could develop their resources. Most of these immigrants were young men with technical skills and education. Many settled in the Midwest and their descendants are still there today (Lovoll, 2015).
- k. An unprecedented amount of Italian immigrants reached the shores of the United States beginning in the 1880s. Many Italian immigrants made trips back and forth between the

two countries; their mobility caused other Americans to label them “birds of passage,” until women and families arrived permanently after 1910. Like other immigrants, Italians felt comfortable in their ethnic enclaves. They did not view themselves as Italians, but instead, by the regions and villages from where they had come, limiting their fellowship to those of the geographical same area. These networks and ethnic enclaves were nestled in the Northeast, Midwest, Louisiana, and California (Pozzetta, 2015).

- l. Over 3.2 million Russian immigrants migrated to the United States between 1881 and 1914 to find better economic success. Nearly half of them were Russian Jews, 65,000 were ethnically Russian, and the others were Ukrainians and Belarusians. Many of the Jews fled because of physical violence to their person and attacks on their property during the Russian Empire in the 1880s to the early 1900s (Magocsi, 2015).
 - m. More than two million Italians immigrated to the United States between 1901 and 1910. Assimilation into American society in the late 1800s and early to mid-1900s was difficult because stereotypes depicted Italians as poor, illiterate, low class, or even criminals (Bromberg, 2012).
 - n. The second wave of Russian migration consisted of 2 million immigrants fleeing the new Bolshevik communist regime between 1920 and 1922 (Magocsi, 2015).
 - o. When Czechoslovakia crumbled during World War II approximately 20,000 Czechs fled from the Nazis. After the war, Czechoslovakia experienced a communist takeover in 1948. Between 1946 and 1975, there were 27,048 more Czech immigrants. By 1990, the U.S. Census recorded nearly 1.3 million Americans with Czech ancestry (Molinari, 2015).
 - p. Also after World War II, 80,000 Dutch migrated to the United States. The Dutch economy was in shambles from the war and housing was scarce. Most migrated to California, Iowa, Florida, New Jersey, Illinois, and Washington (Brinks, 2015).
 - q. Since the 1980s, there has been an unusually large inpouring of undocumented Irish immigrants to Irish-enclave cities, such as Chicago, New York, San Francisco, and Boston. These men and women are predominately young and well educated who work illegally, sometimes for Irish-owned businesses, as nannies, food servers, bartenders, and construction workers. They left economically-troubled Ireland, a country with a high unemployment rate (Rapple, 2015).
2. Modern European American Life

European Americans have overcome many of the ethnocentric challenges they faced in their early history as U.S. citizens. Urban ethnic neighborhoods still exist, but most claiming European ancestries are fully assimilated into American society and view themselves more as a homogenized group than as ethnics (Parillo, 2014).

3. Middle Eastern American History

- a. It is difficult to trace immigration to the United States from the region known today as the Middle East because of the way immigration officials have kept records. Prior to 1900, the destination of all those leaving the Ottoman Empire was officially Egypt, as the West was considered off-limits. In the United States, these immigrants were indiscriminately labeled as Arabs. After 1900 and as late as 1930, all Middle Eastern immigrants were designated as Syrians. It is only recently that Middle Eastern immigrants have been correctly documented (Gillis, 2015).
- b. (1870s) Christian Lebanese was the first Arabic-speaking people to come to the Americas in large numbers. Their earliest immigration to the United States began in the late 1870s.
- c. Early Middle Eastern immigration to the United States began as a result of hunger, disease, harsh living, and religious strife between Christians and Turks. As the Turks' grip of oppression grew stronger, emigration to the United States grew larger. (Parillo, 2014). Most immigrants were poor, unskilled, young men, who—like other immigrants—came to the United States to find a better life. Approximately 25 percent were sojourners who saved enough money to return to their villages and live easily for the rest of their lives. They set examples for others to immigrate to the United States. Some of the new immigrants found work and remained in their new country (Ciment, 2014).
- d. Even though many had an agricultural background, most Syrian- and Lebanese-Americans became peddlers selling goods on the street and door-to-door, which was a valuable way to assimilate into American culture because they quickly learned English (Parillo, 2014).
- e. The years 1880–1924 are commonly referred to as the Great Migration and mark the first wave of large numbers of Middle Eastern immigrants to the United States. About 80% of the Middle Eastern immigrants during the Great Migration were Lebanese or Syrian. Palestinians also immigrated in large numbers, but not to the extent of the Lebanese and Syrians. The Great Migration ended when the United States instituted the quota system defined in the 1924 National Origins Act (Benson, 2004)
- f. In 1936, the number of Palestinian immigrants exceeded the number of Lebanese and Syrian immigrants for the first time when Palestinians began to feel tension stemming from the British government's distribution of land to Zionist Jews looking to establish a Jewish state in Palestine (Benson, 2004).
- g. (Post WWII) Saudi men began immigrating to the United States for higher education following WWII. Saudi Arabia sponsored these students with money from the country's oil wealth. This sponsorship included money for tuition, room and board, clothing, and medical care. Those who studied scientific or technical fields were given additional bonuses (Schryer, 2015).

- h. In 1953, the United States passed the Refugee Relief Act. This legislation was the first in America to include refugees as a type of immigrant. Two thousand Palestinian refugees immigrated to the United States under that categorization in that year (Benson, 2004).
- i. The 1924 quota system was eliminated with the passage of the 1965 Immigration Act. Middle Easterners found it easier to obtain entrance and work visas. This change in immigration legislation brought about the first large scale influx of Yemeni immigrants alone (Walker, 2015).
- j. The vast majority of Iran's immigrants came to the United States before or just after the 1979 revolution in Iran. These Iranian Americans are de facto political refugees even though they are not officially designated as refugees (Gillis, 2015).
- k. After the Gulf War of 1991 resulted in a loss of jobs, the number of Yemenis in the United States tripled during that decade. There was also a noticeable increase in the number of Iraqi immigrants in 1992 as a result of the post-Gulf War economic sanctions on Iraq (Benson, 2004).

4. North African American History

- a. Like the Middle Eastern Americans, most North African immigrants migrated to the United States after the 1965 Immigration Act was implemented. The factors driving North African migration included limited socioeconomic opportunities, political instability, ethnviolence in their home countries, the allure of more economic and education opportunities and the increased personal freedom the United States had to offer (Parillo, 2014).
- b. (Early Immigration) From 1821 until 1830, less than 20 immigrants from all of Africa arrived in the United States; only 55 more immigrated from 1841 to 1850. Until the 1960s, North African Arabs were counted as "other African," and mass immigration of North African Muslims into the United States did not occur because they feared they would not be allowed to continue their traditions in the United States. This fear of prejudice was a larger limiting factor of North African immigration than the 1924 quota system that so heavily affected Middle Eastern immigration numbers (Miller, 2015).
- c. (Post WWII) Although the vast majority of Sephardic Jews who left Morocco after World War II went to Israel, sporadic waves entered the United States after WWII. These immigrants sought to escape difficult social and economic conditions in North Africa. They had a tendency to settle where earlier Sephardic immigrants from Spain, Turkey, and the Balkans had established communities. These represented a small percentage of the out migration from North Africa due to the proximity of Europe and countries such as Spain and France's welcoming of unskilled laborers from North Africa (Shostak, 2015).
- d. (1960s & 1970s) Between 1960 and 1976, unemployment in Egypt rose from less than 200,000 to 850,000 as a result of government policies and overpopulation

(EconomyWatch, 2010). Many Jews and Coptic Christians left Egypt because of the political temperature. Approximately 15,000 Egyptians migrated to the United States between 1967 and 1977 after their defeat in the Arab-Israeli War (Parillo, 2014). Most were educated, skilled workers, and those seeking an education to pursue fields of medicine, law, science, engineering, education, and accounting (Mikhail, 2015).

- e. In the past 30 years, close to 200,000 Egyptian immigrants have arrived—more than 100,000 since 2000 (Parillo, 2014). Their assimilation into American culture has been relatively easy because of their high education and skill level, marriage to other ethnicities, and strong Egyptian bonds. For example, Egyptian Americans have created many organizations, such as the Egyptian Physicians' Association, Egyptian Businessmen's Association, and the Egyptian American Professional Society. Many Egyptian Americans are active in the Arab American University Graduates, the American Arab Anti-Discrimination Committee, and the Arab American Relations Committee—all Arab American institutions (Mikail, 2015). New immigrants tend to reside in urban Egyptian American communities, whereas those who have lived longer in the United States and American-born Egyptian Americans tend to live in non-ethnic areas (Parillo, 2014).

5. Modern Middle Eastern and North African Life

Middle Eastern and North African immigrants to the United States had encounters similar to those of earlier racial groups. The nature of their acceptance and assimilation has varied based on their job skills and education levels. Some have had limited skills and education while others have come to the United States as managerial or technical workers. As with other racial groups, there is a gap between first and second generation Middle Eastern and North African Americans as the natives assimilate more quickly into mainstream American culture and experience tension between themselves and their traditional first generation family members (Parillo, 2014).

C. White American Demographic Facts

1. The 2010 Census reports that the median income for White Americans is \$30,477, 9.2% of White American families live below the poverty line, and 70.2% own the house they live in.
2. Among White Americans, 18.6 percent have attained a bachelor's degree or higher, 84.8% have a household computer, and 75.1% have a broadband internet subscription (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
3. Professionally, 37% work in management, business, science, and art occupations; 25% work in sales and other office occupations; and 16% work in service occupations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
4. White Americans make up 71.5% of Department of the Defense (DoD) total military force and 71.6% of DoD civilians (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013);

Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Services, 2014). Also to note, 79% of Marine Corp active duty personnel are White. This is the highest percentage of White Americans across all the military branches (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013).

5. At 75 percent of the total United States population, White Americans are the largest racial group discussed in these lessons. The majority, 35.7 percent, of White Americans are located in the South (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
6. The 10 leading causes of death for the white population are:
 - a. Heart disease
 - b. Cancer
 - c. Chronic lower respiratory disease
 - d. Stroke
 - e. Unintentional injuries
 - f. Alzheimer's Disease
 - g. Diabetes
 - h. Influenza and pneumonia
 - i. Nephritis, Nephrotic Syndrome and Nephrosis (Kidney Disease)
 - j. Suicide (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2015).

SUMMARY

Having completed this lesson, you are now able to:

- A. Describe the Office of Management and Budget category White Americans.
- B. Recall historical experiences unique to White Americans.
- C. Recall demographic facts associated with White Americans.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 4150

HISPANIC OR LATINO AMERICANS



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

The objective of the Ethnic Studies Series is to provide students with opportunities to increase their awareness of the history, socialization, values, religious beliefs, and contemporary issues of major American cultural subgroups that have significant impact on the military. In this lesson, students will learn about the Hispanic or Latino American ethnic category.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and online lesson material.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given an online lesson module and a study guide, know the ethnic identity associated with the Hispanic or Latino American culture. After completing all Race and Ethnic study modules, students must achieve a minimum passing score of 70% on the Race and Ethnic studies comprehensive exam.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the Hispanic or Latino American category according to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB).	K	CRT
B. Recall historical experiences unique to Hispanic or Latino Americans.	K	CRT
C. Recall demographic facts associated with Hispanic or Latino Americans.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

HISPANIC OR LATINO AMERICANS

A. OMB and Census Definition

1. According to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), Hispanic or Latino refers to a person having origins in Cuba, Mexico, Puerto Rico, South or Central America, or other Spanish culture regardless of race.
2. In the 2010 Census, those who identified as Hispanic or Latino were asked to identify as either Mexican, Mexican American, Chicano; Puerto Rican; Cuban; or any other Hispanic, Latino or Spanish origin via a write in submission (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

B. Historical Experiences

1. Mexican American History

Mexican Americans make up the largest Hispanic or Latino group in the United States.

- a. The first significant influx of Hispanic/Latino immigrants to the United States. occurred during the California Gold Rush or just after most of the modern boundary between the United States and Mexico was established at the end of the U.S.-Mexican War (1846–1848). Under the terms of the “Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo” (signed February 1848), the Republic of Mexico ceded to the United States more than one-third of its former territory, including what are now the states of California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, Texas, and parts of several other states.
- b. In addition, the treaty also offered blanket naturalization to the estimated 75,000 to 100,000 former citizens of Mexico who chose to remain north of the new border at the end of the war (National Park Service, 2015).
- c. From the 1850s to the turn of the century, Mexican Americans were instrumental in assisting the nation’s railroad construction expansion and the development of fruit, cotton, and vegetable farms especially after the implementation of the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act, which prohibited Chinese labor immigration for 10 years (Parillo, 2014).
- d. The Great Depression (1929–1939) was particularly harsh for Mexican Americans. Due to the declining number of jobs in the country, President Herbert Hoover ordered the Federal Bureau of Immigration to transport Mexican immigrants and naturalized Mexican American citizens to Mexico from 1930 to 1935, some of whom were American born. During this Mexican Repatriation, approximately two million were taken, some by force, to Mexico (Digital History, 2014).
- e. The Civil Rights era of the 1960s lessened prejudice by drawing scrutiny to past actions toward Mexican Americans. The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights announced that Mexican Americans had been denied equal treatment in the court system and unfairly

treated. The derogatory word “Chicano” developed into one of pride used by activists as well as in the community (Parillo, 2014).

- f. Between 1981 and 1990, approximately one million Mexicans legally immigrated to the United States. The number of undocumented Mexican immigrants has also risen in recent decades, and although many are deported, it doesn’t lessen the flow of the migration due to political and economic unrest in Mexico and available work in the United States (Englekirk, 2014).

2. Modern Mexican American Life

Today, new immigrants seek out relatives when they arrive in the United States and are met with help including temporary housing and possible employment. Mexican American families are patriarchal, male dominant, and respectful toward elders. Unity and family honor are important (Englekirk, 2015).

3. Puerto Rican American History

Puerto Rican American make up the second largest Hispanic or Latino American group in the United States.

- a. Congress established a civil government in Puerto Rico in 1898, and in 1915, President Woodrow Wilson granted American citizenship to Puerto Ricans. The American government implemented health, infrastructure support, and economic policies to draw U.S. businesses to Puerto Rico (Green, 2007).
- b. In World War II, Puerto Rico was a critical location for the U.S. Navy. There was a political uprising for independence in the 1950s, but it lost its luster after the 1959 communist revolt in Cuba (Green, 2007).
- c. Overpopulation and lack of employment drove Puerto Ricans to the United States between 1947 and 1957 (Mekeel, 2007).
- d. In the 1980s, rising crime rates and unemployment in Puerto Rico spurred immigration to the United States. By 1990, 2.7 million Puerto Rican Americans were living in the United States, making them the second largest Hispanic group in the country (Green, 2015).
- e. Younger, better educated, and wealthier Puerto Rican immigrants have arrived in the United States since 1990, especially in the Midwest and South. New York City has consistently been the top migration destination for the immigrants, although in recent years, Florida, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and the city of Chicago have seen significant Puerto Rican American numbers (Mekeel, 2007).

4. Modern Puerto Rican American Life

Although they are U.S. citizens, Puerto Rican Americans are the most economically-disadvantaged group among Hispanics in the United States. Many live in urban areas with high crime rates, broken families, unemployment, a large amount of drug use, and lack of educational opportunity. They continue to endure racial discrimination because of their African and Spanish mixed heritage. Many Americans don't know Puerto Ricans are natural-born U.S. citizens and therefore, lump them together with other Hispanic groups (Green, 2015).

5. Central American History

Guatemalan immigration is a good representation of the Central American experience because they are a large population group and consist of 23 ethnic groups that speak different languages and have diverse traditions (Hong, 2015).

- a. Before 1960, the United States did not keep statistics for separate Central American countries. The statistics that do exist for the years before 1960 depict Central American immigration as a whole. Between 1890 and 1900 a mere 500 reached the United States. The numbers rose to 17,000 between 1910 and 1920. Further illustrating their rising immigration numbers, 45,000 Central Americans immigrated to the United States from 1951 to 1960 (Hong, 2015).
- b. A large amount of undocumented Guatemalans and other Central Americans have immigrated since the late 1970s. The 1970s were a terrible time for the region due to political turmoil, unemployment, inflation, violence, and lack of land. From 1966 to 1976, almost 20,000 Guatemalans immigrated to the United States. By 1980, there were 62,098 Guatemalan Americans in the United States (Hong, 2015).
- c. Most Guatemalans have arrived since 1980 due to counter-insurgency campaigns. Professionals, such as journalists and schoolteachers were implicated as revolutionary sympathizers, and sought refuge in the United States, although the government does not categorize Guatemalans as political but rather economic refugees (Hong, 2015).

6. Modern Guatemalan American Life

Most Guatemalan Americans live in urban areas with large Hispanic populations. They have been met with a mixture of hostility and friendliness by other Hispanics. Mexican Americans have competed with Guatemalan and other Central American immigrants for jobs, which has led to negativity between them. (Hong, 2015).

7. South American History

Like Central Americans, The United States Federal Census did not separate South Americans into their perspective countries until 1960 (Sturner, 2015). The Colombian immigration experience is a good representation of South American immigration after 1960, because Colombians have consistently made up the largest South American population group to settle in the United States since 1960 (Batalova, 2013).

- a. Between 1960 and 1977, 116,444 Colombians migrated to the United States for economic reasons. These immigrants were skilled and semiskilled laborers and more racially diverse than the first wave of Colombians who came to the United States.
- b. Around 1965, Colombian Americans were one of the migration groups at the center of controversy regarding immigration reform that spurred the creation of the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1965. This act severely limited Colombians to legally enter the United States and changed the face of Colombian immigration. Many Colombian families waited upwards of 20 months for permission to immigrate and reunite with their loved ones. The amount of undocumented Colombian immigrants living in the United States escalated to as high as 350,000 by the mid-1970s (Sturner, 2015).
- c. In the 1980s and 1990s, Columbian Americans faced increased negative stereotyping. Some Americans were afraid that the horror of the drug wars in Columbia would creep into the country. The United States also aided in the war on drug trade and restricted travel of Americans visiting Colombia (Sturner, 2015).

8. Modern Colombian American Life

Family networks are the primary aid for those immigrating to the United States because relatives who are already settled provide housing, money, and sometimes work to new immigrants. Learning English has been a barrier for Colombian Americans because achieving fluency takes time and money, both of which many lack. They often work in jobs in which only Spanish is required and have infrequent encounters with English-speaking Americans. Colombian Americans are comfortable living in large metropolitan areas where there is a sizeable Latino population, such as Miami and New York City (Sturner, 2015).

C. Hispanic or Latino American Demographic Facts

1. The median income for Hispanic or Latino Americans is \$16,117. Fewer than 24.8% live below the poverty line. Also a measure of quality of life, 45% own the house they live in (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
2. Among Hispanic or Latino Americans, 13% have attained a bachelor's degree or higher, 79.7% have a household computer, and 65.9% have a broadband internet subscription (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
3. Professionally, 19% of Hispanic or Latino Americans work in management, business, science, and art careers; 22% work in sales and other office occupations; and 26% work in service populations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
4. Hispanic or Latino Americans make up 12.4% of DoD total military force and 6.5% of DoD civilians (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013; Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Services, 2014). Fifteen percent of Navy personnel are Hispanic or

Latino. This is the highest percentage of all the military branches (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013).

5. Hispanic or Latino Americans make up the largest U.S. minority group discussed in the Race and Ethnic Studies lessons at just over 14% of the total U.S. population. Hispanic and Latino Americans had a 43% increase in population between 2000 and 2010. This accounts for more than half of the growth in the total population during that time (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
6. The 10 leading causes of death for the Hispanic or Latino population are:
 - a. Cancer
 - b. Heart Disease
 - c. Unintentional Injuries
 - d. Stroke
 - e. Diabetes
 - f. Chronic Liver Disease and Cirrhosis
 - g. Chronic Lower Respiratory Diseases
 - h. Alzheimer's Disease
 - i. Nephritis, Nephrotic Syndrome and Nephrosis (Kidney Disease)
 - j. Influenza and Pneumonia (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014).

SUMMARY

Having completed this lesson, you are now able to:

- A. Describe the Office of Management and Budget category Hispanic or Latino Americans.
- B. Recall historical experiences unique to Hispanic or Latino Americans.
- C. Recall demographic facts associated with Hispanic or Latino Americans.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 4200

ASIAN AMERICANS



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Lesson Overview

The objective of the Ethnic Studies Series is to provide students with opportunities to increase their awareness of the history, socialization, values, religious beliefs, and contemporary issues of major American cultural subgroups that have significant impact on the military. In this lesson, students will learn about the Asian American racial category.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and online lesson material.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

Computer, screen, and audio speak

Terminal Learning Objective

Given an online lesson module and a study guide, know the racial identity associated with the Asian American culture. After completing all Race and Ethnic study modules, students must achieve a minimum passing score of 70% on the Race and Ethnic studies comprehensive exam.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the Asian American category according to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB).	K	CRT
B. Recall historical experiences unique to Asian Americans.	K	CRT
C. Recall demographic facts associated with Asian Americans.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ASIAN AMERICANS

A. OMB and Census Definition

1. According to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), Asian refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent, including Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam.
2. In the 2010 Census, the Asian population includes people who indicated their race(s) as Asian or reported entries such as Asian Indian, Chinese, Filipino, Korean, Japanese, and Vietnamese or provided other detailed Asian responses (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

B. Historical Experiences

Americans tend to generalize Asian immigrants as belonging to the same uniform group because they were segregated from the mainstream. In fact, Asian Americans come from distinct ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Unfortunately, the failure to acknowledge these distinctions resulted in Asian Americans having to overcome many of the same legal and social challenges. Throughout their history, Asian Americans have been subject to discrimination and legal action. Due to discrimination, Asian Americans found it difficult to own property or get married, and have been mistreated by labor unions.

1. Chinese American History

- a. (Mid 1800s) Many Chinese came to the United States in the mid-1800s as sojourners, those aiming to make money and return to China. The allure of the California Gold Rush in 1849 was a chance to do that. In the 1800s, it was rare for single Chinese women to migrate to the United States alone and it was tradition that wives stay with their in-laws while the husbands worked, even in cases where the husband traveled the great distance to the United States for work. As a result, there was a large disparity in the ratio of male to female Chinese immigrants in the 19th century (Parillo, 2014).
- b. (Late 1800s) In the late 1800s and early 1900s, Chinese workers labored in California converting swampy areas to viable farmland and ranches, and toiled as low-waged factory workers. Most notably, Chinese immigrants were instrumental in building America's first transcontinental railroad for the Central Pacific Railroad Company. Working in gangs, they laid tracks, blasted and dug tunnels over the High Sierras and into the interior plains to connect the Pacific coast with the eastern U.S. railway at Council Bluffs, Iowa (Parillo, 2014).
- c. (1943) In 1943, Congress ended the ban on Chinese immigrants, but it created a quota system permitting only 105 Chinese immigrants to enter the United States yearly, including those of Chinese descent living anywhere in the world (Parillo, 2014).

- d. (Recent) Driving the influx of Chinese immigration today is the quest for education (McMurtrie, 2012). More Chinese students immigrate to America seeking graduate and post-graduate degrees than any other international group. Many of those who attend American colleges remain in the United States. Other factors prompting Chinese immigration include tight and expensive living conditions in China, communism, and more jobs opportunities in the United States. (Liu, 2012).
- e. (2000–Present) Migration to the continental United States lessened when Hawaii’s economy improved in 2000, however, it has continued to trend upward after 2002. Education and job opportunities are the leading causes of out-migration (Maui Economic Development Board, 2010).

2. Modern Chinese American Life

Today, most Chinese Americans place the highest priority on the family. This priority may be the reason Chinese Americans perform well in education across all income levels. As a whole, Chinese American educational achievement is well known. Chinese Americans are disproportionately represented among the top research universities as well as elite small liberal colleges. However, it should not be assumed that all Chinese Americans are in happy, intact, successful families, raising college-bound children. Traditional concepts of family and parenting have undergone drastic changes in America. Chinese Americans also have their share of family breakups, domestic violence, school dropouts, and other obstacles to overcome (Wang, 2015).

3. Japanese American History

- a. (1800s) The U.S. colony of Hawaii was the first immigration point in 1884, as thousands of Japanese were brought there to work on plantations under contract labor agreements. When contracts ended, most of the workers stayed (Feagin, 2012).
- b. In the late 1890s, many Japanese workers moved from the cities into rural areas of California to work in agricultural jobs due to repeated clashes with unions in cities over the Japanese immigrants’ eagerness to work for low wages (Parillo, 2014).
- c. (WWII) The Japanese Americans were retained in concentration camps on U.S. soil in response to the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor during World War II on December 7, 1941 (Feagin, 2012). Ironically, no Japanese Americans in Hawaii were interred (Parillo, 2014).
- d. Today, Japanese-Americans are noted as the best-assimilated group of all Asian Americans. Three in five are born in the United States, the most of all Asian Americans. Their out-group dating and marriage outside their social unit largely exceeds all other Asian-American and other groups. Self-control, discipline, competitiveness, and education are important elements in Japanese-American culture (Parillo, 2014).

- e. The success of Japan's economy since World War II has lowered the number of Japanese immigrants to well below the 20,000 quota allotted to Japan. Recently, Japanese immigrants have dropped to less than two percent of all Asian immigrants. Due to these low numbers, the Japanese communities in large cities are not being culturally replenished as second- and third-generation Japanese move to the suburbs. In fact, many third- and fourth-generation Japanese Americans are not literate in the Japanese language (Easton, 2015).

4. Modern Japanese American Life

In 2011, Japanese-Americans had one of the highest percentages of college graduates. More than half of recent Japanese-American immigrants are professional, skilled workers (Parillo, 2014).

5. Asian Indian American History

- a. In the early 1900s, Asian Indians left their native land because British Colonialism imposed changes in the agricultural system that left landholders in debt. Then famine lasting from 1899 to 1902 killed cattle and further destroyed hopes of feeding a family. Migrant workers left India for the rural areas of the Western United States to work in the lumber industry in Washington and Oregon, and agriculture in California (Takaki, 1998). Around 1,700 moved back to India between 1908 and 1920, while a few hundred were deported as undesirable aliens (Parillo, 2014).
- b. In 1923, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that Asian Indians were not White, and therefore ineligible to be citizens under the 1790 Naturalization Act. Asian Indians in California could not buy or lease land; therefore they were itinerant laborers (Parillo, 2014). Because of these restrictions and no family life due to the absence of Asian Indian women, 3,000 returned to India between 1930 and 1940, leaving only 2,405. In 1945, Congress passed a bill allowing the naturalization of Asian Indians, and between 1947 and 1965, 6,000 more Asian Indians migrated to the United States (Parillo, 2014).
- c. Between 1966 and 1970, 24,587 immigrated to the United States. About 40 percent of the incomers with families were students seeking degrees (Parillo, 2014). In the 1970s and 1980s many who were educated and skilled came to prosper in the high-tech industry (Feagin, 2012). These new, well-educated immigrants found economic success, but still struggled to adapt to the more progressive mainstream American culture (Parillo, 2014).

6. Modern Asian Indian American Life

The Asian Indian community in the United States is a diverse one with many subgroups who trace their roots to many regions within India, speak a myriad of languages, eat different foods, and follow unique customs. These subgroups will most often choose to interact or intermarry with members of their own subgroup rather than the Indian community at large (Pavri, 2015).

7. Korean American History

- a. (Early 1900s) The first wave of Korean immigrants migrated to Hawaii in the early 1900s due to famine and political strife in Korea. They found work with the Hawaii Sugar Planters' Association, replacing Chinese laborers who were displaced because of the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act. In addition, several thousand students, picture brides, and those seeking refuge from the political climate of Japanese rule, poured into the United States from 1907 to 1924 (Parillo, 2014).
- b. (Late 1900s) After the Korean War and the enactment of the 1953 Refugee Relief Act, war brides and more refugees migrated to the United States. The U.S. troop presence in South Korea created an enticing cultural introduction to America, opening the door for more Korean immigrants.
- c. In 1965, the enactment of the Immigration and Nationality Act ended migration quotas, and another wave of Korean immigrants entered the country. Many joined their relatives in the United States (Parillo, 2014).
- d. (Recent) More than one quarter of Korean-born immigrants in the United States arrived in 2000 or later. Since 2008, Korean immigrant women outnumbered men (Terrazas, 2010). Similar to Chinese immigrants, many Koreans come to the United States as students earning their undergraduate and graduate degrees. Many change their status to permanent residents after completing their education (Min, 2011).

8. Modern Korean American Life

Koreans have had to make major cultural adjustments to live in the United States. Traditional Koreans are greatly influenced by the principle of placing elders, family, and community before the individual. These ideas can conflict with the American concept of individual freedom. Korean Americans have preserved their identity by creating organizations, such as Korean Christian churches and Korean schools. These organizations provide a way for new immigrants to alleviate this cultural conflict (Nash, 2015).

9. Filipino American History

- a. (Early 1900s) In the early 1900s, the Philippines were an American colony and its people were at liberty to immigrate to the United States for work. Most of these early immigrants settled in Hawaii and on the west coast to work mostly agricultural jobs (Feagin, 2012).
- b. (Late 1900s) Some 30,000 Filipinos fought for the United States in World War II with the promise that they would be granted citizenship. However, the nation retracted that agreement. Since the veterans weren't citizens, they were denied benefits. With the easing of immigration laws in 1965, Filipino immigration skyrocketed from 1970–1980. Many of these immigrants had fled the Philippines because of the Marcos regime that began in the 1970s and ended in 1986 (Stoney, 2013).

- c. (Recent) Unlike their predecessors, recent Filipino immigrants tend to settle in major metropolitan areas because the urban areas of the United States offer better employment opportunities. These new immigrants are bringing complete families with them. Having a full familial structure, recent Filipino immigrants are finding it easier to maintain traditional relationships (Melendy, 2015).

10. Modern Filipino American Life

Filipino Americans participate in community groups representing a wide range of concerns, but have found it difficult to present a unified front on most issues. This lack of unity may be because the organizations themselves tend to focus on one specific profession, political belief, neighborhood, school, or church rather than the ethnic group as a whole. Despite these divisions in community activism, Filipinos do gather with each other for ritualistic and religious ceremonies and festivals (Melendy, 2015).

11. Southeast Asian American History

- a. Southeast Asians began immigrating as political refugees to the United States in mass numbers after the Vietnam War (Parillo, 2014). About 125,000 Vietnamese men and women refugees, mostly well-educated urban professionals and military personnel, were driven out of their country during the American-sponsored evacuations in 1975. During that year, the Khmer Rouge Communist Party led by Pol Pot from 1975–1979 forced 4,000 Cambodians to seek refuge from imprisonment and atrocities. Thousands of Laotians and other hill tribes, such as the Hmong and Mien, also fled communist rule and migrated to Thailand and the United States. (History Ink, 2014).
- b. (Recent) Southeast Asians who immigrate to the United States are not political refugees anymore, but are mostly relatives who reunite with their families (Rkasnuam, 2014).
- c. Their population increases with 20,000 to 30,000 each year. These newcomers tend to settle mostly in the western and southwestern U.S. (Feagin, 2012).

12. Modern Southeast Asian American Life

Adult Vietnamese Americans are often concerned their children may be losing distinctive cultural characteristics to the assimilation process. Some Vietnamese Americans have tried to assimilate entirely into American society but most have held onto their sense of ethnicity. Those who live in areas with a large Vietnamese population tend to remain more culturally distinctive than those who have settled in areas heavily populated by Americans of other ethnicities. Assimilating into American society has been a difficult process for many Cambodians because the majorities emigrated from rural areas and have limited relevant job skills and exposure to mainstream American culture. Along with these challenges, Cambodian immigrants also face a cultural conflict in the home between generations. Older generations sometimes see themselves as Cambodians and speak little English, while younger generations born in the United States or with little memory of Cambodia consider

themselves entirely American. It is difficult to predict the end result these challenges will have on Southeast Asian assimilation because this people group are relatively new to American society (Parillo, 2014).

C. Asian American Demographic Facts

1. The median income for Asian Americans is \$71,518. Fewer than 13% live below the poverty line and 57% own the house they live in (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
2. Among Asian Americans, 50.5% have attained a bachelor's degree or higher, 92.6% have a household computer, and 85.9% have a broadband internet subscription (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
3. Professionally, 49% are in management, business, science, and arts occupations; 21% are in sales and other office occupations; and 17.2% work in service occupations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
4. Asian Americans make up 3.6% of DoD total military force and 5.38% of DoD civilians (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013; Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Services, 2014). Three percent of the Air Force is Asian American active duty Service members (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013).
5. The Asian American category is the fastest growing in the United States with a 46% increase from 2000 to 2010. The Asian population grew in every region between 2000 and 2010. The fastest growth rate, at 80%, took place in the South (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
6. The 10 leading causes of death for the Asian American population are:
 - a. Cancer
 - b. Heart Disease
 - c. Stroke
 - d. Unintentional Injuries
 - e. Diabetes
 - f. Influenza and Pneumonia
 - g. Chronic Lower Respiratory Diseases
 - h. Nephritis, Nephrotic Syndrome and Nephrosis (Kidney Disease)
 - i. Suicide (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014)

SUMMARY

Having completed this lesson, you are now able to:

- A. Describe the Office of Management and Budget category Asian Americans.
- B. Recall historical experiences unique to Asian Americans.
- C. Recall demographic facts associated with Asian Americans.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 4250

NATIVE HAWAIIAN OR OTHER PACIFIC ISLANDERS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

The objective of the Ethnic Studies Series is to provide students with opportunities to increase their awareness of the history, socialization, values, religious beliefs, and contemporary issues of major American cultural subgroups that have significant impact on the military. In this lesson, students will learn about the Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander racial category.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and online lesson material.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given an online lesson module and a study guide, know the racial identity associated with the Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, (NH/PI), culture. After completing all Race and Ethnic study modules, students must achieve a minimum passing score of 70% on the Race and Ethnic studies comprehensive exam.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander category according to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB).	K	CRT
B. Recall historical experiences unique to Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islanders.	K	CRT
C. Recall demographic facts associated with Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islanders.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

NATIVE HAWAIIAN OR OTHER PACIFIC ISLANDERS

A. OMB and Census Definition

1. According to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander (NH/PI) refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands (Office of Management and Budget, 1997).
2. In the 2010 Census, the Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander population includes people who marked the “Native Hawaiian,” “Guamanian or Chamorro,” “Samoaan,” or the “Other Pacific Islander” checkbox. It also includes people who reported entries such as Pacific Islander; Polynesian entries such as Tahitian, Tongan, and Tokelauan; Micronesian entries such as Marshallese, Palauan, and Chuukese; and Melanesian entries such as Fijian, Guinean, and Solomon Islander (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

B. Historical Experiences

4. Native Hawaiian History
 - a. (1800s) In the 1800s, many young Hawaiian males left their homeland to find job opportunities. One job available to them was working on whaling ships traveling to China, Mexico, Europe, and the United States. A number of Native Hawaiians also migrated to California during the Gold Rush, often intermarrying with Native Americans (Halualani, 2002).
 - b. (1948–1969) Due to a shrinking plantation economy and a large U.S. military presence on Hawaiian land, Hawaiian men joined the military in great numbers and were shipped to the mainland (mainly the Northwest and South) where they established Hawaiian communities. The military was an attractive option for Hawaiians because after three years of service, they could use the G.I. Bill to obtain technical or collegiate education (Halualani, 2002).
 - c. (1970s) Frustrated by unfair and unequal distribution of homestead land by the Department of Hawaiian Home Lands, Hawaiians continued to migrate to the continental United States (Halualani, 2002).
 - d. (1990s) Hawaiians continued to migrate to the mainland due to the high cost of living, limited low-wage job opportunities, and state agencies failing to offer Hawaiians land rights and cultural entitlements. Many of these emigrants never returned to Hawaii (Halualani, 2002).
 - e. (2000–Present) Migration to the continental United States lessened when Hawaii’s economy improved in 2000, however, it has continued to trend upward after 2002. Education and job opportunities are the leading causes of out-migration (Maui Economic Development Board, 2010).

5. Modern Hawaiian Life

Civic clubs have fostered cultural pride in the continental United States by organizing luau events, music showcases, and Hawaiian language classes. These events have strengthened the sense of community among those who have emigrated from the Hawaiian Islands (Halualani, 2002).

6. Pacific Islander History

- a. (1800s) In the 1800s, the most prominent job opportunities were to serve as whalers, sealers, and on shipping crews. Hawaii and the U.S. West Coast were the top destinations for Pacific Islanders during this time (Hayes, 2012).
- b. (Early 1900s) Pacific Islander migration in the first half of the 1900s was unsubstantial except for the influence of growing Christian congregations in the Pacific Islands. These congregations increased the desire and means to migrate to the United States (Hayes, 2012)
- c. (WWII Era) American military presence was substantial in the Pacific Islands during World War II. Many Pacific Islanders enlisted in the military and ended up on the mainland (Barkan, 2013). The experiences of WWII were pivotal for the Pacific Islanders. The influx of U.S. troops in the Pacific Islands introduced American culture to the islanders, painting a picture of what life was like in the United States—one that most Pacific Islanders wanted to have (Hayes, 2012).
- d. (Post WWII) The military drawdown, drought, and a resulting economic recession caused Pacific Islanders to continue immigrating to the western United States and Hawaii for a chance to regain the livelihood they had lost. More female than male Pacific Islanders migrated to the United States just after World War II. Upward of 500,000 U.S. servicemen, who were stationed in the Pacific Islands during the war, married local women and they migrated to the United States (Ciment, 2014).
- e. Pacific Islanders from Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands are U.S. citizens. Other Pacific Islanders hold various U.S. immigration statuses, depending upon the country or island where they live.
- f. Most interaction between the U.S. Government and the Pacific Islands are dictated by a Compact of Free Association (COFA). These COFA agreements state that migrants can live and work in the United States without applying for legal citizenship. COFA agreements were renewed in 2003 (Under Secretary for Political Affairs, 2014).

5. Modern Pacific Islander Life

Contact with the Western world has had a large influence on Pacific Island peoples. However, each island maintains a unique traditional culture that is generally centered on a concept of social unity and the family. In Samoa and Guam, value is placed on community, cooperation, humor, and hospitality. Placing individual needs above the group or family is looked down upon, while there is honor placed on serving the community. Traditional meals, dances, and even local oratory debates reflect this emphasis on the well-being of the community (Guam, 2014).

C. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander Demographic Facts

1. The median income for Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islanders is \$53,999. Fewer than 18 percent live below the poverty line. Forty-eight percent own the house they live in (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
2. Among Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islanders, 20% have attained a bachelor's degree or higher, 85.6% have a household computer, and 73.9% have a broadband internet subscription (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
3. Professionally, 28% of Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islanders work in management, business, science, and art careers; 26% work in sales and other office occupations; and 23% work in service populations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
4. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander Americans make up 0.9 percent of DoD total military force and 1 percent of DoD civilians (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013; Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Services, 2014). Both of these percentages place Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander Americans in the minority of these organizations, however, they are more represented in these populations than in that of the United States as a whole. Two percent of Army active duty personnel are Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. This is the highest percentage of all the military branches (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013).
5. Pacific Islanders make up the smallest racial group discussed in the Race and Ethnic Studies lessons at less than 0.4 percent of the total U.S. population. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islanders have had a 40 percent increase in population over the past 10 years. This is the third highest growth rate in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
6. The 10 leading causes of death for the Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander population are:
 - a. Cancer
 - b. Heart Disease
 - c. Stroke
 - d. Unintentional Injuries

- e. Diabetes
- f. Influenza and Pneumonia
- g. Chronic Lower Respiratory Diseases
- h. Nephritis, Nephrotic Syndrome and Nephrosis (Kidney Disease)
- i. Alzheimer's Disease
- j. Suicide (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014).

SUMMARY

Having completed this lesson, you are now able to:

- A. Describe the Office of Management and Budget category Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander.
- B. Recall historical experiences unique to Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islanders.
- C. Recall demographic facts associated with Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islanders.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 4300

BLACK AMERICANS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Lesson Overview

The objective of the Ethnic Studies Series is to provide students with opportunities to increase their awareness of the history, socialization, values, religious beliefs, and contemporary issues of major Black or African American cultural subgroups that have significant impact on the military. In this lesson, students will learn about the Black American racial category.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and online lesson material.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given an online lesson module and a study guide know the racial identity associated with the Black or African American culture. After completing all Race and Ethnic study modules, students must achieve a minimum passing score of 70 percent on the Race and Ethnic studies comprehensive exam.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the Black or African American category according to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB).	K	CRT
B. Recall historical experiences unique to Black or African Americans.	K	CRT
C. Recall demographic facts associated with Black or African Americans.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

BLACK OR AFRICAN AMERICAN**A. OMB and Census Definition**

1. The Office of Management and Budget (OMB) officially describes Black or African Americans as “a person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa.”
2. In the 2010 Census, the Black American population includes people who marked the “Black, African Am., or Negro” checkbox along with entries such as African American; Sub-Saharan African entries such as Kenyan and Nigerian; and Afro-Caribbean entries such as Haitian and Jamaican (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

B. Historical Experiences

1. Pre-1700s
 - a. Most Black or African Americans are descendants from the approximately 500,000 slaves who were brought to the United States from the Caribbean and Africa. Early immigration of Black populations from sub-Saharan and Afro-Caribbean countries into the United States was almost entirely due to forced migration through the slave trade that was prominent from the 1600s until the late 1800s (Parillo, 2014).
 - b. The slave trade became prominent when the Europeans established trading posts in Africa and began the Transatlantic Slave Trade in the 1500s. The Transatlantic Slave Trade, or Triangular Trade, was the main reason for the unprecedented numbers of slaves in the New World, which included the Americas and the Caribbean.
 - c. The Transatlantic Slave Trade is also called the Triangular Trade because of its three steps. First, the ships departed from Europe to Africa loaded with commodities. The goods were then traded for slaves, who were transported in tight quarters on ships that sailed to the Americas. In the third leg, the Europeans filled the ships with sought-after goods, such as tobacco, coffee, cotton, sugar, and rum, and journeyed back to Europe (UNESCO, 2014). In the Caribbean, the enslaved mainly worked on sugar plantations. Other ships carrying slaves sailed straight to the United States (Parillo, 2014).
2. 1700s
 - a. By the mid-1700s, most Black slaves lived in the South. Virginia had most of the colony’s population of slaves (Bigelow, 2015). The Revolutionary War was a chance for Black slaves to find liberty. Therefore, they sided with whichever army could ensure their freedom, and for many, that was the British. More Blacks fought for the crown than their new country. Approximately 100,000 Blacks escaped or died during the war. About 5,000 Black men served in the Continental Army. At the end of the war, Blacks who sided with the British lost their freedom; many became slaves in the Caribbean,

while others ended up becoming slaves again in such places as Savannah and Charleston (PBS.org, 2015).

- b. There were nearly 760,000 Black Americans by 1790, and less than 10 percent were free. However, free Blacks faced unemployment and severe limitations in life because of institutional racism, a form of racism that is pervasive and systematic in the social and political institutions of a country. Blacks were counted as only three-fifths of a person for taxation and Congress representation purposes (Racismnoway, 2013)

3. Early 1800s

- a. The War of 1812 was similar to the Revolutionary War for Black slaves. Again, many saw the enemy, the British, as a way to freedom and rowed to the arriving British fleet in the Chesapeake Bay.
- b. At the end of the war in 1814, the British made good on their promise and 4,000 slaves were freed and went to live in England or a British possession; it was the largest emancipation in the United States until the Civil War. The United States demanded reparation for these 4,000 ex-slaves, but the British declined.
- c. In America, the movement to abolish slavery gathered strength from the 1830s to the 1860s. Whites and freed Blacks helped slaves escape to the North by providing safe houses to hide, called the Underground Railroad. The Underground Railroad assisted 40,000 to 100,000 slaves find freedom, and was paramount in spreading the abolitionist movement (History.com, 2015).

4. Late 1800s

- a. In 1861, there were approximately four million slaves and a half million free Black Americans, accounting for 14 percent of the population. Of these, 180,000 Black Americans served in 163 units in the Union Army during the Civil War and thousands served in the Navy, even though only 1 percent of the northern population consisted of Blacks (Civil War Trust, 2014).
- b. In 1862, scores of slaves fled to the North to join the Union Army, hoping for a free life. That year, President Abraham Lincoln, convinced that slavery was despicable, issued a preliminary Emancipation Proclamation declaring that on January 1, 1863 all slaves would be free. The Emancipation Proclamation served more as a battle cry than an actual law. The proclamation was limited to only slaves in states that seceded from the Union, which fell on deaf ears. However, it served to turn the war into a fight for personal freedom, as millions of Americans were captivated by cause to end the oppression (National Archives, 2015).
- c. The 13th Amendment abolishing slavery was enacted in 1865, but Black Americans didn't receive the rights of citizenship until the 14th Amendment in 1868. Black Americans gained the right to vote in 1870, due to the execution of the 15th Amendment.

However, post-war Black Americans had a difficult road because these Constitutional provisions were ignored in many areas (History.com, 2015).

5. Early 1900s

- a. Despite the abolition of slavery, institutionalized racism made it impossible for Black Americans to fully assimilate into American society. In 1896, the Supreme Court ruling on *Plessy v. Ferguson* set a legal precedent for “separate but equal” legislation. The Jim Crow laws passed in most southern states between 1901 and 1910 ensured the segregation of Black Americans, but not equal treatment. Among other injustices, Jim Crow laws barred Black Americans from having access to the same housing, educational, and professional opportunities other Americans had. The Jim Crow legislation reinforced the racist ideologies of the previous era of slavery that made assimilation and acceptance unobtainable for Black Americans for most of the twentieth century.
- b. Between 1914 and 1920, the Great Migration of approximately 500,000 Black Southerners to the North shifted the cultural and political landscape of America. Although they didn’t face the same legal segregation in the North as in the South, there were still instances of social segregation, such as labor unions organizing against Blacks because they were economic competition. This type of animosity toward Black Americans established a norm of social segregation similar to the legal segregation experienced in the Jim Crow South (Parillo, 2014). Despite racial oppression, Black Americans supported World War I. Approximately 350,000 Black American served with the American Expeditionary Force on the Western Front by the end of the war in 1918 (Family Search.org, 2014).
- c. The first wave of Afro Caribbean immigrants occurred between 1900 and 1920. By 1930, 178,000 Blacks lived in the United States, with 100,000 from the Caribbean, including Jamaica (Murrell, 2015).

6. Mid 1900s

- a. In World War II, more than 2.5 million Black men registered for the draft, and one million served as volunteers or draftees. Most served in segregated groups, such as in the 92nd Division, 761st Tank Battalion, and the famous Tuskegee Airmen; Black Americans made significant contributions to the country in World War II. Black women joined the Women’s Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC) and were called “ten percenters” because they represented 10 percent of the women recruited (Gilda Lehrman Institute of American History, 2015).
- b. The second wave of Afro-Caribbeans was between 1930 and the mid-1960s. It was the weakest surge because of the 1952 McCarran-Walter Act, which limited the amount of Black immigrants. During that period, many Afro-Caribbeans migrated to Britain.
- c. The third and largest wave of Afro-Caribbean immigration started in 1965 and is continuing today. Britain restricted immigration in the 1960s and the U.S. Congress

passed the Hart-Cellar Act in 1965 which abolished national origins quotas. These two factors opened the floodgates of Caribbean immigration to the United States. Approximately 300,000 Jamaicans immigrated to the United States between 1966 and 1984. Today, Afro-Caribbean immigrants and native-born Blacks sometimes experience interracial conflict because of misconceptions and various stereotypes. (Murrell, 2015).

7. Post WWII

- a. Black Americans who fought in WWII experienced cultures without the rigid racisms they had lived through in the United States. These experiences and the education opportunities afforded by the G.I. Bill of Rights increased Black American lifestyle expectations and backlash toward the separate but equal segregation of American society.
- b. The Civil Rights movement of the 1950s and 1960s consisted of numerous organized protests of segregation and racial discrimination. Many of the most notable of these protests were led by Dr. Martin Luther King and culminated in his leading a march of over 200,000 people through Washington D.C. and delivering his famous “I have a dream” speech in front of the Lincoln Memorial in 1963.
- c. In 1964, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act. The legislation made racial discrimination and refusal of service based on race illegal and gave the attorney general broad powers to intervene in private suits arguing violations of civil rights. The Civil Rights Act also outlawed racial discrimination in the employment process and in union membership and directed Federal agencies to oversee businesses and other organizations to make sure they didn’t violate these rights (Parillo, 2014).

8. Late 1900s–Present

Although Sub-Saharan African Americans have been a part of the American fabric for more than 300 years—some arriving as slaves either directly from their area or the Caribbean as sub-Saharan descendants—most didn’t immigrate to the United States until the 1980s and 1990s. Since 1990, Sub-Saharan Africans immigrating to the United States have nearly outnumbered those who came during the prior two centuries. Most recent Sub-Saharan African Americans were born in Nigeria, Ethiopia, Somalia, or Ghana. The Sub-Saharan African Americans are more widely dispersed throughout the United States than their Afro Caribbean American counterparts.

More than 2.7 million Americans were of Afro Caribbean ancestry in 2011 (Parillo, 2014). Today, Jamaicans are the largest group of English-speaking Afro-Caribbean people living in the United States. The mass exodus of Jamaicans to the United States has caused a crisis in Jamaica in recent decades. Skilled laborers as well as educated professionals, such as doctors, lawyers, and business managers, have caused a severe shortage in professions that has damaged the economy (Murrell, 2015).

9. Modern Black or African American Life

Even though the Civil Rights Movement moved American ahead, resentment, violence, hatred and racial prejudice has persisted over the years since the 1960s. While some Americans believe that “color blindness” is the standard in the nation’s culture today, others, especially Black Americans, disagree largely based on their experiences. In a 2009 national poll on the American racial climate, 53 percent of Black Americans and 35 White Americans believe major conflicts exist between the two races (Parillo, 2014).

C. Black or African American Demographic Facts

1. The median income for Black Americans is \$28,184. The 2010 Census reports that 11.6% of Black American families live below the poverty line. 63.5% own the house they live in (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
2. Only 29.6% of Black Americans have attained a bachelor’s degree or higher, 83.8% have a household computer, and 73.4% have a broadband internet subscription (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
3. Professionally, 36% work in management, business, science, and art occupations; 24% work in sales and other office occupations; and 18% work in service occupations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
4. Black Americans make up 17% of the Department of Defense (DoD) total military force and 15.12% of DoD civilians (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013; Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Services, 2014). Also to note, 17% of Navy personnel are Black. This is the highest percentage of Black Americans across all the military branches (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013).
5. At almost 13% of the total United States population, Black Americans are the second largest racial group discussed in these lessons. The black population grew at a faster rate than the total population between 2000 and 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
6. The 10 leading causes of death for Black or African Americans are:
 - a. Heart disease
 - b. Cancer
 - c. Stroke
 - d. Diabetes
 - e. Unintentional injuries
 - f. Nephritis, Nephrotic Syndrome and Nephrosis (Kidney Disease)
 - g. Chronic Lower Respiratory disease
 - h. Homicide
 - i. Septicemia
 - j. Alzheimer’s disease (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014)

SUMMARY

Having completed this lesson, you are now able to:

- A. Describe the Office of Management and Budget category Black or African Americans.
- B. Recall historical experiences unique to Black or African Americans.
- C. Recall demographic facts associated with Black or African Americans.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 4400

AMERICAN INDIAN OR ALASKA NATIVE



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor. The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

The objective of the Ethnic Studies Series is to provide students with opportunities to increase their awareness of the history, socialization, values, religious beliefs, and contemporary issues of major American cultural subgroups that have significant impact on the military. In this lesson, students will learn about the American Indian or Alaska Native racial category.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and online lesson material.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given an online lesson module and a study guide, know the racial identity associated with the American Indian or Alaska Native, (AI/AN), culture. After completing all Race and Ethnic study modules, students must achieve a minimum passing score of 70% on the Race and Ethnic studies comprehensive exam.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the American Indian or Alaska Native category according to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB).	K	CRT
B. Recall historical experiences unique to American Indian or Alaska Native.	K	CRT
C. Recall demographic facts associated with American Indian or Alaska Native.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

AMERICAN INDIAN OR ALASKA NATIVE

A. OMB and Census Definition

1. The Office of Management and Budget officially describes American Indian or Alaska Native as “a person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America, including Central America, and who maintains tribal affiliation or community attachment.”
2. In the 2010 Census, the American Indian or Alaska Native population includes people who marked the “American Indian or Alaska Native” checkbox or reported entries such as Navajo, Blackfeet, Inupiat, Yup’ik, or Central American Indian groups, or South American Indian groups

B. Historical Experiences

1. American Indian or Native Alaska History

The Bureau of Indian Affairs currently recognizes 565 native tribes residing in the United States. While each of these tribes has unique cultures and histories, outsiders often tend to generalize and treat tribes similarly and without consideration for their unique cultures and challenges. Broad legal action and attitudes toward American Indian or Alaska Native (AIAN) people have resulted in some similar experiences among them. For example, most AIAN peoples have had to endure:

- a. forced removal from ancestral lands,
- b. consistent rewriting or failing to uphold treaties,
- c. disease outbreaks,
- d. under representation in the United States government,
- e. underemployment and poverty on the reservations, and
- f. depression and substance abuse issues.

2. Alaska Native History

There are 229 federally-recognized Alaska Native American tribes (United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2015). According to anthropologists, Alaska Natives came from Asia 10,000 years ago or more and traveled along the Bering land bridge from Siberia or used boats to traverse to the new land (State of Alaska, 2014).

- a. Russian explorers reached the shores of the Northwest and Arctic Alaska in the 1700s, but without much interaction with or effect on the Alaska Natives. It wasn't until the early 1800s when European traders came to the regions that the Alaska Natives and their visitors communicated. Over time and with the frequency of European visits, the Alaska Natives became more accustomed to the encounters and their relationship with the Europeans grew. In the 1830s, a deadly smallpox epidemic was rampant and nearly annihilated villages due to the Alaska Natives' lack of immunity to the newly introduced diseases (Advameg, Inc., 2015).
- b. Whaling commerce changed the Alaska Native way of life. From 1848–1868, American whalers posed a threat Alaska Natives' existence by nearly eliminating walrus and bowhead whale populations essential for food and supplies. Whaling ship crews employed Alaska Native men to work aboard the ships and women to craft clothing, thus altering hunting life. The Alaska Natives then traded their labor instead of goods (Alaska Humanities Forum, 2014). The introduction of firearms to the Alaska Natives was equally dangerous to their food sources in the 1870s, as they nearly eliminated the caribou population. Famine set in, reducing the Alaska Native population (Advameg, Inc., 2015).
- c. In the late 1800s, gold miners and missionaries added to the influx of Americans and Europeans entering the Alaska region. The Alaska Natives' religious culture was shifting as Christian missionaries from various denominations started congregations and built schools (Advameg, Inc., 2015). In 1867, Russia signed an agreement with the United States to cede possession of Alaska for \$7.2 million. Alaska became the 49th state in 1959 (Alaska Native Curriculum Project, 2014).
- d. Even though antipoverty programs were set up across the state, many Alaska Natives were depressed and turned to self-destruction by way of alcohol, which became the leading cause of Alaska Natives' death in the early 1970s (Alaska Native Curriculum Project, 2014). There have been initiatives to get back to village roots by creating and maintaining stronger tribal courts and councils, returning to traditional Alaska Native culture, and weaning off the Federal government for subsistence (Alaska Native Curriculum Project, 2014).

3. California Intermountain—Paiute

The Paiute tribe is divided among various bands in the western states. The Northern Paiute branch was warlike when encountering non-natives and lived in what is now southeastern Oregon, northwestern Nevada, northeastern California, and southwestern Idaho. The Southern Paiutes resided in western Utah, northwestern Arizona, southern Nevada, and southeastern California (Hanes & Hillstrom, 2015). The Northern Paiutes were friendly when they first encountered non-natives in the early 1800s. Anglo traders and fur trappers had a satisfactory relationship with the Paiutes (Waldman, 2006, pp. 213–216).

- a. Even though the White visitors were in the 1830s and 1840s, they brought fatal diseases, such as smallpox and cholera. It wasn't until the California Gold Rush in 1848 and its

deluge of miners and migrants entering Paiute land that the Northern Paiutes grew hostile. The fighting grew into the Paiute War, which began just before the Civil War. Northern and Southern Paiutes obtained horses and guns, and raided white settlers throughout their land (Waldman, 2006, pp. 213–216).

- b. During the Civil War, the Northern Paiutes continued to raid mining camps, farms, ranches, and wagon trains. After the Civil War, the U.S. troops traveled west and established military posts in Oregon to stop the Paiute offensive. Paiute leaders led the tribal bands into 40 clashes with the Federal troops, but were forced to surrender in 1868 after two years of fighting.
- c. Between 1859 and 1891, several large reservations were established for Paiutes in Idaho, Oregon, and Nevada, but by the twentieth century less than 5 percent of Paiutes were in their original territory (Hanes & Hillstrom, 2015).
- d. It was difficult for American Indians in the twentieth century to negotiate through Federal red tape to gain access to land and various subsidies afforded by the passing of the 1934 Indian Reorganization Act. American Indian tribes, such as various Paiute bands, became federally recognized, only for the status to be taken away after World War II when intergovernmental relations broke down. This fluctuation between governmental support and non-support made for a difficult cultural and economic recovery. Paiutes also had ongoing water rights feuds with various states, which severally affected their way of economic life (Hanes & Hillstrom, 2015).
- e. In 1965, the Paiutes received \$72 million in restitution for 30 million acres of tribal land taken by the American government. Today, there are Northern Paiute reservations in Oregon, California, and Nevada, while Southern Paiute reservations are in Utah, Arizona, and Nevada. As in the past, some Paiute share reservations with other tribes; others live off reservations (Waldman, 2006, pp. 213–216).

4. Great Plains Region—Blackfoot

The Great Plains region extends from Canada south to Texas and from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains (Cabrillo College, 2000). The Blackfoot nation, also known as Blackfeet, includes three tribal bands—the Piegan, Atsina, and Sarcee (Waldman, 2006, pp. 37–39). The Blackfoot, named by non-natives for their black-soled moccasins, resided in the northwest area of the Great Plains and southern Alberta, Canada, to central Montana (Hanes & Pifer, 2015). They migrated from their eastern home after breaking ties with other Algonquian-speaking tribes and became nomadic peoples who hunted and ate buffalo (Waldman, 2006, pp. 37–39).

- a. Enemies of the Crow and Sioux in the Great Plains, as well as Shoshone, Flathead, and Kootenai to their west, the Blackfeet were warriors who rode hundreds of miles on horseback to raid their adversaries. However, their first encounters with non-natives were friendly. Encounters with non-natives grew hostile in 1804 when a Blackfoot warrior was killed in a horse-stealing raid during the Lewis and Clark Expedition.

Consequently, the Blackfeet viewed non-natives as the enemy and preyed on settlers, traders, mountain men, and explorers. Their warlike posture slowed the opening of the American and Canadian Wests (Waldman, 2006, pp. 37–39).

- b. Smallpox epidemics in 1781, 1836, 1837, 1845, 1857, and 1869–1870, along with the decline of buffalo, devastated the Blackfeet. To worsen matters, U.S. soldiers responded to the Blackfeet killing a White settler by raiding the tribe’s winter camp, killing 173 men, women, and children, and imprisoning 140 Blackfeet (Waldman, 2006, 37–39). Along with their tribal numbers, the Blackfeet territory also significantly lessened, as signed treaties ceded millions of acres of land to the United States in the mid-1800s leaving them with a reservation in Montana and three in Alberta, Canada (Hanes & Pifer, 2015).
- c. The Blackfoot food staple, the buffalo, nearly disappeared in 1883, and two significant periods emerged. From 1884 to 1935, the Blackfeet turned to their reservation as the main source for food and supplies. Their life became sedentary and agricultural. During the second period, 1935 to the 1960s, the Blackfeet became self-sufficient and self-governing. Now, the Blackfeet Reservation is a microcosm with an active population and government. The Blackfeet economy centers on oil and gas exploration, ranching, and other industry. Conflicts between the Blackfeet and the U.S. government still continue today. The Blackfeet claim the government has been withholding billions of their trust fund dollars since the late 19th century. They allege that the United States has mismanaged and even stolen the money. The tribe is also at odds with the government over water rights and preservation of their culture and sacred land (Hanes & Pifer, 2015).

5. Northwest Region—Chinook

The Northwest Indians live in the Pacific Coast from southern Alaska to northern California to coastal British Columbia and Washington. The region also includes Vancouver and Queen Charlotte Islands (Cabrillo College, 2000). Hailed as famous traders, the Chinooks lived in a strategic area on the Pacific Ocean at the mouth of the Columbia River. The territory made it easy for Chinooks to trade and act as middlemen among various tribes as well as non-natives when Anglo visitors arrived in the late 1700s (Waldman, 2006, pp. 62–63).

- a. Meriwether Lewis and William Clark met the Chinook people on their Corps of Discover expedition in 1805 (Waldman, 2006, pp. 62–63). “These people, the Chinooks ... have been very friendly to us,” wrote Lewis in his expedition journal on January 4, 1806. “They appear to be a mild inoffensive people” (National Geographic.com, 2014).
- b. Although trading was an economical windfall for the Chinooks, interaction with the Anglos took a drastic toll on the tribe. The population declined sharply in the early 1800s due to the introduction of various diseases and alcohol. The fabric of Chinook traditional life unraveled further when Methodist pastor Jason Lee built a missionary among the tribe and established a White settlement, which invited many settlers in the 1840s to make their home in Chinook territory. By the next decade, Chinookans were forced to give up their land in exchange for fishing rights, in accordance with treaties that were not

ratified. While some Chinookans stayed, many dispersed to nearby Siletz, Grande Ronde, Shoalwater, and Chehalis reservations, causing a melding of culture and languages by the twentieth century; some languages disappeared from use. Some Northwest Pacific tribes lost their identities entirely through tribe fusions (Waldman, 2006, pp. 62–63).

- c. Chinookans made various land claims and treaty rights attempts throughout the twentieth century, but they mostly fell short because the Bureau of Indian Affairs recognized the Chinookans as a terminated tribe. However in 1953, Chinookans became known as the Chinook Indian Tribe and was awarded \$50,000, but without land. Today, the Chinookans still wait for federal recognition of a request filed in 1979 for land and fishing rights (Waldman, 2006, pp. 62–63).

6. Northeastern Woodland Region—Shawnee

The Shawnee were wanderers who, throughout the course of their history, were pushed west by settlers and lived in temporary villages in Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Pennsylvania, New York, and as far west as Kansas, Missouri, Arkansas, Texas, and Oklahoma. Since they resided in such a vast land, the Shawnee have a unique place in American Indian history as having cultural traits of their Northeast Indian heritage as well as those from the lands they migrated to (Waldman, 2006, pp. 262–265).

- a. The Shawnee changed alliances during history depending on who served their needs at the time. They normally sided with the French against the British during the French and Indian Wars in the 1600s and 1700s, but some Shawnee bands favored the British because they preferred their trade goods. Most Shawnee teamed with the Ottawa and other tribes in Pontiac's Rebellion of 1763 against the British.
- b. In 1774, the Shawnee fought Virginians when Lord Dunmore, the governor of Virginia, ignored the king of England's proclamation to give Indians land and gave away Shawnee territory to veterans of the French and Indian Wars (Waldman, 2006, pp. 262–265).
- c. The Shawnee sided with the British during the Revolutionary War, and captured Daniel Boone. He was held prisoner in a Shawnee camp in Ohio, but escaped. After the war, the Shawnee joined forces with other tribes to fight new settlers (Waldman, 2006, pp. 262–265).
- d. In 1793, some Shawnee ancestors acquired a Spanish land grant at Cape Girardeau, Missouri, but after the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, many who became the Absentee Shawnee Tribe moved west to Old Mexico, Texas, and southern Oklahoma. For the next 40 years and various treaties, some Shawnee made a home in three reservations in northwest Ohio, Missouri, and Kansas (The Shawnee Tribe, 2014).
- e. Tecumseh, a famous Shawnee and great orator, tried to convince many American Indians to unite in the fight against White settlers because he felt that all the land in the country

belonged to American Indians. He traveled many miles, but despite his powerful speeches, he wasn't successful. However, in the War of 1812, the British admired Tecumseh's leadership and appointed him brigadier general in their ranks. Some warriors from the Shawnee and other tribes joined the British. Tecumseh assisted in taking Detroit, but died from his wounds on October 5, 1813 (Waldman, 2006, pp. 262–265).

- f. In 1980, the Shawnee Nation United Remnant Band, descendants of the Shawnees who lived in the Ohio valley in Ohio and Indiana after Tecumseh's defeat, received recognition from Ohio as a tribe. They now live in Dayton (Waldman, 2006, pp. 262–265). In 2000, Congress enacted the Shawnee Tribe Status Act restoring the Shawnee Tribe to its place as a sovereign Indian nation (The Shawnee Tribe, 2014).

7. Southwest Region—Navajo

Experts believe the Navajo migrated from Western Canada to the Southwest within the last 1,000 years. The Navajo were hunters and foragers in their former home, but adapted quickly to a more sedentary way of life and entered into a symbiotic relationship with the Pueblos in which the Navajos traded nuts, hides, and pottery for woven goods and agricultural products (Advameg, Inc., 2015).

- a. In the late 1500s, the Spanish ruled the Pueblo, but the Navajo and Apache were free and fought sporadically with the White conquerors for two and a half centuries. The Navajo obtained sheep, goats, and horses from the Spaniards, which changed their life. The horses were a great means of transportation, especially when raiding the Pueblo Indians and Spanish (Advameg, Inc., 2015).
- b. For hundreds of years, the Navajo raided throughout the Southwest and many were afraid of them until 1848 when a military campaign began and eventually brought the Navajo under military control. Nearly half the tribe was relocated to Bosque Redondo near Fort Sumner in New Mexico. Two hundred Navajo died along the 300-mile journey they call “the Long Walk.” The Navajo suffered in their new home, dying of diseases and malnutrition from supply shortages and infertile agricultural grounds. After 2,000 Navajo had died there, a delegation of Navajo chiefs went to plead their tribe's case in Washington. In 1868, a treaty was signed allowing the Navajo to return to their ancestral home (Waldman, 2006, pp. 187–191).

Marine Corp Navajo code talkers were instrumental in the Pacific campaign during WWII. Navajo code talkers used their native tongue to pass more than 800 messages back and forth, while the Marines established a beachhead. Many say that if it weren't for the Navajo code talkers, the Americans wouldn't have taken Iwo Jima (Waldman, 2006, pp. 187–191).

- c. Today, the Navajo own the most reservation lands of any tribe in the nation, which includes northeastern Arizona, western New Mexico, and southern Utah. They make their living in traditional arts and crafts, and raise livestock. Many still speak the Navajo

language (Waldman, 2006, pp. 187–191).

8. Southeastern Region—Seminole

The Southeastern American Indians are indigenous peoples of Alabama, Georgia, Florida, and Louisiana with eastern and southern boundaries of the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic Ocean (Cabrillo College, 2000). The Seminoles are descendants of the Maskoki tribe, who lived in Alabama, and indigenous people who lived in Florida. In the early 1800s, the Maskoki fought White settlers in the Creek War of 1813–1814. General Andrew Jackson’s treaty that resulted from the war caused the Maskoki to migrate southward to Florida, which was owned by Spain. The Maskoki joined the descendants of other Florida tribes, and they formed the Seminoles, which means “free people.” (The Seminole Tribe of Florida, 2015).

- a. The Seminoles assisted escaped Black American slaves by providing shelter and protection, which angered General Jackson enough to send an army from Georgia to fight the Seminole. This resulted in the First Seminole War of 1814–1818. The army ransacked and burned Seminole villages and captured escaped slaves. Jackson’s invasion into Spanish territory started the war with Spain (The Seminole Tribe of Florida, 2015).
- b. In 1821, Florida became part of the United States and Jackson was elected president in 1829 (The Seminole Tribe of Florida, 2015). The next year, he ordered 3,000 Seminole and other Southeast Indians, such as the Creek, Chickasaw, Choctaw, and Cherokee, to migrate west to Fort Gibson, Arkansas (Waldman, 2006, pp. 256–258). The displaced warriors and their families faced brutal conditions, such as an insufficient supply of food and blankets; and sickness and death from disease, starvation, exposure, and attacks from bandits on the journey. Once they reached Fort Gibson, they endured attacks from other tribes and were forced to compete for scarce resources to live (The Seminole Tribe of Florida, 2015).
- c. Not all the Seminoles moved. Some fought hard against the troops by using guerrilla warfare to successfully stay in their homeland. Osceola, the famous Seminole leader, headed the resistance in what is called the Second Seminole War of 1835–1842. The Seminoles left 1,500 federal troops dead; the United States spent approximately \$30 million—the most costly Indian war to that date.
- d. The Third Seminole War (1855–1858) consisted of another round of Seminole attacks on surveyors, trappers, traders, and settlers. Some Seminoles were caught and moved to an Indian territory in Oklahoma (Waldman, 2006, pp. 256–258). Those who didn’t relocate incorporated the Seminole Tribe of Florida in 1957. They incorporated the Miccosukee tribe as the Miccosukee Tribe of Seminole Indians in 1962 and have a reservation in south Florida. Today, the Seminoles have five reservations in the southern part of the state. They employ more than 7,000 in their casinos, enterprises, and hotels. The Seminoles also derive income from farming (The Seminole Tribe of Florida, 2015).

C. American Indian or Alaska Native Demographic Facts

1. The median income for American Indian or Alaska Natives is \$25,288, 25.6% live below the poverty line, and 52.4% own the house they live in (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
2. Among American Indian or Alaska Natives, 17% have attained a bachelor's degree or higher, 78.6% have a home computer, and 63.3% have a broadband internet subscription (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
3. Professionally, 28.5% work in management, business, science, and art occupations; 24% work in sales and other office occupations; and 23% work in service occupations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
4. American Indian or Alaska Natives make up 1.2% of the DoD total military force and 0.86% of DoD civilians (Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2013; Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Services, 2014).
5. At almost 2% of the total U.S. population, only American Indian or Native Alaskans are the second smallest ethnic group discussed in these lessons. There was a 39% increase in the American Indian or Native Alaskans population over the past 10 years. This is four times the growth rate of the American population as a whole (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).
6. The 10 leading causes of death for the American Indian or Alaska Native population are:
 - a. Cancer
 - b. Heart Disease
 - c. Unintentional Injuries
 - d. Diabetes
 - e. Chronic Liver Disease and Cirrhosis
 - f. Chronic Lower Respiratory Diseases
 - g. Stroke
 - h. Suicide
 - i. Nephritis, Nephrotic Syndrome and Nephrosis (Kidney Disease)
 - j. Influenza and Pneumonia (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014)

SUMMARY

Having completed this lesson, you are now able to:

- A. Describe the Office of Management and Budget category American Indian or Alaska Native.
- B. Recall historical experiences unique to American Indian or Alaska Native.
- C. Recall demographic facts associated with American Indian or Alaska Native.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6000

GENERAL EOA DUTIES



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding your role and responsibilities as an EOA is extremely important to the success of the EO Program. This lesson covers the major roles of the Equal Opportunity Advisor and factors that contribute to a successful Equal Opportunity Program.

Recommended Reading

None

References

1. Commandant, Adjutant General School. (2001). *Equal opportunity advisor's handbook*. Fort Jackson, SC: Soldier Support Institute.
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Student Instructional Materials

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6000 General EO Duties
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, a study guide, know how EOA duties impact the military environment with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the EO Program.	K	CRT
B. Identify the roles and responsibilities of the EO program.	K	CRT
C. Identify the elements that constitute a successful EO program.	K	CRT
D. Identify KSAOs associated with EO duties.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

GENERAL EOA DUTIES

A. EO Program Description

The EO program is designed to promote an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible.

The commanding officer is responsible for implementing an EO program in accordance with the DoD and Service directives. With the EO program, the commanding officer formulates, directs, and sustains a comprehensive effort to maximize human potential and to ensure fair treatment of all unit members based on merit, fitness, and capability to support mission accomplishment.

A strong EO environment creates an environment where unit members can interact with a strong sense of equal opportunity and awareness of others leads to an environment where unit members are more productive, team-oriented, and better able to understand and accomplish their mission.

The goal of the EO program is to ensure that all of organization's members are able to work as a team to support mission accomplishment, cohesion, and readiness

B. Roles and Responsibilities

1. Advisor – An EOA provides advice to commanders on the EO program, its policies, procedures, and issues that affect the EO climate of a unit. In addition, the EOA provides guidance and assistance to commanders, unit leaders, service members, subordinate commands, and civilian employees.
2. Trainer and Educator – An EOA trains and educates commanders, leaders, and service members on the EO program, policies, procedures, and issues that impact the EO climate and unit readiness.
3. Assessor – An EOA assists commanders and other leaders on assessing the EO climate of a unit or organization including determining whether the climate is healthy and positive. The EOA will also provide recommended action to improve unhealthy or negative climates.
4. Change Agent – An EOA is the commander's change agent for implementing changes to the EO program and other related areas that affect the command climate of the organization.

C. Elements For a Successful EO Program

1. Commanders and leaders are responsible for unit EO.
2. Commanders and leaders must promote harmony.

3. Commanders and leaders must support individual and cultural diversity.
4. Commanders and leaders must ensure that discipline is maintained.
5. Commanders and leaders must provide fair and equal treatment of unit members and employees.

D. EOA Proficiencies

1. An EOA must be knowledgeable of the following areas:
 - a. Mission and unit
 - b. Policies, procedures, and regulations
 - c. Organizational and socialization systems
 - d. Problem-solving methodology and organizational assessment
 - e. Background on topics relating to human relations (past and present)
 - f. Self and others
2. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following skills:
 - a. Communication
 - b. Observation
 - c. Instructions and persuasion
 - d. Team building and teamwork
 - e. Assessing, planning, implementing and evaluating (APIE)
 - f. Problem solving
3. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following abilities:
 - a. Flexibility
 - b. Expression, both written and oral
 - c. Problem sensitivity

- d. Concentration
4. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following other characteristics or work styles:
- a. Professionalism
 - b. Objectivity
 - c. Maturity
 - d. Open-mindedness

SUMMARY

- A. Describe the EO program.
- B. Identify the roles and responsibilities of the EO program.
- C. Identify the elements that contribute to a successful EO program.
- D. Identify KSAOs associated with EO duties.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6050

BYSTANDER INTERVENTION



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

In the Armed Forces and society, it is important to realize and value of unspoken, spoken, and observed behaviors. Frequently these behaviors solidify desirable and undesirable responses. This lesson will inform personnel on human relations matters critical to an effective workforce and mission readiness. Specifically, this lesson will enlighten students on key terms associated with bystander intervention, actions associated with passive vs. active bystanders; and bystander intervention strategies. Active bystander intervention strategies and efforts are fundamental to the Department of Defense (DoD) and available at <http://myduty.mil/index.php/prevention/active-bystander>

Recommended Reading

None

References

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6. Rowe, M., Wilcox, L., & Gadlin, H. (2009). Dealing with—or reporting—unacceptable behavior. *Journal of the International Ombudsman Association*.
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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation—EOA 6050 Bystander Intervention
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, know the foundation of bystander intervention and its impact on mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion-referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define key terms associated with bystander intervention.	K	CRT
B. Recall behaviors associated with passive and active bystanders.	K	CRT
C. Identify bystander intervention strategies.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

BYSTANDER INTERVENTION**A. Key Terms**

1. Bystander

- a. Not only do active bystanders take action to prevent unlawful discrimination, sexual harassment, and sexual assault, they also take the initiative to help friends who aren't thinking clearly from becoming perpetrators.
 - 1) Bystanders can highlight positive acts that might otherwise be invisible or overlooked. They can redirect or de-escalate negative acts that might be problematic. Bystanders might be peers or teammates. They might be subordinate or senior to the person whose comment or behavior warrants reaction.

Bystander – A witness to an event (Webster II New College Dictionary, 2001)

- 2) Intervention doesn't mean that you only step in to stop a crime in progress; rather, early intervention occurs before the crime or discriminatory act begins.
- b. A bystander could be anyone who sees or otherwise becomes aware of behavior that appears worthy of comment or action.

2. Bystander Intervention

- a. Bystander intervention is assessing a situation to determine what kind of intervention, if any, might be appropriate.
- b. An active bystander will often intervene if another person is in need of help; they will often do this for complete strangers, sometimes even at great personal risk.
- c. Bystander intervention can also mean stepping in, acknowledging, and recognizing positive behaviors (Levine & Crowther, 2008).
 - 1) Recognition of socially desirable behavior – In order to foster productive and inclusive behavior, it is important to encourage and commend good teamwork, excellent performance, and productive human interactions within the workplace.
 - 2) All groups can benefit from the practice of micro-affirmations, which are defined as: “apparently small acts, which are often ephemeral and hard-to-see, events that are public and private, often unconscious but very effective, which occur wherever people wish to help others to succeed.”
 - 3) Recognition of unacceptable behavior – By the same token everyone in the workplace or community is important in discouraging and dealing with unethical, bullying, and discriminatory behavior. A bystander may be able to pivot a situation—from one

where there is awkward silence, exclusion, or hurt—to one where there is support, both for individuals, and for an organization or community's values of inclusivity.

3. The ABCs of Bystander Intervention

There are three components to active bystander intervention (associated with sexual assault) and they are referred to as the ABCs:

- a. Assess for safety. Ensure that all parties are safe and assess whether the situation requires calling authorities. When deciding to intervene, your personal safety should be the number one priority. When in doubt, call for help.
- b. Be with others. If safe to intervene, you're likely to have a greater influence on the parties involved when you work together with someone or several people. Your safety is increased when you stay with a group of friends who you know well.
- c. Care for the victim. Ask if the victim of the unwanted sexual advance, attention, or behavior is okay.
 - 1) Does he or she need medical care?
 - 2) Does he or she want to talk to a Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC) to see about reporting the matter?
 - 3) Ask if someone he or she trusts can help him or her get safely home.

4. Bystander Effect

The bystander effect (also known as bystander apathy) is a psychological phenomenon where persons are less likely to intervene in a situation when others are present than when they are alone (Levine, M. & Crowther, S., 2008).

5. Diffusion of Responsibility

- a. Closely related to bystander effect is diffusion of responsibility.

This is a social phenomenon that tends to occur in groups of people above a certain critical size when responsibility is not explicitly assigned.

- b. The more people that are present, the less accountable any of those people feel for their actions (or inaction; Levine & Crowther, 2008).

B. Passive vs. Active Bystander Intervention

1. Passive Bystander

- a. Passive means not active.
- b. For the context of this training, a passive bystander refers to an individual or group who should be doing something, but is not (Levine & Crowther, 2008).

2. Active Bystander

- a. The willingness to safely take action and help someone in time of need (Department of Defense, 2014).
- b. Learn how to recognize indications and always be aware of what is going on around you. Look out for situations that could require some intervention. As a bystander, it is much easier to recognize and encourage positive social behavior. It takes some practice and courage to intervene and discourage or stop unacceptable behavior.
- c. Take the initiative of a situation that makes us uncomfortable, we may try to dismiss it as not being a problem. You might tell yourself that the other person will be fine, or that he or she or is able to defend him or herself. This is not a solution! The person may need your help more than you think

3. Passive vs. Active Bystanders

Many people do not intervene when they encounter discriminatory behavior or in a potentially dangerous situation because they are looking to others for cues on how to act or they believe someone else will intervene. But as a professional or a member of the community, you should intervene responsibly.

- a. In 1968, researchers Darley and Latane conducted an experiment in which a student pretended to have a seizure and they recorded how often others stopped to help.
- b. When only one bystander was watching the scene, the student was helped 85 percent of the time.
- c. However, if there were five bystanders, the student was only helped 31 percent of the time (Latane & Darley, 1969).

4. Why Bystanders Don't Act

- a. In emergency situations, many things prohibit bystanders from intervening:
 - 1) If no one else is acting; it is hard to go against the crowd.
 - 2) People may feel that they are risking embarrassment (e.g., What if I'm wrong and they don't need help?).

- 3) They may think there is someone else in the group who is more qualified to help.
- 4) They may think that the situation does not call for help since no one else is doing anything.

b. Bystanders often hesitate to act because:

- 1) They fear loss of relationships with the problem person or with others who may disapprove of action.
- 2) They fear retaliation, especially if the problem person is powerful.
- 3) They fear embarrassment, especially if they may not be believed or they may be viewed as troublemakers, or viewed as violating other community norms.
- 4) They feel a lack of competence or uncertainty about what action would be best.
- 5) They believe someone else will take action (perhaps someone else with more authority or expertise; Rowe, M., Wilcox, L., & Gadlin, H.)

With each person taking cues from people around them, a common result is that no action is taken. What can be done about this problem? As professionals and members of the community, we all have a responsibility to help each other.

5. Bystander Situations

- a. Rude, inconsiderate, unprofessional behavior (comments and jokes)
- b. Inappropriate or offensive humor (tasteless jokes and innuendos)
- c. Meanness or bullying (based on appearance or size)
- d. Violation of ethical standards (questionable behavior)
- e. Harassment (based on race, gender, and sexual orientation)
- f. Unfair or discriminatory behavior (actions based on race color, religion, sex, disability, age, and national origin)
- g. Inappropriate advances (sexual harassment or assault)
- h. Threats of violence (domestic issues and intimidation)
- i. Dangerous behavior (excessive drinking and self-harm)
- j. Escalating or destructive conflict (sexual assault, suicide, and physical altercations)

C. Bystander Intervention Strategies

Avoid being a passive bystander! Intervene regardless of what others are doing and do not worry about being wrong. It is better to be wrong than to have done nothing at all.

Be on the lookout for situations that may require some intervention. Learn how to recognize indications and always be aware of what is going on around you

As a bystander, it is much easier to recognize and encourage positive social behavior. It takes some practice and courage to intervene and discourage or stop unacceptable behavior (e.g., discriminatory behavior).

There are many strategies associated with active bystander intervention:

1. Direct Action

- a. Talk to a friend to ensure he or she is doing okay.
- b. Make up an excuse to help the friend get away from someone.
- c. Call the police.
- d. Recommend to a bartender or party host that someone has had too much to drink.
- e. Point out someone's disrespectful behavior in a safe and respectful manner that tends to de-escalate the situation.
- f. Remove a friend from a risky situation quickly.

2. Safety First

- a. Despite the fact that most of you wear a uniform, no one is asking you to take the part of law enforcement. Your personal safety is important.
- b. Before you act, you should think about the following:
 - 1) How can you keep yourself safe in this situation?
 - 2) What are all the options available to you?
 - 3) Who else might be able to assist you in this situation?
 - 4) What are the pros and cons of acting?
 - 5) Decide how to help.

- 6) Be friendly.
 - 7) Be firm.
 - 8) Avoid violence.
- c. When in doubt, trust your gut. Instincts are there for a reason.
 - d. When a situation makes us feel uncomfortable, it is generally a good indicator that something is not right
 - e. It is better to be wrong about the situation than do nothing. Many people feel reluctant to intervene in a situation because they are afraid of making a scene or feel as though a person would ask for help if it were needed.
3. Don't Second-Guess Yourself
- a. Concerning discriminatory acts or the possibility of sexual assault, you have the responsibility to intervene. Avoid the following thoughts:
 - 1) "No one else is helping; it must not be a problem."
 - 2) "Someone else will recognize this behavior."
 - 3) "People who are sober don't think this is a problem, maybe I'm wrong?"
 - 4) "Someone else is really responsible and they are not intervening...why should I?"
 - b. Many people do not intervene in a potential situation because they are looking to others for cues on how to act or they believe someone else will intervene.
4. Situational Awareness
- a. Know how and when to intervene in a potential situation takes practice and courage.
 - b. The most effective time to act might be later, not on the spot, and you may want to get advice before taking steps.
 - c. You should not choose a course of action that puts you or anyone else at risk of harm. Know your own limits and comfort zone, and use common sense.
5. Here are some "after the act" strategies you can use:
- a. Privately support an upset person – Help someone who has been hurt or offended, and/or prevent further injury or offense. Listen supportively. Provide information about resources available to the aggrieved person.

- b. Talk privately with the inappropriate person – Give clear feedback and express your opinion in a way that allows the inappropriate actor to save face.
- c. Report the incident, with or without names – Get help for someone better placed to intervene. Make sure leaders and responders are aware of what is going on

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define key terms associated with bystander intervention.
- B. Recall behaviors associated with passive and active bystanders.
- C. Identify bystander intervention strategies.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6100

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Workforce diversity and inclusion are critical components of a 21st century workforce. Inclusion and diversity training is one tactical component of a diversity strategy. Diversity Management training provides the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and tools to assist Service Members in the professional behaviors needed in a diverse and inclusive working environment. This is important for creating and sustaining change that fosters a more creative, inclusive, respectful, and productive workforce and workplace.

Required Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6100 Diversity Management
2. “Who’s On Your Team” Video
3. Computer and monitor

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide comprehend how diversity management can enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define diversity management.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management.	C	CRT
C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace.	C	CRT
D. Identify the barriers to diversity management.	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT**A. Diversity Management**

1. Definition of diversity management according to Military Leadership and Diversity Commission (MLDC)

Definition of Diversity Management: The creation of an equitable and inclusive environment that enhances the contribution of all members to fulfill the organization's mission; where differences are recognized, understood, and valued; and is accomplished through communication, education, policies, programs, selection, retention, mentoring, leadership, and individual accountability. (MLDC, 2013)

2. Definition of diversity management according to DoDD 1020.02, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity (EO) in the Department of Defense*

The plans made and programs undertaken to identify in the aggregate the diversity within the Department of Defense to enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness (Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (P&R), 2009).

3. USAF Diversity Policy

The Air Force will develop and maintain comprehensive diversity initiatives to enhance the all-volunteer Total Force, to include active duty, Guard, Reserve, and civilians. The initiatives will:

- a. Ensure all qualified personnel are welcome in America's Air Force.
- b. Educate and train all personnel on the importance of diversity, including mutual respect, thus promoting an Air Force culture that values inclusion of all personnel in the Total Force and views diversity and inclusion throughout the workforce as a force multiplier in accomplishing the mission of the Air Force.
- c. Ensure that all personnel in the Total Force understand they are valued and have the opportunity to achieve their full potential while contributing to the mission of the Air Force.
- d. Establish effective diversity training, mentoring, and professional development that provide the tools for personnel to navigate career progression.
- e. Provide cultural awareness training to enhance organizational capabilities.
- f. Assess and report progress on these initiatives.

4. Army Diversity Policy

The Army's future plans are reflected in a vision to become the national leader in embracing the strengths of diverse people in an inclusive environment by investing and managing talent, valuing individuals, and developing culturally astute Soldiers and civilians who enhance our communities. The Army will pursue an aggressive, but comprehensive strategy that assures:

- a. Leader commitment.
- b. Managed talent across our diversity.
- c. The best available diversity training and education.
- d. Inclusive environments sustained by informed leaders.

5. USN Diversity Policy

The Department of the Navy Diversity Policy Statement released in August, 2007:

“We value our people. Our commitment is the foundation for building and maintaining a high quality workforce. We fully expect our leaders to demonstrate this commitment by aggressively eliminating barriers to success for all our people and seeking new ways to diversify talent pool. In our continuous pursuit of excellence, all personnel will share responsibility ensuring that the talents and capabilities of each member are recognized, valued, and used in a manner that contributes to mission accomplishment. In an era when our flexibility, adaptability, critical thinking are paramount to our readiness, a well-managed, highly diverse workforce is imperative to achieving operational excellence.”

6. USMC Diversity Policy

The Commandant of the Marine Corps released the following diversity policy:

“Our leaders must ensure that all Marines, Sailors, and civilians are provided equal opportunity to develop their skills, advance, and contribute to the overall effectiveness of our Corps. By encouraging everyone who is part of our Marine Corps team to reach his or her full potential, we allow our Corps to capitalize on the wide variety of talents and ideas available.”

7. USCG Diversity

The U.S. Coast Guard Diversity Strategic Plan Executive Summary states:

“This Diversity Strategic Plan challenges Coast Guard men and women, active duty, reserve, civilian and Auxiliary, to join in changing the face of our Service to better reflects the diverse fabric of American society. Our recent record of excellence across our mission set, combined with a strong legacy of superior service, has resulted in the Coast Guard achieving

unprecedented relevance in the minds of the American people. To ensure that we remain a premier organization, it is imperative that we continue to progress toward the strategic goal of constructing a workforce that is reflective of our Nation's diverse composition. Our people are our greatest strength and we must capitalize on that fact by establishing an inclusive environment that respects and values the perspective of diverse individuals, acculturating those influences, and combining them with our proven core values to build our workforce of the future. In this way, we can achieve our goal of organizational excellence and continue to be the nation's front line maritime safety and security agency. By including representation, ensuring equal access, and providing opportunity to all facets of our society, we will continue to achieve relevance in the minds of the American public whom we so ably serve."

B. Recognize the Difference between Affirmative Action, EO (MEO), EEO, and Diversity Management

1. Affirmative Action

Affirmative Action focuses on prevention and/or correcting discriminatory practices concerned with numbers of minorities and women. It is an attempt to rectify past discrimination against certain groups of people. It requires that organizations affirmatively seek them out; however, it does not set goals or require that individuals be hired.

2. Military Equal Opportunity (MEO)

Equal Opportunity in the military is based upon policy. The DoD MEO Program shall:

- a. Promote an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. In this environment, Service members shall be evaluated only on individual merit, fitness, and capability. Unlawful discrimination against individuals or groups based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin is contrary to good order and discipline and counterproductive to combat readiness and mission accomplishment, and shall not be condoned.
- b. Use the chain of command as the primary and preferred channel to identify and correct unlawful discriminatory practices; process and resolve complaints of unlawful discrimination, including sexual harassment; and ensure that human relations and MEO matters are taken seriously and acted upon as necessary.
- c. Identify and resolve MEO problems through formulating, maintaining, and reviewing MEO action plans with established objectives and milestones, including a process for accountability in personnel management.
- d. Provide periodic, mandatory education and training in human relations and MEO at installation and operational unit commands, during pre-commissioning programs and

initial entry training, and throughout professional military education systems as part of the overall effort to achieve MEO within the Department of Defense.

- e. Ensure that all on-base activities and all off-base activities are available to all military members and their families regardless of race, color, religion, age, disability, sex, or national origin as permitted by law and DoD policy.

3. Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO)

Equal Employment Opportunity is based upon law. Unlike affirmative action, EEO laws are used as deterrents to future wrongs and as corrective action if a wrong is committed. The DoD Civilian EEO Program shall:

- a. Maintained within the Department of Defense as an essential element of readiness vital to the accomplishment of the DoD national security mission.
- b. Develop and implement programs to promote diversity and ensure EEO in the DoD civilian workforce at all grade levels, in every occupational series, and in every major organizational element, in accordance with EEOC and OPM guidance and consistent with law, specific circumstances, and the needs of the Department of Defense.
- c. Ensure civilian EEO program activities for the DoD workforce are integrated fully into the civilian personnel management and data systems.
- d. Prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on race, sex, color, national origin, age, religion, disability, or reprisal for previous EEO activity through the establishment of a discrimination complaint processing and resolution system in accordance with EEOC guidance; and prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on marital status, sexual orientation, status as a parent, genetic information, limited English proficiency, political affiliation, or other prohibited non-merit factors through other separate discrimination complaint processing and resolution systems when required by applicable laws and regulations.
- e. Identify and eliminate barriers and practices that impede EEO for all employees and applicants for employment, including sexual and nonsexual harassment in the workforce.
- f. Identify and eliminate barriers at work sites, including architectural, transportation, and other barriers affecting people with disabilities.

4. Diversity Management Policy

- a. In August of 2011 Executive Order 13583 was signed into order by the President of the United States in order to promote the Federal workplace as a model of equal opportunity, diversity, and inclusion. Previous steps were taken to promote a diverse federal workforce, for example:

- 1) Executive Order 13171, October 2000 ordered to promote Hispanic employment in the Federal workforce
- 2) Executive Order 13518, November 2009 ordered to promote Veterans employment in the federal workforce
- 3) Executive Order 13078, March 1998 ordered to promote individuals with disabilities in the federal workforce

b. Managing Diversity is different from Affirmative Action

- 1) Managing diversity focuses on maximizing the ability of all employees to contribute to organizational goals. Affirmative action focuses on specific groups because of historical discrimination, such as people of color and women.
- 2) Affirmative action emphasizes legal necessity and social responsibility; managing diversity emphasizes business necessity.
- 3) In short, while managing diversity is also concerned with underrepresentation of women and people of color in the workforce, it is much more inclusive and acknowledges that diversity must work for everyone.
- 4) The U.S. Federal Government has stated, "To realize more fully the goal of using the talents of all segments of society, the Federal Government must continue to challenge itself to enhance its ability to recruit, hire, promote, and retain a more diverse workforce."

C. Benefits of Diversity in the Workplace

1. Workplace Benefits

- a. Increases management skills to meet rapidly changing market conditions, reduce turnover, increase productivity, and improve image, reputation and brand.
- b. Strengthens advocacy competence and confidence for addressing issues.
- c. Builds trust with all team members.
- d. Sharpens skills to inform, inspire and initiate conversations to involve all team members in the inclusion process.
- e. Fosters team work innovation by advancing, refining and implementing creative ideas.

2. Technology Benefits

- a. Advances in technology and the advent of a global economy are bringing the people of the world closer together than ever before. As a result, businesses, educational systems and other entities are investigating ways to better interact with everyone. This includes being able to attract and retain the best and most qualified workers.
- b. Technology can increase diversity in the workforce through global connections. These connections can increase the participation of underrepresented groups in all organizational settings.
- c. Networking technologies have made both asynchronous and real-time communications between different regions and countries feasible, and have created new forms of work and collaboration.

D. Barriers to Diversity Management

1. Poor Communication

As the DoD maintains its global initiatives, the workforce becomes more linguistically and culturally diverse. You may find yourself working with individuals whose native language is not English. In order to avoid confusion and a lack of teamwork, which can cause low morale; organizations need to implement openness, so every federal employee can discuss ideas, challenges, and strategies to overcome this barrier.

2. Stagnate Service Culture (Organizational Culture)

Organizations, such as the Department of Defense, with its long history and established cultures may not recognize the need for diversity in their organization. Senior leaders may not understand the need for diversity, especially if the organization is already excelling in its mission. To overcome these smokescreens, everyone; especially senior leaders, must recognize the benefits of a diverse workforce and develop strategies to increase diversity in the workplace.

3. Inadequate Skill Development

Skill preparation and career planning can also be barriers to diversity. Different cultures, societies, and countries do not necessarily prepare their workforce in the same manner. Individuals from different cultures have vastly different values, including working values, which can cause conflict within the organization (University of California at Berkley's National Center for Research in Vocational Education). Proper assessment of all incoming workers and additional training can combat this barrier to diversity in the workplace.

4. Inaccurate Perceptions

- a. Threat – In today’s environment, people may be embarrassed to show ignorance about other cultures, may not want to invest time and energy in learning about those cultures, or may perceive diversity initiatives as a threat to job security (Barak, 2005).
- b. Failure – The thought or belief that you cannot succeed because others like you have not succeeded.

5. Prejudice and Discrimination

The main barriers have to do with managers’ and employees’ attitudes and behavior. Specifically, prejudice (i.e., biased views) and discrimination (i.e., biased behaviors), either overt or covert, or are at the core of the barriers for implementing inclusive policies in the workplace.

E. Strategies for Implementing Diversity Management

1. Diversity Management Strategies

- a. Commitment to Change – “Perhaps the single most important element of successful management improvement initiatives is the demonstrated commitment of top leaders to change” (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- b. Leadership Responsibility – Leaders and managers within organizations are primarily responsible for the success of diversity management (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- c. Resources – They must provide the visibility and commit the time and necessary resources (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- d. Communication – Communicate the organization’s support for diversity in newsletters, policy statements, speeches, meetings, and websites (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para. 2).

2. Top Diversity Management Practices (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 8)

- a. Top leadership commitment: A vision of diversity demonstrated and communicated throughout an organization by top-level management.
 - 1) Implement a policy on EEO and diversity management, which states the organization “must offer opportunities for all persons to develop to their full potential in the pursuit and support of science with diversity management integrated into all facets of the” organization (National Institute of Health; NIH).
 - 2) Leads by example.

- 3) Discusses the importance of diversity in public meetings and to the employees.
- 4) Writes an article on diversity for the organization's newsletter.
- 5) Provide leadership and a working environment that enable all to reach their full potential (U.S. Coast Guard; USCG).

b. Strategic Plan

Diversity needs to be part of an organization's strategic plan. Have a diversity strategy and plan that are developed and aligned with the organization's strategic plan (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 9).

- 1) Enabling goal stating, "To recruit, develop, and retain a competent, committed, and diverse workforce that provides a high quality service..." (Department of Veterans Affairs; VA).
- 2) Enabling goal stating, "Will recruit, support, and retain a knowledgeable, diverse, engaged, and continuously learning workforce." (VA)
- 3) Objective goal stating, "Ensure a high quality, diverse and motivated workforce" (Federal Drug Administration; FDA).
- 4) Strategic Action Plan stating three strategic goals:
 - a) Eradicate discrimination in the workplace by enforcing federal EEO laws, regulations, and policies;
 - b) promote inclusion and diversity in all levels of the workforce; and
 - c) empower individuals so that they may participate and contribute to their fullest potential."

c. Diversity Linked to Performance

The understanding that a more diverse and inclusive work environment can yield greater productivity and help improve individual and organization performance (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 10).

d. Measurement

A set of quantitative and qualitative measures of the impact of various aspects of an overall diversity program (GAO, 2005, pp. 4, 10, and 11).

- 1) Quantitative workforce data can evaluate the effectiveness of the organization's diversity management efforts and progress it is making in those efforts.

- 2) Qualitative data be can derived from interviews, focus groups, and surveys for identifying employee perceptions (i.e., questions on climate, organization commitment, promotions, job satisfaction, supervision, and etc.).
- 3) Measure progress in the diversity strategy by reviewing sick leave, complaints, grievances, accessions, and attrition (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration; NOAA).
- 4) Identify successes and areas that need improvement, and develop a process for action planning (NOAA).
- 5) If an issue cannot be resolved, elevate it to the next management level to see if it can be resolved there (NOAA).

e. Accountability

The means to ensure that leaders are responsible for diversity by linking their performance assessment and compensation to the progress of diversity initiatives. (GAO 2005, pp. 4 and 15)

- 1) Leadership submits narrative descriptions of accomplishments for the year, including a narrative for a critical element that promotes EEO and workforce diversity programs (NIH).
- 2) Executives write a narrative describing action they had taken in relation to complying with relevant EEO laws, regulations, and organizational policies as well as monitoring a subordinate manager's EEO and diversity management programs (NIH).

f. Succession Planning

An ongoing, strategic process for identifying and developing a diverse pool of talent for an organization's potential future leaders (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 17).

- 1) Implement a Web-based individual development plan system for individuals who are already in management positions to identify their skills, training, areas of expertise, and areas of development focus. This system ensures that all potential candidates for higher level or more specialized jobs are following a plan to enable them to fill vacant positions and lead the organization into the future. (U.S. Postal Service)
- 2) Forecast the need for potential future leaders. Develop a process for identifying high-performing nonsupervisory employees and provide those employees with a formal mentoring program, experiential leadership opportunities, and exposure to all facets of the organization's operations. (VA)

g. Recruitment

The process of attracting a supply of qualified, diverse applicants for employment (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 19).

- 1) Develop a recruitment tool kit to include various recruitment sources for minorities and diverse populations by state, with a list of minority-serving institutions, and professional minority organizations. (Federal Aviation Administration; FAA)
- 2) Develop a Web-based recruitment source that provides multicultural recruitment advertising and exposure in promoting employment opportunities nationwide. (FAA)

h. Employment Involvement

The contribution of employees in driving diversity throughout an organization (GAO, 2005, pp. 4, 20, 21, and 23).

- 1) Develop a Diversity Advisory Board (DAB) with an advisory council that focuses on people. The strategic plan has four objectives (National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)).
 - a) Increased awareness of diversity values and sensitivities by the senior management, managers, and staff.
 - b) Retention of existing diversity and work-life enhancement.
 - c) Active promotion of outreach and creation of a visible network of connections or routes to the organization.
 - d) Recruitment and workforce planning for enhanced diversity.
- 2) Have a mentoring program for new or young employees and especially for retaining minorities and that the mentoring program is consciously trying to foster relationships. (NIH)
- 3) Create a community outreach program initiatives by educating the community about the agency and the functions it performs. (NIST)
 - a) Actively reach out to local schools through mentoring and tutoring programs that help students with their class work, raise their awareness of scientific careers, and increase community involvement.
 - b) A student Volunteer Program which provides high school and college students a learning experience and exposure to career opportunities by volunteering in your organization

i. Diversity Training to Inform and Educate Management and Staff

- 1) Set up interactive training modules on EEO and diversity management available online to all.
- 2) Conduct diversity refresher training each year.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define diversity management.
- B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management.
- C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace.
- D. Identify the barriers to diversity management.
- E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6150

SPECIAL OBSERVANCES



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to provide the learner with an introduction to what is involved in conducting a Special Observance function.

Recommended Reading/Viewing

DEOMI Organizing Observances video available on the DEOMI intranet at: www.deomi.org

References

1. Guide for Organizing Observances available for download from http://www.deomi.org/downloadableFiles/guide_for_observe.pdf
2. Planning Observances for Military Audiences from <http://www.ushmm.org/remembrance/dor/military>
3. Jewish Virtual Library: Holocaust Memorial Day from <http://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/Judaism/yomhashoah.html>
4. History of National Women's History Month from <http://www.nwhp.org/whm/history.php>
5. About Asian Pacific Heritage Month from <http://asianpacificheritage.gov/about.html>
6. About Hispanic Heritage Month from http://www.biography.com/hispanic-heritage/hh_about.jsp
7. What is National Disability Employment Awareness Month? from <http://www.dol.gov/odep/topics/ndeam/>
8. The Creation of National American Indian and Alaska Native Heritage Month from <http://www.bia.gov/DocumentLibrary/HeritageMonth/>
9. DEOMI special observances www.deomi.org

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI Student Study Guide
2. “How to Conduct a Special Observance,” a 16-minute, continuous-play video available for viewing on the DEOMI intranet at: \\deomi-2\Public\Broadcasts\Special_Observances.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6150 Special Observances
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, know how to prepare for Special Observances recognized by the DoD. Each student must obtain a minimum passing score of 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify Special Observance events.	K	CRT
B. Identify how to prepare for Special Observance event.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SPECIAL OBSERVANCES

A. Special Observance Events

The following Special Observances are identified by month:

1. Martin Luther King, Jr. Birthday

- a. To honor the civil rights leader, Martin Luther King, Jr., and to allow Americans to reflect on racial equality and democratic principles
- b. Month: January
- c. Dates: Third Monday of the month

Note: Martin Luther King's birthday is on the 15th of January, but in keeping with Federal guidance, it is celebrated on the third Monday in Jan.

- d. Observance: Martin Luther King, Jr. Birthday
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 98-144, November, 1983 (Federal Holiday)
- f. Rationale: Since the first King Holiday on January 20, 1986, the observance has been an occasion for people to remember Dr. King's life and dedicate themselves anew to implementing his dreams.

2. African American/Black History Month

- a. Observed entire month of February
- b. Month: February
- c. Dates: February 1st–28th or the 29th
- d. Observance: African American/Black History Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 99-244, Feb 1986
- f. Rationale: In 1926 African American scholar Carter Godwin Woodson organized the first Negro History Week; focused attention on Black experience in the United States. In 1986, Congress officially designated February as National Black (Afro-American) History Month.

3. Women's History Month

- a. Observed entire month of March.
- b. Month: March
- c. Dates: March 1st–31st
- d. Observance: Women's History Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 100-9, March, 1987
- f. Rationale: The Education Task Force of the Sonoma County (California) Commission on the Status of Women initiated a "Women's History Week" celebration in 1978. President Ronald Reagan proclaimed the week beginning March 7, 1982 of that year to be Women's History Week. Since 1987, Congress expanded the observance, requesting the President to proclaim March of each year as Women's History Month.

4. Days of Remembrance

- a. Recognizes victims of the Holocaust.
- b. Month: April/May
- c. Dates: Sunday to Sunday for the week incorporating Yom Hashoah
- d. Observance: "Days of Remembrance" for victims of the Holocaust
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 96-388, October, 1980
- f. Rationale: To learn, reflect, and never forget what happened to the millions silenced during the Holocaust.

5. Asian American and Pacific Islander Heritage Month

- a. Observed entire month of May.
- b. Month: May
- c. Dates: May 1st–31st
- d. Observance: Asian American and Pacific Heritage Month

- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 101-283, May 1990; Public Law 102-450, October, 1992
 - f. Rationale: Commemorates the immigration of the first Japanese to the United States on May 7, 1843 and to mark the anniversary of the completion of the transcontinental railroad on May 10, 1869.
6. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Pride Month (LGBT Pride Month)
- a. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Pride Month (LGBT Pride Month) is currently celebrated each year in the month of June to honor the 1969 Stonewall riots in Manhattan. The Stonewall riots were a tipping point for the Gay Liberation Movement in the United States.
 - b. Month: June
 - c. Dates: June 1st–30th
 - d. Observance: LGBT Pride Month
 - e. Authority/comment: Executive order 11246 (June, 2014) and Office of Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity (ODMEO) memorandum (May, 2013)
 - f. Rationale: In the United States the last Sunday in June was initially celebrated as “Gay Pride Day,” but the actual day was flexible. In major cities across the nation the “day” soon grew to encompass a month-long series of events. Today, celebrations include pride parades, picnics, parties, workshops, symposia and concerts, and LGBT Pride Month events attract millions of participants around the world. Memorials are held during this month for those members of the community who have been lost to hate crimes or HIV/AIDS. The purpose of the commemorative month is to recognize the impact that lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender individuals have had on history locally, nationally, and internationally.
7. Women’s Equality Day
- a. Celebrated on August 26th.
 - b. Month: August
 - c. Dates: August 26th
 - d. Observance: Women’s Equality Day
 - e. Authority/comment: Joint Resolution of Congress, 1971

- f. Rationale: Commemorates August 26, 1920 passage of the 19th Amendment granting women right to vote, and the Women's Strike for Equality, a strike/protest held on August 26, 1970.
8. Hispanic Heritage Month
 - a. Observed every year between September 15th and October 15th
 - b. Month: September/October
 - c. Dates: September 15th–October 15th
 - d. Observance: National Hispanic Heritage Month
 - e. Authority/comment: Public Law 100-402, August, 1988
 - f. Rationale: Celebrates culture and traditions of U.S. residents who trace their roots to Spain, Mexico, and the Spanish-speaking nations of Central America, South America, and the Caribbean.
9. National Disability Awareness Month
 - a. Observed entire month of October.
 - b. Month: October
 - c. Dates: October 1st–31st
 - d. Observance: National Disability Employment Awareness Month
 - e. Authority/comment: U.S. Code 121 as of January 26, 1988
 - f. Rationale: Conceived in 1945 as National Employ the Physically Handicapped Week; scope has been expanded. Currently increases public's awareness of contributions and skills of American workers with disabilities and highlights specific employment barriers that still need to be removed.
10. National American Indian Heritage Month
 - a. Observed entire month of November.
 - b. Month: November
 - c. Dates: November 1st–30th

- d. Observance: National American Indian Heritage Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 102-188, March, 1992
- f. Rationale: Educates public about the heritage, history, art, and traditions of the American Indian and Alaska Native people.

B. Preparing For A Special Observance Event

1. Budgetary Requirements

- a. Prepare a budget for each observance.
- b. “Funding should be reviewed by the organization’s legal office to ensure compliance with Service-Specific, DoD, and Joint Ethics Regulations and Federal laws. This includes fund raisers by Special Observance committees and/or Special Observance private organizations **PRIOR** to conducting on a military establishment.”
- c. Budget is an essential element in the success of the programs.
- d. Upon approval, phase funds into the event’s fiscal quarter.

Note: Not all EO offices control a budget. Check with the command budget/resource officer for guidance on funding.

2. Materials for Planning a Special Observance

- a. The most important elements are planning and coordinating.
- b. Try to make use of locally available resources (e.g., staff, library personnel, local community).

3. Duties and Responsibilities of Organizing Personnel and Committees

- a. Project Officer – Oversees overall planning, coordination, and execution. May be the EOA. Use coordination checklist and Guidance for Organizing Observances.
- b. Observance Scheduling Committee – Suggests timeline and prepares a schedule.
- c. Planning Committee – Develops proposed agenda of events and activities including estimated costs.

- d. Finance Committee – Determines funding available from the Resource Management office.
- e. Publicity Committee – Plans, develops, and implements publicity programs to increase awareness.
- f. Education Committee – Plans, develops, and implements educational programs to increase awareness of historical and cultural accomplishments and achievements.
- g. Luncheon/Banquet Subcommittee – Coordinates dates and obtains reservations.
- h. Protocol – Responsible for guest speaker(s).

4. Planning and Coordination

The following information is based upon extensive experience in the planning and conduct of commemorative observances and is not necessarily accomplished sequentially:

- a. Calendar of Events: Contact appropriate installation/local organizations (e.g., Public Affairs; Morale, Welfare and Recreation; command section; and etc.) to compare calendar of events for installation/command activities.
- b. Determine availability of suitable facilities.
- c. Verbally brief your commander, chief of staff, or appropriate supervisor of the general plan.
- d. Compose rough drafts
 - 1) Publicity release
 - 2) Observance program outline
 - 3) List of guest speakers
 - 4) Description of event
 - 5) Structure of planning committee(s)
 - 6) Funding requirements
 - 7) Prepare an introductory message from the commander.
 - 8) Draft a letter to proposed keynote speaker.
 - 9) Send a memo to commander summarizing the plan.

- 10) Present the proposal to the commander.
 - 11) Proceed with the program after commander approval.
 - 12) Ensure planning committee members cover all aspects of the observance.
 - 13) Secure an advance copy of speaker's presentation, if applicable.
 - 14) Send copy of the complete package to the commander and others.
5. After the Observance
 - a. Obtain copies of publicity coverage.
 - b. Compile an After Action Report.
 6. Video
4. "How to Conduct a Special Observance"

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify Special Observance events.
- B. Identify how to prepare for a Special Observance events.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6200

COMPLAINT PROCESSING



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will build upon knowledge of interview skills. It will provide the necessary framework for students to conduct an intake interview and identify the roles and responsibilities of the EOA. The lesson will briefly describe the general guidelines for processing military equal opportunity/equal employment (EO/EEO) complaints.

Recommended Reading

1. Department of Defense Directive 1350.2 *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*, Chapters 4 and 5. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/135002p.pdf>
2. Air Force Military Equal Opportunity *Intake Interview Guide*

References

1. Department of Defense. (2003, November 21). *Department of Defense Directive 1350.2, Department of Defense military equal opportunity (MEO) program*, Chapters 4 and 5. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/135002p.pdf>
2. Department of Defense. (25 April, 2013). *Department of Defense Instruction 4000.19, support agreements*. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/400019p.pdf>
3. Air Force Military Equal Opportunity *Intake Interview Guide*

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI Student Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6200 Complaint Processing
2. Computer
3. *Complaint Processing* video

Terminal Learning Objective

Given the equal opportunity (EO) complaint process, the learner will know how the major components of the EO complaint process impact mission effectiveness with a minimum score of 70% on a criterion-referenced test.

Enabling Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the roles and responsibilities of the EOA in the EO complaint process.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the major components of the EO complaint process.	K	CRT
C. Describe the major components of the EO complaint intake interview.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

COMPAINTS PROCESSING

A. Roles and Responsibilities

1. Service/Agency References Governing the Complaint Process Include
 - a. Department of Defense (DoD)
 - (1) DoD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*
 - (2) DoD 4000.19, *Department of Defense Instruction Support Agreements (2013)*.
 - b. United States (U.S.) Army
 - (1) AR 600-20, *Army Command Policy*
 - (2) TC 26-6, *Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook*
 - c. U.S. Air Force
AFI 36-2706, *Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*
 - d. U.S. Navy
OPNAVINST 5354.1, *Navy Equal Opportunity Policy*
 - e. U.S. Marine Corps
MCO P5354.1D, *Marine Corps Equal Opportunity Manual*
 - f. U.S. Coast Guard COMDTINST M 5350.4C, *U.S. Coast Civil Rights Manual*
2. Definitions
 - a. EO Complaint – An allegation of unlawful discrimination based upon the six basis of discrimination made either orally or in writing. The six basis of discrimination are:
 - 1) Race
 - 2) Sex
 - 3) Religion
 - 4) National Origin
 - 5) Color
 - 6) Sexual Orientation
 - b. EO Complainant:

- 1) DoDD 1350.2 defines Service members as complainants
- 2) Depending on the Service, EO complainants may include:
 - a) Active duty, Reserve, or Guard members
 - b) Retired Service members
 - c) Family members
3. Avenues to Address Complaints
 - a. Informal – An allegation of unlawful discrimination or sexual harassment, made either orally or in writing, which is not addressed through formal channels.
 - b. Formal – An allegation of unlawful discrimination or sexual harassment that is submitted in writing to the authority designated for receipt of such complaints in Service implementing regulations.
 - c. Non-EO Complaints – Other complaints the EOA must be familiar with besides EO complaints (e.g., abuse of authority).
4. Referral Agencies for non-EO complaints
 - a. Chaplain
 - b. Inspector General (IG)
 - c. Housing Referral Office
 - d. Provost marshal
 - e. Legal services
 - f. Appropriate contracting or vendors office
 - g. Armed Forces Disciplinary Control Board
 - h. Community liaison
 - i. Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC)
5. EEO Complaints
 - a. Employment-based

- b. Derived from Federal Statutes (e.g., laws)
- c. Uses the appellate system for resolution
- d. Can be filed by Government employees, former employees, and job applicants

B. EO Complaint Process Components

1. The Intake Interview Contains the Following Four Elements:
 - a. Greeting
 - b. Body
 - c. Closing
 - d. Follow-up
2. Processing the Complaint
 - a. Each Service's specific reporting requirements are unique; all require complaints, formal and informal, to be reported.
 - b. EOAs will perform the following tasks in order to process the report:
 - 1) Initial reporting/notification
 - 2) Interim reporting
 - 3) Monitoring
 - a) Timelines
 - b) Administrative procedures
 - c) Victim focus and reprisal
 - c. Victim Focus and Reprisal Definitions
 - 1) Victim Focus
 - a) The tendency to see the complainant as the problem instead of searching for the root cause of the issue.

- b) Victim focus is reactive and concentrates on the symptoms of the problem, not the root cause.
- 2) Reprisal
 - a) Taking or threatening to take an unfavorable personnel action or withholding or threatening to withhold a favorable personnel action.
 - b) Any other act of retaliation, against a member for making or preparing a protected communication.
- 3. Outcome of the Complaint
 - a. One of the following outcomes will result:
 - 1) Substantiated
 - 2) Unsubstantiated
 - b. Appeal Process
- 4. Following-up on the Complaint

When following-up, the EOA will perform (depending upon Service):

- a. Interviews
- b. Observations
 - 1) Look for reprisal
 - 2) Look for effectiveness of corrective measures
- c. Documentation
- d. Final report
- e. Archiving the complaint
 - 1) Formal vs. informal
 - 2) Hard copy filing
- f. Data entry

C. Intake Interview

1. Open the Interview

Greet the interviewee promptly and cordially by:

- a. Establish a rapport with the interviewee.
- b. Establish procedures of the interview.
- c. Explain the limits of anonymity/confidentiality.
- d. Acknowledge the time limitations.
- e. Explain the purpose of note taking.
- f. Explain resolution avenues, if applicable.

2. Body

During the body of the interview you should do the following:

- a. Allow the interviewee to tell his/her story.
- b. Ask open-ended questions.
- c. Maintain control of the interview.
- d. Maintain strict impartiality.
- e. Maintain appropriate eye contact.
- f. Paraphrase the interviewee at times.
- g. Listen attentively.
- h. Accept/acknowledge interviewee's feelings.
- i. Use selective and flexible techniques.
- j. Maintain positive non-verbal communications.

3. Closing the Interview

When closing the interview you should do the following:

- a. Summarize the information gathered.
 - b. Ask if interviewee has anything to add.
 - c. Explain the procedures of the complaint process.
 - d. Discuss reprisal.
 - e. Discuss future follow-up.
 - f. Extend appreciation to interviewee.
4. Follow-up on the Interview

Follow-up on the interview only if needed (i.e., witnesses, supervisors). However, it is considered best practice to follow-up with the complainant.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the roles and responsibilities of the EOA in the EO complaint process.
- B. Recognize the major components of the EO complaint process.
- C. Describe the major components of the EO complaint intake interview.

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250
INTRODUCTION TO
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an organizational assessment to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The organizational assessment allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with understanding the human relations climate, and it must be taught toward the end of the course. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment, the process associated with an organizational assessment, identify the planning and preparation strategies associated with an organizational assessment and the different organizational assessment tools, as well as, analyze and interpret organizational assessment data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Recommended Reading:

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. Secretary of the Air Force. (2011, October). *Air Force Instruction 36-2706, equal opportunity program military and civilian*, Chapter 12. Washington, DC: Department of the Air Force.
2. Chief of Naval Operations (2011, September 20). OPNAVINST 5354.1 *Navy equal opportunity (EO) policy*. Washington, DC: Department of the Navy.
3. CNET 9210, Command Assessment Team Indoctrination Course
4. Department of the Army (2008). *Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), commander's equal opportunity handbook*, Chapter 4. Washington, DC: Department of the Army

5. Edwards, J. E., et al. (1997). *How to conduct organizational surveys* (pp. 1–5, 36–37, 92). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications,
6. Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S. E., & Slocum, J. W. (2005). *Management: A competency-based approach*. Mason, Ohio: Thomson/South-Western.
7. Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (2008). *Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice* (8th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw Hill.
8. Levinson, H. (2002). *Organizational assessment: A step-by-step guide to effective consulting*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association
9. Lusthaus, C., Adrien, M., & Anderson, G. (2002). *Organizational assessment: A framework for improving performance*. Ottawa, ON, CAN: IDRC Books.
10. Luthans, F., Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Avey, J. B. (2008). The mediating role of psychological capital in the supportive organizational climate–employee performance relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 219–238.
11. NAVEDTRA 7542, *Command assessment team information guide*.
12. Triola, M. F. (2002, April). *Essentials of statistics*. Addison-Wesley Publishing.
13. United States Coast Guard. (May 2010). *COMDTINST M5350.4C, Coast Guard Civil Rights Manual*. Washington, DC: Homeland Security.
14. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Outbrief Checklist

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6250 Introduction to Organizational Assessment
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, handouts, and a study guide, comprehend the foundation of an organizational assessment program with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
O. Define organizational assessment.	K	CRT
P. Recognize the purpose of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
Q. Recall factors of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
R. Identify the basis to conduct an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
S. Identify the types of organizational assessments.	K	CRT
T. Recall the organizational assessment process.	K	CRT
U. Identify the planning associated with an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
V. Recall all aspects of the commander's in-brief.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)

A. Define Organizational Assessment

To better understand the nuances of an organizational assessment, we must first look at its objectives (purpose, factors, basis, and types). First, a description of an organizational assessment

1. Organizational Assessment

- a. An *Organizational Assessment* is a *systematic* procedure to gather data about an organization. It provides insight as to how the organization is functioning to meet its mission. (*Commander Handbook, Chap 4*)
- b. The perception of one's work environment is the concept of organizational climate (Zhang & Liu, 2010). This is the foundational tenet of an organizational assessment.
- c. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- d. Organizational Assessment is based on process and procedures used by commanders to obtain a "snapshot" of an organization (unit). It presents information on the perceptions members have in areas such as, organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR.

B. Purpose of an Organizational Assessment

The main purpose of conducting an organizational assessment is to gather information on an organization to assist managers (commanders, etc.) in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members that may affect mission readiness. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization's climate.

C. Factors of an Organizational Assessment

1. Climate factors

Organizational assessment within the DoD measure climate factors associated with:

- a. Organizational effectiveness
- b. EO/EEO Fair Treatment
- c. Perceptions of sexual harassment/discrimination

d. Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR)

These factors or topic areas break down into more specific areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

2. Command's climate factors

a. Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you don't know where you are, a map won't be much help. An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

b. Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

3. Control Factors

Consideration should also be given to some controlling factors that help define the OA process.

a. Time

b. Space

c. Personnel

1) Military members

2) Civilian members

3) Host nation employees

d. Current OPTEMPO—Availability of personnel

e. Unit Location—Accessibility

f. Automation capabilities

Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version

g. Survey team size

The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.

- h. Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)
 - 1) EOA's experience and/or training
 - 2) Commander/leadership commitment
 - 3) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program

2. Positive Climate Factors

An organizational assessment identifies climate factors that affect mission readiness.

An organization's health encompasses a set of measurable factors residing in the work environment, based on the collective perceptions of the people who work in the environment.

Some measurable factors include:

- a. Staff morale (positive)
- b. Training and professional development
- c. Work force demographics (inclusive)
- d. Reenlistments

3. Negative Climate Factors

Among other things, an OA can identify climate factors that diminish mission readiness.

There are indications that a command climate is not healthy in ways that could impact the mission.

- a. Prevalence of sexual or racial jokes
- b. Polarization of groups
- c. Poor personal appearance
- d. Poor military comportment (behavior/attitude)
- e. Increased number of unauthorized absences
- f. Low morale
- g. Low trust in leadership

D. Basis to Conduct an Organizational Assessment

There are many reasons (basis) to conduct an organizational assessment and they are:

1. Directed by higher authority
 - a. National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA)
 - b. USD Memo (July 25, 2013)
2. Commander-requested
3. Following regulatory requirements:
 - a. Army – AR 600-20 Chapter 6 (30 days after assuming command, six month point, annually thereafter)
 - b. Navy – OPNAVINST 5354.1F (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - c. Air Force – AFI 36-2706 (120 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - d. Marines – MCOP 5354.1D (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - e. Coast Guard – COMDTINST M5350.4 within 120 days after change of command and annually thereafter.
4. An OA *is not* used:
 - a. In place of a complaint/incident clarification/investigation
 - b. To determine the competency level of an individual
 - c. As a mechanism to terminate employment

E. Identify the Types Of Organizational Assessment

There are various assessment options in the scope of an OA.

1. Informal

An OA can be based on an informal process such as an:

- a. Out-and-about

b. Daily observations

2. Formal

A more formal process, which uses pre-prepared assessment tools and follows strict guidelines, include surveys (DEOCS).

F. Recall the Organizational Assessment Process

The organizational assessment process begins with activities to determine the health of the organization.

As an EOA, it is your job to assess the organization to fully understand its climate. This assessment can be conducted in many ways including document review, organizational sensing, focus groups, interviewing, and/or surveying.

The OA process normally includes tasks such as:

1. Planning and Preparation (Assessment Strategy)
2. Data Gathering (to include, not inclusive)
 - a. Observation of individuals/groups
 - b. Surveying individuals
 - c. Interviewing individuals/groups
 - d. Reviewing records and reports
3. Analyzing and interpreting information and data

This is where all the data is processed and interpreted to identify validated concerns for the commander.

4. Creating Organizational Assessment reports

After all data have been analyzed, the results are conveyed to the commander in an understandable and useful manner.

All findings and recommendations must be presented in a way that maintains confidentiality of individuals participating in the assessment.

5. Follow-up

After changes or recommendations are implemented, a follow-up assessment should be conducted to determine their effectiveness, as well as, identify any modifications needed. This may also include another climate assessment.

G. Planning Associated with an Organizational Assessment

Working and communicating with leaders and managers is critical in the OA process.

1. Planning strategies.

- a. EOAs must be aware of OA guidance and have some idea of what leaders seek to learn.
- b. Having a clear picture of the desired outcome will help define the processes and resources necessary to conduct the assessment.
- c. During the planning phase, the commander and EOA should adopt specific strategies and sequence to follow during the assessment process.

These strategies should not be established as hard and fast rules, but should serve more as a guide throughout the assessment process.

2. Planning Considerations

There are many variables and elements that can impact the OA planning and preparation process. These are the factors that can affect the OA process. They include the OA team, commander's goals, resources available, etc.

a. The OA Team

The OA team may consist of a single individual or can include a team consisting of several members. The number of team members will vary according to local mission, priorities, and staffing.

b. Assessment domain (scope) of the OA.

- 1) Sample population (people)
- 2) Intangible factors
- 3) Organization (mission/goals)
- 4) Technology
- 5) Commander's goals

6) Environment

7) Resources

3. Planning Details

When developing your OA, there are certain areas that require specific and sometimes detailed attention:

a. Leadership

The assessment must include all levels of the organization; most important is leadership influence and impact on the organization.

b. Focus

Keep the assessment focused on the organization.

c. Method(s)

Use more than one method to gather information:

1) Surveys (DEOCS)

2) Interviews

3) Observations

4) Records and Reports

H. Aspects of the Commander's In-Brief

A well prepared in-brief will include the following:

1. Purpose of the In-brief

The purpose of the in-brief is to identify the commander's expectations, guidance, and intent beyond Service requirements.

2. Reason for the assessment

a. Requested

b. Directed by higher headquarter

c. Regulatory guidance

3. Established timelines (beginning to end)

A well prepared in-brief will include established timelines to begin and complete the organizational assessment.

4. Additional points to cover with the commander

- a. Advise commander on assessment tools and the strengths/limitations of the assessment.
- b. Provide commander with a copy of the survey instrument for review. Identify what additional questions will be included in the survey.
- c. Describe how the survey will be distributed and collected.
- d. Request appointment of liaison officer or senior commissioned officer to serve as a point of contact.
- e. Establish the specifics for the out-brief. Getting this information up-front will make preparing and providing the assessment findings at the out-brief easier.
 - 1) Date and time
 - 2) Location
 - 3) Equipment needed for out-brief
 - 4) Commander's preference – formal briefing vs. desk side
 - 5) Attendees – who from the command will attend the out-brief

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define organizational assessment.
- B. Recognize the purpose of an organizational assessment.
- C. Recall factors of an organizational assessment.
- D. Identify the basis to conduct an organizational assessment.
- E. Identify the types of organizational assessment.
- F. Recall the organizational assessment process.
- G. Identify the planning associated with an organizational assessment.
- H. Recall all aspects of a commander's in-brief.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
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April 2015

EOA 6250-1

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT

DEOMI ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE SURVEY (DEOCS)



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Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an "Organizational Assessment" to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The DEOCS is a commander's management tool that allows EOAs to proactively assess critical organizational climate dimensions that can impact the organization's mission. Additionally, it allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the process associated with understanding the complete administration and analysis of the DEOCS. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of the DEOCS; the process associated with ordering and administering the survey, the on-line survey itself, as well as, analyzing and interpreting survey data.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. Air Force Instruction 36-2706, October 2011, Equal Opportunity Program Military & Civilian, Chapter 12
2. CNET 9210, Command Assessment Team Indoctrination Course
3. COMDTINST M5350.4C (May 2010). *Coast Guard Civil Rights Manual*
4. Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), *Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook*, Chapter 4. Washington, DC: Department of the Army.
5. Edwards, J. E., et al. (1997). *How to conduct organizational surveys*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, pp.1–5, 36, 37, 92.
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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses Steps and Process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6250 Perceptions
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, students will know how perceptions impact unit readiness and mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment survey.	K	CRT
B. Identify the planning, preparation, and administration associated with the DEOCS.	C	CRT
C. Recall factors and items associated with the DEOCS.	K	CRT
D. Identify the key aspect of the DEOCS report.	C	CRT
E. Analyze and interpret the DEOCS report.	AN	CC
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (DEOCS)

A. Foundational Objectives of an Organizational Assessment Survey

To better understand the nuances of an organizational assessment, we must first look at its objectives (purpose and topic areas). First, a description of an *Organizational Assessment*.

1. Organizational Assessment

Determining the “health” and functioning effectiveness of an organization by examining such factors as morale, teamwork, and communication. This is accomplished through some or all of the following: group and/or individual interviews, observations, surveys or questionnaires, and reviews of records and reports. (DoDD 1350.2, August 18, 1995)

- a. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- b. An organizational assessment not only fulfills the DoD and NDAA requirements, it helps provide Commanders a “snapshot” of an organization (unit) during a specific period of time. It presents information on the feelings, perceptions, and thoughts of unit members in areas like; organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR.

2. Purpose of the DEOCS

- a. The main purpose of conducting a DEOCS is to gather information on an organization to assist Commanders, in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization’s climate
- b. The DEOCS will:
 - 1) Assist commanders at all levels in assessing the command’s EO climate.
 - 2) Provide commanders insight into other personnel issues that may impact unit effectiveness.
 - 3) Identify positive and negative factors that may affect mission readiness.

3. Topic Areas Associated with a DEOCS

The DEOCS is voluntary survey designed to assess the “shared perceptions” of respondents about formal or informal policies and practices. It measure climate factors associated with (1) Organizational Effectiveness, (2) EO/EEO/ Fair Treatment, (3) Perceptions of Sexual Harassment/Discrimination, and (4) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR).

These topic areas are broken down into more specific (factor) areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

Command’s Climate factors align with:

a. Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you do not know where you are, a map will not be much help! An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

b. Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

B. Planning, Preparation, and Administration

1. Planning Control Factors

When a request or requirement for a DEOCS is presented, some considerations must be thought out to ensure the assessment is successful or participation is maximized.

i. Time

j. Personnel

1) Military members

2) Civilian members

3) Host nation employees

k. Current OPTEMPO

Availability of personnel

1. Unit Location

Accessibility

m. Automation capabilities

Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version

n. Survey team size

The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.

o. Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)

- 1) EOA's experience and/or training
- 2) Commander/leadership commitment
- 3) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program

2. Preparing for the DEOCS

a. DEOCS are requested by a variety of personnel: EOAs, CMEOs, EOLs, EORs, and etc. If you are responsible for the administration of a DEOCS and/or are going to serve as the survey administrator, there is some key information you must determine prior to making your request:

- 1) What will be the survey dates?
 - a) Start/End dates
 - b) Extend survey option
- 2) How does the Commander want the unit broken up, if needed?
 - a) Single DEOCS
 - b) Sub-breakouts
- 3) What kind of password option should we use?
 - a) Email Password
 - b) Print Passwords
- 4) Does the Commander want LDQs/SAQs?

- a) LDQs
 - b) SAQs
- 5) Paper Survey option
- a) Start/End Dates
 - b) Written Comments
- b. Additionally, the below information is required to actually make your request:
- c. A minimum of 16 assigned personnel are required to conduct a DEOCS assessment, requests with fewer than 16 completed surveys will not be processed.
- d. Information required in processing a DEOCS assessment:
- 1) Unit Identification Code (UIC; **USN, USMC, and USA Only**)
 - 2) Personal Accounting Symbol (PAS; **USAF Only**)
 - 3) Operational Facilities (OPFAC; **USCG Only**)
 - 4) Mailing address for organization
 - 5) Branch of service
 - 6) Service component
 - 7) Name/rank/grade of Survey Administrator
 - 8) E-mail of Survey Administrator
 - 9) DSN phone number of Survey Administrator
 - 10) Commercial phone number of Survey Administrator
 - 11) Name/rank/grade of Commander/Director
 - 12) E-mail of Commander/Director
 - 13) Name/rank/grade of Commander's Supervisor
 - 14) E-mail of Commander's Supervisor

15) Number and type of Passwords required to take online survey

16) Ten Locally Developed Questions (LDQ; **OPTIONAL**)

17) Five Short Answer Questions (SAQ; **OPTIONAL**)

3. Making the DEOCS request and Administration

- a. Once all administrative information is gathered, go to www.deocs.net and make your request by filling in all needed data fields.
- b. Upon submission of your request, the DEOCS Support Team reviews and either contact the Administrator for corrections or to approve the request. This will happen within 72 hours.
- c. Administration of the DEOCS has several key steps. Ensure the requesting Commander is aware of the process and updated throughout the assessment.
- d. SAAS Account
 - 1) Purpose
 - a) Account login info
 - b) SAAS Account/Report Closer
 - 2) Functionality of SAAS
 - a) Passwords
 - b) Completion Rates
 - c) Request Report

C. DEOCS Factors and Survey Items

1. DEOCS Main Topic Areas

The survey focuses on four primary areas: Military Equal Opportunity (EO), Civilian Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), Organizational Effectiveness (OE), Perceptions of Discrimination/Sexual Harassment, and Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR).

The survey is then separated into 23 climate factors that pose questions that survey takers respond to using a four-point scale (i.e., strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree).

The core survey contains 95 items/questions. Each factor has anywhere from three to four items each.

- a. DEOCS Climate Factors
 - 1) Organizational Effectiveness (OE)
 - a) Organizational Commitment
 - b) Trust in Leadership
 - c) Organizational Performance
 - d) Organizational Cohesion
 - e) Leadership Cohesion
 - f) Job Satisfaction
 - g) Diversity Management
 - h) Organizational Processes
 - i) Help Seeking Behaviors
 - j) Exhaustion/Burnout
 - 2) EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - a) Hazing
 - b) Demeaning Behaviors
 - c) Favoritism
 - d) Racial Discrimination
 - e) Sex Discrimination
 - f) Religious Discrimination
 - g) Sexual harassment
 - h) Racist Behavior
 - i) Sexist Behaviors

- j) Age Discrimination (Civilian only)
 - k) Disability Discrimination (Civilian only)
 - 3) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR)
 - 4) Perceptions of Discrimination & Sexual Harassment
- b. Taking the Survey
- 1) Individuals will login to the DEOCS using a password provided by the survey administrator. The survey can be accessed from any computer or device that has Internet capability.
 - 2) Survey must be completed in one sitting. (There is no save and return capability). Additionally, there is no count down timer; however, the survey will disconnect after 1.5 hours.
- c. The demographics section will be the first area respondents will encounter.
- 1) Sex (Male/Female)
 - 2) Hispanic Declaration
 - 3) Race
 - 4) Reside (On/Off Base)
 - 5) Deployed
 - 6) Employment Status (Mil/Civ/Other)
- d. DEOCS Anonymity
- 1) Respondent's anonymity is very important. Individuals can enter the survey with minimal identification by selecting "Decline to Respond" (Hispanic and Race) and "Other" in the employment status. The only demographic item that must be answered is "sex."
 - 2) The survey will not display group data any time fewer than five members of that demographic completes the survey.
 - 3) Respondents' anonymity is protected when completing the online survey by using a computer-generated, untraceable password. In addition, no personally identifying information (PPI) is collected.

e. Survey Structure

After the demographics section, the respondent then enters the actual factor areas.

- 1) Organizational Effectiveness
 - a) 37 total items
 - b) Display on one page
 - c) Once completed with OE items respondents can enter written comments
- 2) EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - a) 30 total items
 - b) Display on one page
 - c) Civilian only items
 - d) Once complete with EO items, respondents can enter written comments
- 3) SAPR
 - a) 9 total items
 - b) 20 Sub items/questions
- 4) Perceptions of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment
 - a) 1 item
 - b) 3 to 6 sub-items/questions
- 5) After the SAPR and Discrimination section, respondents can enter written comments. They are also presented the opportunity to enter any additional comments.
- 6) The final section provides locally developed and short answer questions that were selected by the requesting unit. If there are no LDQs or SAQs, the survey terminates after the additional comments area.
- 7) LDQ and SAQ areas
 - a) Up to 10 LDQs

- b) Up to 5 SAQs

D. Key Aspects of the DEOCS Report

1. The DEOCS Report

The DEOCS is one of the tools EOAs use to collect data from commands to help provide the Commander with essential information regarding their command climate. The DEOCS is typically the first step in the data gathering process. The responses that are provided within the DEOCS, both standard scale responses, as well as written comments, provide a picture of the climate and help determine what focus groups questions and groupings may be needed to validate DEOCS results. Below is a breakdown the DEOCS report:

a. Demographics display (Section II)

1) Minority/Majority

For the majority/minority subgroup categories, the majority category includes all respondents who listed their race as “White,” and their ethnicity as “not Hispanic.” All other respondents are included in the minority subgroup.

2) Race

- a) American Indian
- b) Asian
- c) Black
- d) Native Hawaiian
- e) White
- f) Two or More
- g) Declined

Note: The race-ethnic classification system used on DEOCS is consistent with current Office of Management and Budget (OMB) guidelines.

3) Ethnicity

- a) Not Hispanic
- b) Hispanic

- c) Declined
- 4) Gender
 - Men/Women
- 5) Category (rank/Grade)
 - a) Junior Enlisted (E-1–E-6)
 - b) Senior Enlisted (E-7–E-9)
 - c) Junior Officer (O-1–O-3)
 - d) Senior Officer (O-4 and above)
 - e) Junior Civilian (Grades 1–8)
 - f) Senior Civilian (Grades 9–SES)
- b. Perceptions of Discrimination (Section III)

This section addresses whether members of the organization experienced discrimination and sexual harassment, directed from members of the organization, during the last 12 months; whether they reported the incident; and their satisfaction with how the reported incident was resolved.

Question:

Within the past 12 months, I have personally experienced an incident of discrimination or sexual harassment within my current organization.

(Mark all that apply) Response Scale:

- 1) Racial/national origin/color
- 2) Sexual Harassment
- 3) Gender (sex)
- 4) Religion
- 5) Age
- 6) Disability

- 7) Equal pay
- 8) Genetic information
- 9) Pregnancy
- 10) Retaliation
- 11) NO, did not experience discrimination

If a respondent answers “Yes” to any of the categories, then this section has additional breakdowns:

- 1) Experienced discrimination based on race/national origin/color
Majority/Minority
- 2) Experienced discrimination based on gender (sex)
Men/Women
- 3) Actions taken following incident of discrimination:
 - a) Filed formal complaint
 - b) Reported incident to EO/EEO
 - c) Reported to supervisor
 - d) Confronted individual
 - e) Did not report
- 4) How satisfied are you with how your issue was or is being resolved?
Very satisfied; very dissatisfied scale
- 5) If you did not report the incident to anyone in your chain of command, please indicate your personal reasons why.
 - a) The incident would not be taken seriously
 - b) The incident would not be believed
 - c) Lack of privacy/confidentiality

- d) Fear of reprisal
 - e) Lack of support from chain of command
 - f) Other
 - g) N/A
- c. Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR, Section IV)

This section addresses members' perceptions of the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) climate within your organization. Specifically, this section includes members' perceptions of the following topic areas:

- 1) Perceptions of Safety.
- 2) Chain of Command Support
- 3) Publicity of SAPR Information
- 4) Unit Reporting Climate
- 5) Perceived Barriers to Reporting Sexual Assault
- 6) Unit Prevention Climate
- 7) Restricted Reporting Knowledge

This part of the report begins by displaying the overall “Unit Summary” information pertaining to the seven SAPR climate factors within an organization, compared to the DEOMI database for their Service.

The “Unit Summary” is located in both section IV and VI of the DEOCS report. These two areas only differ by the factors that are being displayed.

- 1) Results display above average, average, and below average using a green, blue, and red coding scheme, respectively. Above average indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly more favorable than the perceptions commonly held across your Service. Average indicates that the perceptions of your members are similar to that of the perceptions commonly held across your Service. Below average indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly less favorable than those held across your Service.

The organization’s average is displayed along with its respective Service branch average.

- 2) The display is a simple horizontal bar chart with the averages located to the right of the bar. Simply put, the longer the line, the better the unit's average (positive).

It is important to note the "Range of "Near Service Average" is located under each factor. This range displays how close or far your unit is from the next color coding.

- 3) We determined the Near Service Average cut scores for each Service based on a distribution of climate factor averages from all units in each Service branch (Army, Navy, Air Force, and etc.) that completed the DEOCS during a specific timeframe. These scores are updates semiannually so that they track any data trends.
- 4) The "Unit Summary" area within SAPR gives you a quick snapshot of how the command is doing in relations to their Service. This information is then followed up with addition (specific) information about each SAPR factor in the order the factors are listed in the unit summary area.

Specific data or responses associated with the SAPR factor are then displayed on individual tables and figures throughout the SAPR section. These tables and figures have detailed information that is explained prior to and after each graphic.

d. Climate Factor Subgroup Comparisons

The climate factor subgroup comparison provides a demographic summary chart of the SAPR, OE, and EO/EEO Climate variables. Results display *above average*, *average*, and *below average* using a green, blue, and red coding scheme, respectively. *Above average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly more favorable than the perceptions commonly held across your Service. *Average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are similar to that of the perceptions commonly held across your Service. *Below average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly less favorable than those held across your Service.

- 1) These three charts provide the organization with a snapshot of their results by all DEOCS factors and demographic category.
- 2) The averages displayed within the color coding boxes, represent the "Range of "Near Service" Average" that is located in the Unit Summary area.
- 3) This display allows you to determine what factor is trending below average, average, or above average by demographic group.
- 4) Knowing this information is important to understanding how personnel perceive their command climate. It also provides a starting point for you to determine the positive and negative trends. Once you can see what factors are scoring low and by what demographic, you can then go to the Section VII, DEOCS Summary of Survey Item

Results and determine what specific questions have a high unfavorable score. This will assist you in determining potential focus group/interview questions.

e. Survey Item Results

Section VII of the DEOCS report shows responses to the individual climate factor questions. It turns the four-point response scale into a two-point favorable/ unfavorable scale and displays the results using a percentage. Additionally, it provides the overall factor results using a percentage as well.

One key difference between this section and section V is climate factor subgroup comparison. The comparison area determines a color code and average and presents that against your Service. Section VII is only the results of your organization responses—no comparison, just actual results.

f. LDS/SAQ/Written Comments

1) Locally Developed Questions

- a) Worded in a positive manner
- b) Worded as a comment
- c) Strongly agree/disagree scale
- d) Up to 10 LDQs on any one DEOCS
- e) Sub breakouts will all use the same LDQs

2) Short Answer Questions

- a) Open ended question to elicit a comment
- b) Use up to 1,000 characters
- c) Responses are provided verbatim to Commander
- d) No PII

3) Written Comments

- a) Provided after each topic area
- b) Use up to 1,000 characters
- c) Responses are provided verbatim to Commander

d) No PII

E. Analyze and Interpret the DEOCS

The proper analysis of the DEOCS is critical in helping leadership understand their command climate.

The key to moving forward with the assessment is identifying both the positive and negative findings within the main subject areas.

1. Purpose for analyzing data – Identify organizational strengths and areas that need improvement
 - a. Strengths – Data that suggests a strong majority of unit members express favorable views about an issue or organizational practices or policies.
 - b. Areas of improvement – Data that suggests a sizeable minority (i.e., 20% or more) of the unit members harbor unfavorable views about an issue or organizational policies or practices.
2. Analyzing and Interpreting the DEOCS
 - a. As already discussed, a command climate assessment is not just surveying an organization. Commanders need a clear understanding of their unit members' perceptions, and different methods are needed to accomplish this.
 - b. It is the EOAs job to identify the positive and negative factors that affect that climate and, by extension, mission. **In almost every case, EOAs will start the assessment process by administering the DEOCS.**
 - c. Compare the sample of DEOCS respondents to the population of the unit. Are some groups underrepresented? Are some groups overrepresented?
 - d. Beginning with the demographic data, you can see how many members of your organization completed the DEOCS. Moreover, you can see who in your organization completed the DEOCS, in terms of group membership. This can be important, not just because it shows who completed the DEOCS, but also who didn't.

If only a small percentage of the organization participated in the DEOCS, your confidence in the results will be lower than if you had a large majority of the organization complete the DEOCS.

- e. Review section III Perceptions of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment. This shows perceptions of these incidents in the workplace during the past 12 months, actions taken to address them, and members' satisfaction with issue resolution.
 - 1) Remember, these are just perceptions, not official formal complaints. Members determine what constitutes an "incident." This could be a simple comment all the way to a discriminatory action.
 - 2) The goal here is to identify that these perception exists, what type of discrimination, and the pervasiveness.
 - 3) Additionally, the series of questions in this area allows you to provide a clearer picture to the commander. You are not just telling them that members perceive discrimination, you are able to provide further clarification: actions taken to address them or any barriers to not addressing, and members' satisfaction with issue resolution.
 - 4) Finally, review the comments areas to validate or find examples of discrimination that can help explain perceptions.
- f. The SAPR section (section IV) displays a tremendous amount of information. Start by reviewing the unit summary of all seven factors. This will give you a snapshot of how each factor is trending. After the unit summary data, the section takes each factor one at a time and displays specific data regarding that factor and the questions associated with them. This breakdown will be shown graphically, through a table or figure. Analyzing this section will simply take the EOA to read the presented data in that section and make note of any inconsistencies or trends.
- g. Section V, Climate Factor Subgroup Comparison (SAPR, OE, EO). This area displays color coding broken down by factor and demographic grouping. Identifying scoring in this area is very easy; however, the EOA has to be able to explain scoring. Caution must be given to this section as many people will simple look at the three displays and assume everything is told on these three pages. EOAs must be able to connect section V, VI, and VII to gain a clear picture or view of the respondents' perceptions.
- h. Section VI, Overall Unit Summary will show you how the unit surveyed compares to their Service. This again will help you validate the previous section by showing whether the organization as a whole garnered an average rating for any factors. Average scores are displayed to the right of the bar chart. The actual cut-scores are viewable underneath each factor display. The Service average is the mean within the "Near Service Average." This display allows commanders to see how close or far away they are from the next level (average).
- i. Section VII, Response to Survey Items displays a favorable/unfavorable breakout for each question by factor. Additionally, it allows you to assign an overall percentage to

each question and factor. Age and Disability Discrimination only display federal civilian responses.

- j. Analyzing all data is crucial to understanding the unit's perceptions. Once the data portion of the report has been analyzed, you have to turn your focus to the LDQs, SAQs, and written comments.
 - k. The final areas within the report to review include the LDQs, SAQs, and additional comments. While reviewing the latter two sections, you want to look for comments that help explain climate factor findings (e.g., below average scores and above average scores). This way, when you inform or brief the commander on positive and negative finds revealed by the survey, you can provide specific comments associated with those areas. This will also assist you with developing interview/focus group questions.
 - l. Your comment analysis should focus on clarifying survey results to allow for a better understanding of responses. Additionally, survey and comment analysis helps you to determine what focus group/interview questions are needed to validate survey findings. Finally, when presenting your findings to the commander, it is much easier to lump your comment analysis into themes. Meaning, you take the top 2-3 most common responses.
 - m. Comments are provided verbatim and cannot be modified. There will be occasions when comments reveal UCMJ violations. These comments should be brought to the commands attention for action.
3. Final Analysis

The final analysis consists of consolidating data from all assessment tools. The DEOCS survey will always be the primary means of gathering information and determining the unit's positive and negative perceptions.

Results and findings are now pulled together to provide leadership with a means to address any negative concerns that impact the mission or continue the positive trends.

- a. DEOCS – Identified concern areas through survey responses and comments
- b. Observations – Observed behaviors or spoke to unit members
- c. Focus Group/Interviews – Clarified or validated survey, observation, and/or Commander's concern areas
- d. Records and Reports – clarified or validated survey/observation concerns

How results are reported or briefed depends on your Service-specific requirements. This will be explained during the Service Specific portion of the course.

Commander out-briefs and/or reports should provide information that was obtained or observed during your assessment. Your brief or report should speak to the totality of all four assessment areas, and how each area either validates or invalidates the survey results, comments, interviews, or the unit commander's initial perceptions.

Showing a complete picture and providing both positive and negative findings will display your objectivity, competency, and skill as an EOA.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment survey.
- B. Identify the planning, preparation and administration associated with the DEOCS.
- C. Recall factors and items associated with the DEOCS.
- D. Identify the key aspect of the DEOCS report.
- E. Analyze and interpret the DEOCS report.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250-2
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)
RECORDS AND REPORTS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skills in reviewing records and reports when conducting an organizational assessment. Reviewing records and reports allows EOAs to provide commanders with an insight into the command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with reviewing records and reports. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of reviewing records and reports, the process associated with records and reports, as well as, analyze and interpret records and reports data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

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6. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Capstone activity
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
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 - e. Records and Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses Steps and Process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

3. Videos: Ordering a DEOCS

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide; appraise an organizational climate with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test. Students are also required to obtain a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the purpose of records and reports.	K	CRT
B. Recall advantages of records and reports.	K	CRT
C. Recall disadvantages of records and reports.	K	CRT
D. Identify the sample use of records and reports.	K	CRT
E. Recall records and reports data analysis and interpretation.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
<p>Capstone Activity</p> <p>A. Analyze and interpret organizational assessment data.</p> <p>B. Develop an in-brief (homework.)</p> <p>C. Conduct an in-brief.</p> <p>D. Conduct Analysis/Translate data (OA data provided).</p> <p>E. Create report (Executive Summary with findings, recommendations, issues, concerns, action plan, etc...).</p> <p>F. Prepare an out-brief (homework).</p> <p>G. Conduct an out-brief.</p>	<p>Provide knowledge and skills associated with DEOCS analysis and organizational assessment strategies.</p>	

OA RECORDS AND REPORTS

A. Recall the Purpose of Records and Reports Assessment

Records and reports are used to identify “hard” or unchangeable data about the command. This data is used to prove or disprove, support or non-support, or quantify perceptions from other data sources.

Some data will be qualitative (e.g., unit logs, policy, regulations, and etc.), while others are numerically based (e.g., awards, discipline, promotions, and etc.)

Significant information is filed in a variety of formats. During the OA records review, the EOA may look at different areas, not limited to:

1. Retention rates
2. Discipline rates
3. Equal Opportunity complaints (formal and informal)
4. Awards and decorations
5. Local promotions
6. Policy letters (qualitative data)
7. Training records
8. Key duty positions (will vary by Service)

B. Recall the Advantages of Records and Reports

Advantages of records and reports:

1. Unchangeable (if available)
2. Easily expressed for comparison (ratio, percentage, etc.)
3. Easily accessible
4. Easily interpreted and compared with other data sources

C. Recall Disadvantages of Records and Reports

Disadvantages of records and reports:

1. Might not be available
2. Might not be accurate
3. Might require extensive search of records to obtain needed data.

D. Recall the Sample Use of Records and Reports

Depending on the type of record and report used in the OA process, the analysis may be simple or time consuming.

Records might require data to be consolidated and synthesized, proportions or rates per thousand computed, and/or compared over time to same or similar data.

For numerically-based data, there are various methods for computing the statistics: percentages and rates per thousand.

Percentage differences do not determine causes or imply any intent to discriminate.

1. Percentage

- a. This method is useful to depict changes in what happens to individuals as a result of normal functions of the system. It can be used to identify and provide valuable insights of institutional practices, which are operating to the disadvantage of a particular group of people.
- b. To compute a percentage, take the population you are reviewing, divide it by the total population and multiply it by 100.

$$\left[\frac{\# \text{ of population in review}}{\# \text{ of total population}} \right] 100$$

2. Rate per thousand

- a. This method allows the EOA to better compare specific groups, to compare data during a timeframe or fluctuating unit populations, or helpful when comparing data within large unit population.
- b. To compute rate per thousand, take the population you are reviewing, divide it by the total population of that group, and multiply it by 1,000.

$$\left(\frac{\# \text{ of occurrences in review}}{\# \text{ of population in that group}} \right) 1000$$

E. Recall Records and Reports Data Analysis and Interpretation

It is important that the EOA look at various levels within the data when comparing it. The EOA may find, or fail to find, the indicators necessary to support, fail to support, or refute the other data sources if the appropriate level of data are not analyzed.

After the data is processed, interpret and translate it into meaningful terms. Put the data into words that identifies where the findings suggest a concern/issue.

SUMMARY

After processing all the activities, the student should have a better comprehension and fuller understanding on how to apply their knowledge as they prepare to perform their duties.

Students should now be able to:

- A. Recall the purpose of records and reports assessment.
- B. Recall advantages of records and reports.
- C. Recall disadvantages of records and reports.
- D. Recall the sample use of records and reports.
- E. Recall records and reports data analysis and Interpretation.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250-3

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)

INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in conducting interviews and observations in order to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. Interviews and observations allow EOAs to provide commanders with an insight into the command climate from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the skills and steps associated with conducting interviews and observations. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives, the process, as well as identify the planning and preparation strategies.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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4. Shipley, Kenneth G. & Julie M. Wood (1996). *The Elements of Interviewing*. San Diego, California: Singular Publishing Group, Inc., pp. 1–96.
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8. U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral Sciences. Version 3.0, 1998. Available online at <http://www.hqda.army.mil/ari/surveys/trainmod.shtml>
9. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOARCC Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. Commanders Guidance
 - b. Interview Process
 - c. Interview/Observation Worksheet

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment:

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide, know the interview and observation processes used to facilitate an organizational climate with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the purpose of an interview.	K	CRT
B. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the individual interview.	K	CRT
C. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the group interview.	K	CRT
D. Recall logistical considerations of conducting interview.	K	CRT
E. Recall how to determine the number of interviews.	K	CRT
F. Recall determining the sample element.	K	CRT
G. Recall the types of interview questions.	K	CRT
H. Recognize interview error and bias.	K	CRT
I. Recall the purpose of using observations.	K	CRT
J. Recall advantages and disadvantages of using observations.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

OA INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS

A. Recall the Purpose of an Interview

Interviews – a conversation designed to gather information for a specific purpose (Shiple 1996, p. 1).

1. Purpose of conducting an interview
 - a. Collect data for diagnosis – Interview data supplements and expands data gathered by surveys, reports, and observations.
 - b. Clarify data generated – Interviews assist the EOA in checking his/her understanding sources of perceptions held by the members of the organization being assessed.
 - c. Increase personal ownership of the diagnosis – Because individuals are personally involved in the diagnosis through the face-to-face interview, they have the tendency to develop a feeling that what they have to say counts in the diagnosis.
 - d. Examine situations – Examine a specific problem, conflict, or issue concerning the interviewee and explore various possible resolutions.
2. There are two types of interviews: the *individual* interview and the *group* interview (focus group).

B. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of the Individual Interview

An individual interview is carried out in a private face-to-face, one-on-one situation between the interviewer and the interviewee

1. Advantages of an *individual* interview:
 - a. Flexibility – A skilled interviewer can search out relevant issues that appear or develop as the interview progresses. This may yield valuable information.
 - b. Involvement – One-on-one interviews may produce a greater sense of involvement and commitment among interviewees and lead to more direct and honest answers.
 - c. Clarity – Since the interviewer takes an active role in helping the respondent understand questions, there is less chance the questions will be misunderstood.
 - d. Intimacy – One-on-one interviews are intimate; therefore, they may lead to more direct and honest answers.

2. Disadvantages of an *individual* interview:

- a. Time – Individual interviews that involve a large number of interviewees can take a great deal of time.
- b. Sample size – As pointed out before, time limitations make it difficult to interview a large number of people. This may limit the final sample size (or representation of the group) and the breadth of information obtained. The process of drawing conclusions from limited samples may then be difficult; thus, affecting the validity of the interviews.
- c. Validity – Such things as the interviewer's lack of experience, improperly used techniques, questionable interpretation, and small sample sizes may invalidate the data. Also, responses from interviewees may not be honest, and different individuals may directly contradict each other.
- d. Training – It is far easier to teach a person to administer a survey than to be an effective one-on-one interviewer.

C. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of the Group Interview

A group interview (focus group) is an informal discussion carried out with a selected group of people using one or more interviewers, in order to address specific topics relevant to the situation at hand. Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members.

1. Advantages of a group interview:

- a. Time – Because more than one person is being interviewed, more information may be gathered using the same amount of time devoted to an individual interview.
- b. Determine commonality of perception – If numerous people share the same perception, this may help validate the perception. At the same time, commonly-held perceptions may be the product of organizational folklore, and not possess any basis in fact (i.e., group think).
- c. Sharing of information – The group interaction will often provide elaborated responses and encourage the sharing of ideas, including proposed solutions. One comment may serve as a lead-in to other comments or information critical to the assessment.
- d. Formal communication check – The group interview can provide a check on the information channels and patterns in a unit, by revealing how well or poorly information gets passed.

2. Disadvantages of Group interviews may include
 - a. Trust – If there is no trust between the group and the interviewer, among the group members themselves, or within the organization, the interview will not likely produce valuable information.
 - b. Expectations – Some members of the group may see the interview as an opportunity to expose others for policy violations. Such conversations are categorically off limits, and any such comments require the facilitator to stop the interview, remove the individual, and contact leadership about the allegations.
 - c. Threat – A senior member may perceive a group interview as a threat to his/her position or program.
 - d. Limited interviewer skills – The success of a group interviewer depends on the interviewer's skills in handling group situations, behaviors, and dynamics. The interview team must maintain respect/rapport and engage in effective listening, while accurately capturing the predominant perceptions and concerns expressed by the group

D. Recall Logistical Considerations of Conducting an Interview

The setting provides the atmosphere and sets the tone to facilitate participants' comfort and willingness to disclose information. The following factors should be considered:

1. Room size
2. Room condition
3. Room setup/seating arrangement – Pick a room where you have a reasonable expectation of privacy and a lack of interruptions.
4. Group interview seating arrangement – Seating arrangements are dictated by the number of participants and room size. It is all about being flexible.
5. Individual interview seating arrangement – Dictated by the interview location.
6. Location – The setting is more than just the physical room. It should provide for a reasonably intimate and comfortable environment. The interview should run without interruptions. Arrangements should be made so phones or people not participating do not interrupt the interview.

E. Recall How to Determine the Number of Interviews

1. How many *group* interviews need to be conducted?

The exact number of group interviews that are needed to adequately address the key issues within the command may be difficult to determine. However, that determination is made based upon the need to collect more data to help clarify issues or concerns.

2. How many *individual* interviews need to be conducted?

The number of personal interviews depends on the size of the command. With very large commands, it becomes progressively difficult to conduct a large number of interviews.

F. Recall Determining the Sample Element

1. Developing a sample

This helps ensure the results are valid, which enhances the assessment's value to leadership.

- a. **Step 1** – Determine interview type and purpose.

- b. **Step 2** – Conduct random sampling.

Ideally, a randomly selected sampling provides a representative sample of the unit's population. However, in small units, there may be a very limited number of members representing a specific group, and a random sampling may fail to adequately include individuals in that demographic group. When this is the case, it may be necessary to consciously select members of these groups, to ensure their input is secured.

- c. **Step 3** – Confirm sampled group is demographically representative; adjust as needed.

2. Determine number of interview participants

There should be an adequate number of interviews to properly reflect the range of participants who need to be interviewed, based on survey findings, in order to characterize the issues.

- a. Group interview

The optimum number for a group is 8–15. The group needs to be large enough so that individuals are less likely to monopolize the session. At the same time, the group needs to be small enough so that everyone has the opportunity to discuss issues they feel are important, within the established session time limit.

b. Individual interview

An individual interview involves a single interviewee.

3. Determining demographics

The EOA needs to randomly select candidates, so that a properly represented group (i.e., with adequate numbers of minorities, women, junior enlisted, and etc.) is created.

G. Recall the Types of Interview Questions

Questions play a major role in facilitating. Questions invite participation and get people to think about issues from different perspectives. The skill of questioning techniques is not as simple as it seems. The interview should allow for the development of questions tailored for specific needs.

There are several different types of questions.

1. Direct questions

Ask explicitly for a reply on a specified topic. Use the who, what, when, where, why strategy. This is more likely to be directed at a specific individual.

2. Open-ended questions

They elicit a more complete response and more effective participation. It requires more than a “yes” or “no” answer. The majority of your lead-off questions should be open-ended questions to stimulate as many responses as possible.

3. Narrow questions

The interviewer selects the subject matter to discuss.

4. Paraphrased questions

The interviewer repeats the other person’s last response in his/her own words and then follows with a question seeking additional, related information.

5. Leading questions

These are statements followed by a suggestion of what the answer should be.

6. Yes/No questions

Yes/no questions are similar to leading questions. They look for a specific answer/response to a particular area of interest.

7. Loaded questions

A loaded question encourages a specific response taking the respondent in a direction the facilitator wants to go.

8. Closed questions

They require a direct answer and can be used at the end of the interview too. Usually begins with “is, can, will, could, should, did, does, do, and etc.

9. Polling questions

An uninvolved focus group member (e.g., participant that is quiet or displaying body language that signals a lack of interest or an unwillingness to participate) is a challenge. To encourage quiet or withdrawn group members, it is helpful to use a polling technique in order to elicit each participant’s feelings about a particular issue. Avoid serial questioning (e.g., asking each participant to comment in the same order on every issue).

H. Recognize Interview Error and Bias

In personal interviews there are many ways in which errors can be made by both the respondent and the interviewer, and this can lead to 'bias' in the results. The objective of the interviewer should be to minimize the likelihood of such bias arising.

1. Interviewee induced bias

a. Faulty memory

Some respondents may answer a question incorrectly simply because they have a poor memory.

b. Exaggeration and dishonesty

There can be a tendency on the part of some respondents to exaggerate claims about their conditions and problems if they think it will further their cause and lead to improvement in their well-being.

c. Courtesy bias

In interview situations it is quite possible that one will come across the problem of courtesy bias, (i.e., the tendency for respondents to give answers that they think the interviewer wants to hear, rather than what they really feel). The respondents may not

wish to be impolite or to offend the interviewer, and may therefore endeavor to give polite answers.

It is also possible for the interviewer him or herself to introduce bias into an interview, and this must be avoided at all costs.

2. Interviewer induced Bias

a. Desire to help the respondent

The interviewer may become too sympathetic to the problems and conditions of the respondent, and this can affect the conduct of, and results obtained from, the interview.

b. Reactions to responses

1) When respondents give answers, the interviewer must be careful not to react.

2) There are many potential opportunities for bias to creep into the results of group discussions.

3. Specific group potential biases

a. Some participants may feel they cannot give their true opinions due to the psychological pressure on them arising from their concern as to what other members of the group may think. Some may feel tempted to give opinions that they feel will be respected by the group.

b. The presence of one or two 'dominant' participants may repress the opinions of others. Some may not feel confident about expressing an opinion.

I. Recall the Purpose of Using Observations

Observation is the act of recognizing and noting a fact or occurrence often involving measurement with instruments (Webster, p. 802).

Purpose of observation in organizational assessment:

1. A means to observe a unit during its usual daily activities in real time.
2. Observation can be directed at hypotheses testing (e.g., to determine if specific behaviors occur in the workplace), hypothesis formulation (e.g., to identify why certain sentiments were expressed in the survey), or evaluating unit climate (e.g., whether the workplace environment is cooperative, competitive, hostile, etc.). Observations can be adapted to realize any of these ends by making a different set of choices concerning recording methods.

J. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Observations

1. Advantages of using observation as a data collection method
 - a. Provides data about behavior itself, rather than reports of behavior. Observation data has relatively high face validity. While people in the organization may doubt the validity of questionnaire responses and may attempt to deny the validity of interview data by arguing that people did not answer truthfully, well-documented observational data can accurately identify workplace behaviors that indicate interpersonal dynamics and practices that can impact morale, productivity, and retention.
 - b. It is a real-time data collecting device rather than a retrospective collection device. Self-reports mostly describe behavior that has occurred in the past. Because people tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later, their reports of those events can become distorted. Observation deals with behavior that is occurring now. People tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later.
 - c. It's a flexible method. In all but the most structured observation schemes, the observer can modify what he or she is observing, as the situation requires. While structure is helpful for producing measurable data, it introduces the danger of selective observation. The respondent enjoys behavioral flexibility, but you really don't. In observation, you can change your collection methods if the dynamics of the arena change. Observation, therefore, enables one to discover existing patterns of behavior previously unknown to the people in the organization.
 - d. It removes the temptation for the respondent to provide biased answers. It does not depend on the willingness of the respondent to honestly complete the questionnaire or contribute during an interview.
 - e. It reduces selective learning. The observer is able to make an objective analysis of the behaviors occurring in the organization that was not previously known by leadership.
2. Disadvantages of using observation
 - a. Interpretation/coding are required to use data. As observations move away from the more structured formats, interpretations and coding must be used in order to compile the data. This process is time-consuming and requires some skill. If you hire an expert or outside consultant, it can become expensive. Thus, as with interviews, coding and interpretation can be expensive, requires time, and can be a source of bias.
 - b. Observer bias – Less structured observation also has a tremendous potential for observer bias. Observers must be adequately trained so that different observers will see the same things when viewing an event. There are several techniques that can be used to avoid observer bias. One of the less formal ways is by making several observations of a particular group activity over a period of time and seeing if the inferences about that

activity are the same across different periods of time. This will provide a little insight into what is being written and what is being assumed, thereby exposing observer bias.

- c. Expense – When all these factors are added up (e.g., training, sampling, coding, and etc.), effective observation becomes a potentially expensive proposition. However, many times there is simply no substitute for having a trained observer on the scene.
- d. Lack of privacy – This disadvantage primarily affects those individuals being observed.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recall the purpose of an interview.
- B. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the individual interview.
- C. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the group interview.
- D. Recall logistical considerations of conducting an interview.
- E. Recall how to determine the number of interviews.
- F. Recall determining the sample element.
- G. Recall the types of interview questions.
- H. Recognize interview error and bias.
- I. Recall the purpose of using observations.
- J. Recall advantages and disadvantages of using observations.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250-4

ASSESSMENT TO SOLUTIONS



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in finalizing an "Organizational Assessment" by introducing recommendations and Assessment to Solutions. Once a DEOCS and/or organizational assessment has been conducted, EOAs are often tasked to out-brief the assessment data to that command. EOAs frequently include recommendations, solutions, and action planning as part of their briefing (depending on the type of assessment and the results). The lesson will provide the student selected recommendations within the DEOCS report and introduce them to the DEOMI.org "Assessment to Solutions" Web page.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

DEOMI Research Directorate. (2015). *Assessment to Solutions*. Retrieved from <http://www.deomi.org/DRN/AssessToSolutions/index.html>

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOAC Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, handouts, and a study guide, recognize the DEOCS report recommendations and how to leverage assessment to solutions by obtaining a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify recommendations within the DEOCS report.	K	PE
B. Recall key aspects of the DEOMI.org “Assessment to Solutions” Web page.	K	PE
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ASSESSMENT TO SOLUTIONS**A. Identify Recommendations**

If you remember back to the beginning of the OA lesson, you were informed that an organizational assessment is used to:

1. Organizational Assessment

Determining the “health” and functioning effectiveness of an organization by examining such factors as morale, teamwork, and communication. This is accomplished through some or all of the following: group and/or individual interviews, observations, surveys, or questionnaires, and reviews of records and reports. (DoDD 1350.2, August 18, 1995)

- a. A complete organizational assessment usually consists of a comprehensive organizational review using all or a combination of the four distinct assessment methods.
- b. EOAs will typically be required to provide an out-brief of the information and in that brief provide recommendations and/or an action plan.

2. DEOCS SAPR Recommendations

Recommendations in the DEOCS report are located in Section IV (SAPR) and in Section VIII (Recommendations).

The SAPR area has recommendations strategically placed after each sub-factor area that speaks to that specific factor and in some instances display additional resources to assist you.

- a. Perceptions of Safety (p. 24)
- b. Chain of Command Support (p. 27)
- c. Publicity of SAPR (p. 31)
- d. Unit Reporting Climate (p. 36)
- e. Perceived Barriers (p. 41)
- f. Unit Prevention (p. 46)
- g. Restricted Reporting (p. 49)

3. DEOCS Recommendations

The Recommendation Section within the DEOCS is located in section VIII (p. 79.) This section will provide you with generic recommendation that apply to most organizations that are conducting an assessment. The section addresses two main areas:

“Above Average/Average” and “Below Average”

- a. Average scores are displayed in the Unit Summary (SAPR, OE, and EO) and in the Subgroup Comparison area (SAPR, OE, and EO). These scores are displayed with a green, blue, red color scheme.
- b. Above Average/Average scores represent a positive or organizational strength. This means that the organization typically wants to reinforce-those practices and programs currently in place or improve upon them.
 - 1) Reinforce policy or practice.
 - 2) Continue open communication to ensure all members understand their role and responsibilities.
 - 3) Share results with unit members.
 - 4) Utilize training aids as needed.
- c. Below Average scores represent a possible organizational concern. Organizations generally want to attempt to improve the views or perceptions regarding that factor.
 - 1) Review comments and data to determine concern areas.
 - 2) Review comments to look for possible corrective actions.
 - 3) Conduct focus groups or interviews can help determine the source and extent of specific perceptions.
 - 4) Contact referral agencies as needed to assist

B. Assessment to Solutions

1. Assessment to Solutions

- a. Assessment to Solution is designed to support leaders and equal opportunity professionals by providing tools and products designed to address the mission-impacting issues that were identified during the climate assessment process.

- b. Assessment to Solutions has products and training material to help organizations overcome negative perceptions; these can also aid in the development of an action plan.
- c. The Assessment to Solutions area is separated into the main assessment areas of the DEOCS, each area is further separated by factors and a host of products are provided to assist in overcoming negative perceptions at an organization.
- d. The site separates DEOCS topic areas (OE, EO, and SAPR) and allows you to select each factor under that area. Once you select a factor, it provides a factor description, additional information, and various products that will assist your organization in developing effective solutions.
- e. The final area provides “Operational Support.” The DEOCS Support team delivers a range of support services, and can provide consultation and analytical services to assist commanders, directors, and survey administrators through all phases of the command climate assessment process.
 - 1) Consultation Services
 - 2) Analytical/Research Services
 - 3) Senior Consultation

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify recommendations within the DEOCS report.
- B. Recall key aspects of the DEOMI.org “Assessment to Solutions” Web page.

END OF LESSON

CLASS 15-3
EQUAL OPPORTUNITY ADVISOR COURSE
STUDENT STUDY GUIDE



Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute
Patrick AFB, FL
August 2015

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This study guide will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor. The content is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this study guide should not be taken out of context.

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How to Use This Student Guide

This guide is to be used during classroom instruction and as a study tool to prepare for test sessions. It contains instructional objectives and materials for each of the topical areas.

Each lesson provides a lesson emphasis, instructional objectives, and reference materials that will guide your study. The guides are organized to generally follow the lesson/course outline. However, the instructor may on occasion vary the order of the presentation during the lesson or present the material not included in the guide.

Each student, therefore, should take thorough notes of the lecture content throughout the course, but not rely solely upon graphic reproductions for the course content.

Effective Habits for Studying

Try to develop and appreciate the following habits:

1. Take responsibility for yourself.
2. Responsibility is recognition that in order to succeed you can make decisions about your priorities, your time, and your resources.
3. Center yourself around your values and principles.
4. Do not let friends and acquaintances dictate what you consider important.
5. Put first things first.
6. Follow up on the priorities you have set for yourself, and do not let others or other interests, distract you from your goals.
7. Discover your key productivity periods and places.
8. Choose the morning, afternoon, evening, and study spaces where you can be the most focused and productive. Prioritize these for your most difficult study challenges.
9. Consider yourself in a win-win situation—you win by doing your best and contributing your best to a class, whether for yourself, your fellow students, and even for your teachers and instructors. If you are content with your performance, a grade becomes an external check on your performance, which may not coincide with your internally arrived at benefits.
10. First, understand others and then attempt to be understood.
11. When you have an issue with an instructor (e.g. a questionable grade, an assignment deadline extension), put yourself in the instructor's place. Now ask yourself how you can best make your argument given his/her situation.
12. Look for better solutions to problems. For example, if you do not understand the course material, do not just reread the material, try something else! Consult with your trainer, a tutor, an academic advisor, a classmate, or a study group.
13. Look to continually challenge yourself.

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DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1000

GROUP DEVELOPMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an equal opportunity advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

It is important for an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA) to apply appropriate interpersonal skills during interactions with individuals and groups. Understanding group dynamics and the development of groups is critical to ensuring that interpersonal relationships promote mission readiness. The lesson will start with a definition of 'Group' then move to the 'types of groups.' Using Bruce Tuckman's group development model, students will examine the developmental stages of group and behavior functions, which emerge during small group interaction. Next, the lesson will look at group norms and 'group role' categories (task, maintenance, individual roles), as well as their impact on group development. Students will have the opportunity to apply group development theory during a series of related small group exercises and over the duration of the course..

Required Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation—Group Development
2. Activity Materials

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, study guide, and experiential learning activities comprehend how the group development process can impact mission effectiveness by scoring no less than 70% on the criterion reference test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A Define group.	K	CRT
B Describe group types.	K	CRT
C Describe Bruce Tuckman’s group development model.	C	CRT
D Identify the differences between formal and informal rules (norms).	K	CRT
E Describe how personal motivation impacts the group’s dynamics.	C	CRT
F Recognize ‘group role’ categories (task, maintenance, and individual).	C	CRT
G Identify how small groups operate.	K	CRT
H Describe behaviors associated with group success.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

GROUP DEVELOPMENT

A. Definitions

1. Group

Shaw (1981) defined group as “persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other” (p. 4).

2. Small Group

A group small enough that each member is aware of and able to recall other group members (Brilhart & Galanes, 2001, p. 8). Members can perceive, at least peripherally, all other members in the group at one time and are aware of who is in the group. Group members have an *interdependent goal* that all members succeed or fail together as they work towards goal attainment.

B. Group Types

1. Formal Groups – In a formal group, someone has identified a task that needs to be done, which requires some kind of organizational system made up of various roles for which individuals are recruited (Shaw, 1981). The task is what matters and everything else may change.
2. Informal Groups – Informal groups work the other way around. A group of individuals meet; they form a group and informally allocate roles among themselves depending on individual preferences, the collection of roles make a system possible and they may undertake a task together (Shaw, 1981).
3. Commonalities:
 - a. Interacting individuals
 - b. Taking on a role (more or less defined)
 - c. Acting within an organizational system of varying degree
 - d. Existence of tasks (i.e., completion required or not)

C. Bruce Tuckman’s Group Development Model

1. Principles of Tuckman’s group development theory

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) list three principles that provide realistic expectations of group behavior.

- a. Sequential
 - 1) Specific stated order
 - 2) Occurs naturally
 - 3) Timing (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)
- b. Developmental
 - 1) Issues/concerns – must be resolved to progress
 - 2) Conflict/apathy – becomes the group dominant behavior; group disintegration occurs.
 - 3) Growth occurs – when conflict is successfully managed. (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)
- c. Thematic (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977)

2. Dominant Themes

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) lists two dominate themes in group development:

- a. Task dimension: content
- b. Relationship dimension: maintenance

3. Stages

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) described group stages as

- a. Forming– Initially polite and superficial as each person seeks out similarities or common needs. While introductions are made, each individual is testing the amount of compatibility of his or her reasons for being there, with the stated reasons of other members. After a base level of expectations and similarities is established, individuals begin to challenge differences in a bid to regain their individuality, power, and influence. (p. 419–27)
- b. Storming – Probably the most difficult stage for the group because it is during this stage that group members realize the task is different and more difficult than they imagined. They become impatient about the lack of progress, but are still too inexperienced to know much about decision making so they argue about the actions the group should take. Members try to rely solely on their personal and professional experience, resisting any need for collaborating with other group members.

- c. Norming – Members reconcile competing loyalties and responsibilities. They accept the group, group ground rules (or norms), their roles in the group, and the individuality of other group members. Emotional conflict is also reduced as previously competitive relationships become more cooperative. By the time the group gets to the performing stage, they have settled their relationships and expectations.
- d. Performing – They begin diagnosing and solving problems, and choosing and implementing changes. At this stage, group members have discovered and accepted each other's strengths and weaknesses, and learned what their roles are.
- e. Adjourning – The final stage is the termination or disengagement stage where groups experience anxiety about separation and termination.

D. Formal and Informal Rules

- 1. To help create an environment where group members can fully participate in group discussions, members must develop a set of rules or operating procedures to coordinate their individual behaviors into a system.
 - a. Formal, written rules, Robert's Rules of Order Newly Revised (2011).
 - b. Informal rules do not specify absolutes, but ranges; self-imposed norms:
 - 1) General – Direct behavior of group as a whole.
 - a) Members should sit in a different position in each session.
 - b) Members should address each other by rank/title and last name.
 - c) Members should arrive on time.
 - d) No one may sit in the facilitator's chair.
 - 2) Role-specific: individual members with particular roles. (Robert, Honemann, & Balch, 2011)
 - a) The facilitator should provide students with all exercise material.
 - b) The facilitator should give students a 10-minute break every 50 minutes.
 - c) The facilitator should provide students with timely and objective feedback.
 - d) The facilitator should release the group on time.

2. When using formal and informal rules, group members should
 - a. Engage: Actively engage and participate in the group's discussions.
 - b. Observe
 - c. Evaluate
 - d. Adapt to the group's processes and needs
3. As a member of a group, you will notice a full range of human behaviors
 - a. Some members of your group may listen politely while others will interrupt and insult one another.
 - b. Your group will need to develop a set of rules and operating procedures to coordinate individual behaviors into a system. (McClelland, 1967)
4. Norms have a tremendous impact on:
 - a. Task processes
 - b. Outcomes (Robert, Honemann, & Balch, 2011)

E. Motivation Impacts Group Dynamics

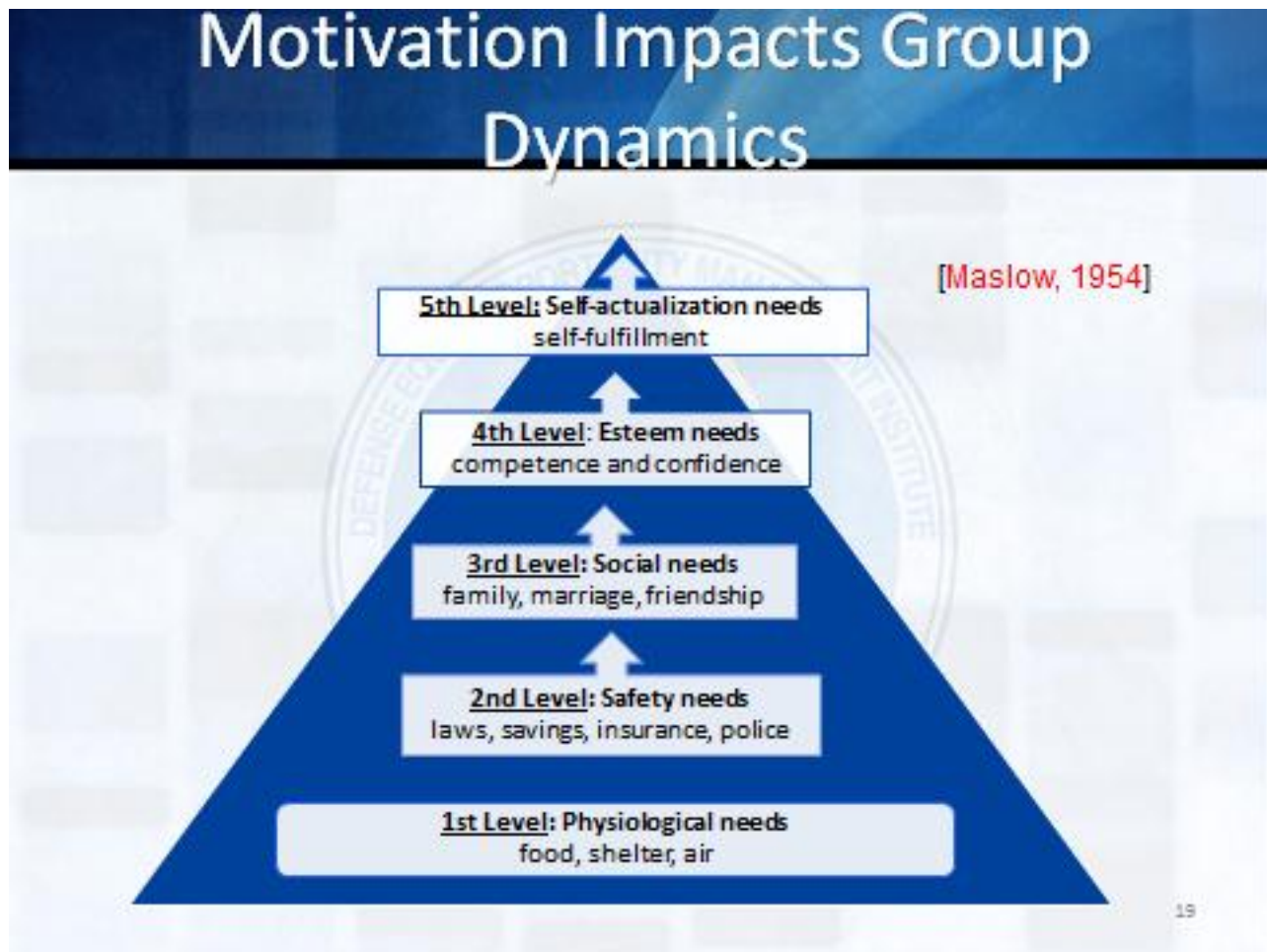
1. Motivation theory:

A general agreement that *motivation* is a concept that describes forces acting from within us that causes us to turn ideas into directed action (McClelland, 1967).

2. Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs:

- a. Level 1: Physiological (survival needs) – Characteristics: food, shelter, rest, air, etc.
- b. Level 2: Safety (security needs) – Characteristics: locks; savings accounts, retirement plans, and insurances; regulations, laws, law enforcement, and fire departments, etc.
- c. Level 3: Social (sense of belonging) – Characteristics: membership in organizations, fraternities, or clubs; friendships; marriage and family
- d. Level 4: Esteem (recognition or status) – Characteristics: desire for confidence, competence, mastery, adequacy, and achievement

- e. Level 5: Self-Actualization (self-fulfillment) – Characteristics: integrity, responsibility, magnanimity, authenticity, focus on needs of others, completeness, and fulfillment



3. McClelland's (1967) needs theory

McClelland theorized that people are motivated by three basic needs. People possess all three needs in varying degrees.

4. Elements of McClelland's (1967) needs theory

a. Achievement

- 1) Welcomes challenges
- 2) Wants ensured success
- 3) Has conservative goals
- 4) Plans ahead

- 5) Takes personal responsibility
- 6) Needs hard data reinforcement
- b. Affiliation
 - 1) Establishes/maintains relationships
 - 2) Approval needs may affect decision making/implementation
 - 3) Strives to maintain harmony
- c. Power
 - 1) Enjoys conflict
 - 2) Strong speaking skills
 - 3) Autocratic decision making
 - 4) Situations are win/lose
 - 5) Can make people a means to an end/damage relationships
5. Determining an individual's motivation
 - a. Don't make assumptions from the behavior
 - b. Study the person/system in light of motivation theory
 - c. The best way to determine a person's motivation is to ask

F. Group Role Categories

According to Benne and Sheats (1948) groups operate at the following three levels:

1. Task

Groups exist primarily to carry out a task and are so focused on carrying out the task that they are frequently unaware of the other levels of need operating at the same time—the group maintenance level and individual needs level.

2. Maintenance

Relationships in a group are maintained at a level where members feel safe and, thus, contribute freely and creatively to the task. The group consists of a constantly changing network of interactions and relationships. If the group is to operate effectively as a group, they must have a growing awareness of themselves as a group and develop a need for maintaining the relationships within the team.

3. Individual Functions

Individual members bring their own set of personal needs to the group which infringe upon the group and its task. When individual needs are not met, members will behave in such a way to attempt to get their needs met. Failure to meet these needs can lead to nonparticipation, withdrawal, blocking, and other types of behaviors which keep the group from accomplishing its task.

G. Understanding How Small Groups Operate

1. Principles of systems theory (Senge,1990)

- a. Interdependence – the parts of the system do not operate in isolation, but continually affect each other and the system as a whole.
- b. Non-summativity – the whole system is not the sum of its parts, but may be greater or less with either positive or negative synergy operating.
- c. Interdependence with its environment – group members must interact with other individuals within the organizational structure.

2. Small Group Systems

Watt and Dillon (2005) maintained that small groups are systems with input, throughput, and output.

a. Input Variables:

- 1) Members share basic values and beliefs about the group's purpose and each other
- 2) Divergence of backgrounds and perspectives with a balance between diversity and similarity
- 3) Purpose and goals are understood and accepted by all
- 4) Resources needed to achieve group goals are available
- 5) Relationships to other groups and organizations are clear

- 6) Sufficient time to do work
 - 7) Meeting place that provides for members' needs and is free of distractions
 - b. Throughput Variables:
 - 1) Members are dependable and reliable
 - 2) Roles are stable, mutually understood, and accepted
 - 3) Members have relatively equal status, so they can exert influence based on knowledge, ideas, and skills
 - 4) Norms and values are understood and adhered to, or discussed openly, and changed if counterproductive
 - 5) Most remarks are directed to the group as a whole, not to individual members (no sidebar discussions)
 - 6) Members are skilled and considerate when expressing themselves
 - 7) Everyone understands and shares efficient procedures that lead to goal attainment
 - c. Output Variables:
 - 1) Members perceive that the group purpose has been achieved
 - 2) Members are satisfied with their roles, the group process, and their relationship with other members.
 - 3) High cohesiveness
 - 4) Consensus on the role and leadership structure
 - 5) The parent organization is strengthened by the group's work
 - d. Environmental Factors:
 - 1) The organization publicly recognizes and rewards the accomplishments of the group
 - 2) Supplies resources and expertise the group needs
 - 3) Provides supportive atmosphere
3. Aspects of group development:

- a. As a member of a small group, you must be able to work out personal differences, find strengths on which to build, balance commitments to the project or task against the demands of your everyday job. Otherwise, you will end up wasting time on struggles for control within the group and in endless discussions that lead to nowhere.
- b. As your group matures, you will gradually learn to cope with the emotional and group pressures you will face.
- c. As a result, your group will go through fairly predictable stages, as in Tuckman's model. The duration and intensity of these stages varies from group to group, but understanding how groups mature and grow through the various stages will keep you from overreacting to normal problems and setting unrealistic expectations. This course will explore each of the stages to provide you with a better understanding of what to expect in your group and you will be able to explain the stages of group development.

H. Behaviors Associated with Group Success

1. Counter negative group dynamics.

Scholtes (1988) contended the following would counter negative group dynamics:

- a. Clarity in group goals
- b. Clearly defined roles
- c. Clear communication
- d. Beneficial group behaviors
- e. Well-defined decision procedures
- f. Balanced participation
- g. Established ground rules
- h. Awareness of the group process. (p. 1–10)

2. Understand its purpose and goals.

The group

- a. agrees on its mission, vision, and goals
- b. sees the mission as workable, and if necessary, narrows the mission to a workable size

- c. has a clear vision and works steadily toward its goals
- d. is clear about the larger project goals; and
- e. understands the purpose of the individual steps of the project, meetings, discussions, and decisions.

3. Roles and Responsibilities

The group's roles and responsibilities

- a. has formally designated roles for each member
- b. understands which roles belong to an individual, which roles are shared, and how shared roles are switched (e.g., using an agreed-upon procedure to rotate roles); and
- c. uses each member's talents, and involves everyone in the group activities so no one feels left out.

4. Communication

In communication group members should

- a. speak clearly and directly (e.g., avoid using questions to disguise statements);
- b. be succinct—avoid long stories and examples;
- c. avoid interrupting others and talking when others are speaking; and
- d. share different types of information (e.g., sensing, thinking, feeling statements)

5. Beneficial Group Behaviors

Group members should

- a. initiate discussions, seeking information and opinions;
- b. suggest actions to reach a goal;
- c. clarify or elaborate on ideas suggested during discussions;
- d. summarize ideas and test for consensus; and
- e. keep the discussion from digressing.

6. Decision-making Procedures

Group should incorporate the following in their decision-making procedures:

- a. discuss how decisions will be made (e.g., when it's time to take a poll, when to decide by consensus);
- b. explore important issues by polling (e.g., asking members to vote verbally or in writing);
- c. decide important issues by consensus;
- d. test for consensus; and
- e. use data as the basis for decisions when possible.

7. Balanced Participation

Groups should

- a. have reasonably balanced participation with all members contributing to most of the discussions; and
- b. build on members' natural styles of participation.

8. Ground Rules

Group members should

- a. have open discussions regarding ground rules and decide as a group what they will be; and
- b. openly state norms (e.g., everyone deciding how to decide on an issue).

9. Awareness of Group Process

Group members should

- a. be sensitive to nonverbal communication (e.g., silence may indicate disagreement)
- b. see, hear, and feel the group dynamics
- c. comment and intervene to correct a group process problem
- d. contribute equally to group process issues

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define group.
- B. Describe group types.
- C. Describe Bruce Tuckman's group development model.
- D. Identify differences between formal and informal rules (norms).
- E. Describe how personal motivation impacts the group's dynamics.
- F. Recognize 'group role' categories (task, maintenance, and individual).
- G. Identify how small groups operate.
- H. Describe behaviors associated with group success.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1050
SOCIALIZATION



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

In this lesson, students are provided a description of the socialization process and its impact on individuals in the equal opportunity career field as well as in organizations. At the end of this lesson, students will be able to describe the socialization process, recall the fundamental attributes associated with self-concept, recognize Ego Defense Mechanisms, identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior, and discuss personal aspects of self-identity (self-concept) during activities in the small-group room.

Recommended Reading

Babad, E., Birnbaum, M., & Benne, K. (1983). *The social self: Group influences on personal identity* (pp. 22–27, 37–49, and 229–235). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 1050 Socialization
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers
3. Video: *Massey Triad*

Terminal Learning Objective:

Given examples, and a study guide, comprehend how socialization issues impact the military environment with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the socialization process.	K	CRT
B. Recall the fundamental elements associated with the perception of self (Self-Concept).	K	CRT
C. Recognize ego defense mechanisms.	K	CRT
D. Identify significant emotional events (SEE).	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

SOCIALIZATION

A. Socialization Process

The socialization process is an all-encompassing educational process from which values, goals, beliefs, attitudes, and sex (gender)-roles are acquired. Socialization is nothing more than the educational process by which we learn everything. It's an elaborate process by which individuals become distinctive and actively functioning members of society. (Massey, 1979)

1. Definition of Socialization

- a. According to Charon (1987), socialization is defined as:

The process, beginning at birth, by which an individual acquires values, attitudes, goals, beliefs, perceptions, and gender roles; learns the expectations of society; acquires sensitivity to the pressures and obligations of group life; and learns to interact with others.

- b. The socialization process is the primary method of learning culture. Our values, attitudes, perceptions, stereotypes, and behaviors are continuously developed, refined, and reinforced through the socialization process.
- c. Socialization is the process by which people develop their attitudes, establish norms, and define their roles, which are necessary to function in society, specific groups, or organizations.

2. Sources that Influence our Socialization

- a. Major influences that impact our socialization include (Anderson & Taylor, 2006):

- 1) Family – The most influential agent of socialization is family. This includes parents, grandparents, siblings, and other family members. They influence our etiquette, language, religion, how we live our lives, and how we interact with others. Initially, we adopt views held by our families. As we grow, other sources and settings become influences.

- a) Includes parents, grandparents, brothers, sisters, and other family members who influence eating habits, language, and generally how we live our lives and relate to others within the culture.
- b) Extended family – In some cultures within the United States, the extended family has more influence than the nuclear family.
- c) Where the family lives (i.e., in a house, boat, car, or other location) influences how members are defined. (p. 86)

- 2) Media (television, radio, newspapers, books, advertisements, music, and the Internet) reflects society's values and plays a large role in the socialization process.
 - a) Computers are also a major influence along with technology. We live in an information age.
 - b) Online social networking
- 3) The educational system (primary and secondary schools) influences individuals' socialization development. Teachers, administrators, teaching texts, and teaching techniques impose values on children and young adults.
- 4) Peers and friends influence social development. Examples include hair styles, clothes, definitions of acceptable behavior, and the introduction of values that differ from family values.
- 5) Community settings influence many of an individual's customs, mannerisms, dialects, and holidays.
 - a) Influencers – Customs, mannerism, dialects, holidays, ethnic migration, and industry.
 - b) Coded language, in certain areas, helps define separation of the population.
- 6) National settings influence attitude toward civil rights, work ethic, what is important, native language, and the national holidays we observe.

Note: Generational influences can be seen in all the sources that can influence our socialization. Examples include Traditionalists, 1922–43; Baby Boomer, 1943–60; Generation X, 1960–1980; and Generation Y (Why) or Millennial, 1980–present.

Generational traits develop during the formative growth years of that generation. For example, someone born in 1954 would be influenced by an early 1960s childhood and a 1970s young adulthood.

Within each generation family, media, education, friends, etc., influences affect people's values and attitudes throughout their lives. Largely, a generation is formed by the environment experienced in the early to middle years of its members.

B. Self-Concept

1. Fundamental attributes associated with the perception of self (i.e., self-concept)

The concept of self is an eclectic conception with a myriad of fundamental attributes, which are too many to mention. However, there are certain attributes (aspects) that are common with our self-image, such as the perceptions of how we see ourselves, how others see us, and

how we wish to be seen, as well as the associated values and attitudes accompanying our self-identity.

a. Self-Concept Defined:

- 1) Self-concept is defined as the perceptions of ourselves that allow us to shape and reshape reality from our own point of view (Macionis, 2000, p. 68; Babad, Birnbaum, & Benne, 1983, pp. 563–568).
- 2) According to Reeve, 2009, the concept of self is an ever-changing, progressive activity; developed through our social interactions with others, enabling us to conceptualize or categorize our behavior—both external conduct and internal states.
 - a) Explains reality from our point of view
 - b) Allows us to conceptualize our behavior
 - c) Both the product and producer of perception

b. Fundamental Elements

Researchers such as Babad, Birnbaum, and Benne (1983); and Rosenberg (1979) identify three fundamental attributes associated with the concept of self, also known as the perception of self (The Three Parts of Self):

- 1) How we picture ourselves.
- 2) How others see us.
- 3) How we wish ourselves to be seen.

These fundamental attributes associated with “self-concept” are further clarified through the perception of self.

c. Perception of Self

Development of self-concept can be positive or negative, depending on how we think about ourselves.

As Babad, Birnbaum, and Benne identified the fundamental elements, Rosenberg, et. al. (2001) expanded the research and identified three elements that shape self-perception, as well as the underlying relationships:

- 1) How we picture ourselves

- a) Membership groups are groups to which we belong that are oftentimes unchangeable. They are acquired at birth and are usually retained through life. Common membership group traits include race, ethnicity, gender, and age.
 - b) Reference groups are groups to which we belong or aspire to belong that we use as a basis for judging the adequacy of our behavior. These include military experience, affiliation with organizations, educational background, geographic location, marital status, and parental status.
- 2) How others see us
- a) Membership groups (e.g., race, ethnicity, religion, gender, age, social class) determine stereotypes and views by which others define us. Membership groups are often unchangeable because they are facts of life acquired at birth. They determine how others perceive us, and these perceptions are beyond our control.
- 3) How we wish others to see us (possible gap)



- a) Negative and unwanted parts of self has been pushed away and can only be revealed through self-examination. It is possible a gap exists between how we wish to be seen and how we actually are.
 - b) The journey of awareness exposes undesirable parts of one's life, revealing many aspects of self that we may not have been aware of previously. This can be painful and uncomfortable to look at, such as when we see our stereotypes and prejudices.
2. Self-Identity /Image)

Self-identity plays a significant role in shaping our lives.

- a. The behaviors we project as part of our self-identity can be positive or negative based on how we think of ourselves, how we act, and how we relate to others. With a positive self-concept (self-image), we tend to be assertive, tolerant, open, and trusting (Macionis, 2000).

- b. Positive self-image enhances communication: Causes us to be more open to receiving feedback and more likely to provide feedback, be decisive and creative at work, and want to do a better job.
- c. Poor self-image (negative): Causes us to do poorly at things, communicate little (if at all), and may cause us to exaggerate, deny, or even close our minds to new ideas.

Self-Identity and self-image continues to change with social experiences. No matter how much events change us, we remain creative beings. We play a role in our own socialization and the attitude (behavior) we display, which is based upon our values and morals.

Considering our Self-Concept (Self-Identity and Self-Image) what are the differences between values, morals and ethics?

They all provide behavioral rules. An EOA needs to know the differences; especially, when trying to persuade individuals of inferior social behavior, which may be based upon their values, morals, and ethics.

3. Values

Definition: Values are the rules by which we make decisions about right and wrong, should and shouldn't, good and bad. They also tell us which are more or less important, which is useful when we have to trade off meeting one value over another (Straker, 2010).

Dictionary.com defines values as:

“Beliefs of a person or social group in which they have an emotional investment (either for or against something); ‘he/she has very conservative values.’”

a. Value Categories (Straker, 2010)

We obtain our values through our socialization and culture. These values identify objects, conditions, or characteristics society considers important or valuable.

- 1) Personal values – Developed early in life, they may be resistant to change. They may be derived from an individual's attitudes, beliefs, and actions.
- 2) Social values – Instilled early in life, these values put the rights of the wider groups of people first.
- 3) Political values – Beliefs about the best way to govern a country or organization.
- 4) Economic values – Focus on money-related issues.
- 5) Religious values – Spiritual in nature and include beliefs in how we should behave.

b. Value System

- 1) A value system is a set of values adopted by an individual or society that influences the behavior of the individual (Beck, 2003).
- 2) Socialization influences values and attitudes as it relates to daily life processes (cultural development).

c. Influence of Socialization on Values

- 1) Through observation, most of us learn through our social settings rather than depending entirely on instinct. Almost all aspects of human psychology and behavior are socially influenced, including languages, modes of dress, gender roles, etc. Our socialization process helps us avoid taboos, which are all agreed upon at a group level and form the basis of culture. All cultures vary, and each forms the basis for the attitudes, values, and behaviors of its members. These are reinforced by social institutions and collective behavior. Within each culture, other social influences affect the behavior of its members (Anderson & Taylor, 2006).
- 2) If we have been taught to value a certain principle or behavior in a particular way, we are expected to continue with those values and behaviors.
- 3) An attitude is an opinion that one has about someone or something. It can reflect a favorable, unfavorable, or neutral judgment. It may involve a comparison.



- a) Attitudes are established ways of responding to people and situations based on what we have learned (beliefs, values) and assumptions we hold.
 - b) Attitudes are manifested through outwardly displayed behavior. Body language is a result of mental attitude. No one can see an attitude (feeling); what is seen is the behavior.
- 4) According to Morris Massey, values form during three significant periods:

- a) Imprint period – from birth to 7 years
- b) Modeling period – from 7 to 13 years
- c) Socialization period – from 13 to 21 years

Note: Each generation has its own set of values and attitudes. For the first time in almost a century, there are four generations (Traditionalist, Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y or Millennial) with four different approaches to the world of work. The first step in utilizing these differences and minimizing conflicts is to understand the differences.

Responsibility of an EOA

In addition to understanding yourself, you must help others understand how their attitudes manifest in behaviors and how that can be counterproductive to mission accomplishment.

We each have our own set of values, morals, and ethics; we must respect one another even though our values might not be the same.

4. Morals

Dictionary.com defines “morals” as “motivation based on ideas of right and wrong.”

- a. Morals are “standards of conduct” and in some cases expectations of social behavior.
- b. Morals have a greater social element than values and are broadly accepted.
- c. Morals are far more about good and bad than other values.
- d. We generally judge others more strongly on morals than values.
- e. Laws are supposedly based on moral codes and the principles of social morals as obligations on a community.
- f. Morals or knowing the difference between right and wrong is something we are all taught from a very early age.
- g. Morality is typically based on a cultural idea of what is right or wrong. Usually we know in our hearts and mind if something is morally wrong or right.

Some examples of bad morals could be (Straker, 2010):

- a) Cheating on a test, lying or misleading someone intentionally.
- b) Stealing/taking items that are not yours or leaving a store knowing the cashier gave you too much change.

- c) Going against socially accepted ideas of what is right or wrong.

Some examples of good morals could be: (Straker, 2010)

- a) Telling the truth regardless of the consequences to yourself.
- b) Helping others in need, even if it requires to go above and beyond normal expectations.
- c) Turning in someone who has stolen, cheated, or otherwise hurt someone even if they are a friend or family member.

Morals and ethics go hand-in-hand in the workplace.

5. Ethics

Merriam-Webster defines “Ethics” as a code of morality: a system of moral principles governing the appropriate conduct for a person or group. They are rules of behavior based on ideas about what is morally good and bad.

Ethics are critical to good order and discipline in the military.

According to DoD Directive 5500.7 (2007) *Standards of Conduct* DoD employees shall adhere strictly to DoD policy of equal opportunity, regardless of race, color, religion, gender, age, national origin, or handicap, in accordance with applicable laws and regulations. Individual conduct, official programs, and daily activities within DoD shall be accomplished lawfully and ethically.

C. Ego Defense Mechanism

Ego defense mechanisms are natural and normal. These defense mechanisms help us deal with conflict and problems in life and will sometimes create barriers to the changes needed in our socialization (concerning inferior social behavior such as racism, sexism, etc.).

1. Definition of Ego Defense Mechanism

Coping behaviors that allow us to selectively interpret information when we are challenged on a value, attitude, or belief (Vaillant, 1992).

2. Function of Ego Defense Mechanisms

- a. When exposed to information that may challenge our self-concept and our value system, we feel inner turmoil.

- b. Our ego defense mechanisms keep us from using this information to change our perceptions (Vaillant, 1992). Instead, our values, attitudes, and beliefs stay the same.

3. Common Ego Defense Mechanisms

- a. Ego defense mechanisms serve a protective function, but they usually involve self-deception and reality distortion (Vaillant, 1992). Several ego defense mechanisms impact the self-concept:
 - 1) Denial – Protecting oneself from an unpleasant reality by refusing to recognize it.
 - 2) Rationalization – Taking a situation and turning it around to fit our need, thus not pushing ourselves to try harder. Permits us to give excuses for shortcomings and avoid self-condemnation, disappointment, or criticism by others.
 - 3) Projection – Placing blame for difficulties upon others rather than taking responsibility for one's own actions.
 - 4) Compensation – Making up for a feeling of inadequacy by seeking to excel in a different way.

- b. Barriers to Change

- 1) Attitudes can only be changed once we have overcome barriers to change.
- 2) Personal programming is not encountered unless we experience a significant emotional event (SEE) that makes us aware of our unconscious actions.
- 3) The only way an attitude or value can change is through personal choice.

D. Significant Emotional Events

Sometimes the best way to recognize inferior socialized behavior is through a significant emotional event. A significant emotional event and our responses to them shape who we are.

A significant emotional event (SEE) is a psychological trauma phenomenon conceived by Morris Massey where a highly-stressful event or set of events in a person's life permanently changes one's core values.

1. Significant Emotional Event (SEE)

- a. A SEE is a catalyst for changing behavior. It's a moment when everything falls into place and one is able to understand an entire pattern of behavior. It's emotionally charged. Sometimes this is quick, but other times we need time to reflect before changing our values and attitudes. (Massey, 2007)

b. *Morris Massey* cites examples of an SEE as:

- 1) Birth
- 2) Death
- 3) Divorce
- 4) Promotion
- 5) Terminal illness
- 6) Falling in or out of love
- 7) Life-saving event
- 8) Going to war

After experiencing a SEE, we may become re-socialized and changed because of a new learning (increased awareness).

c. Re-socialization

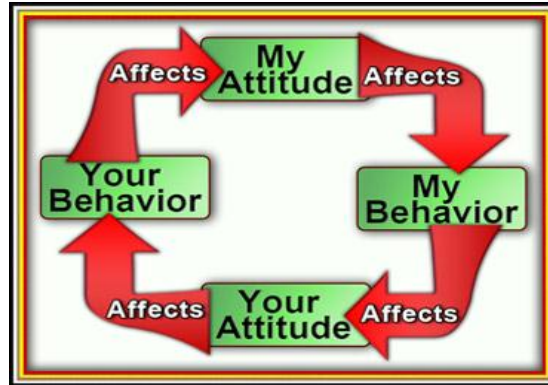
- 1) Re-socialization is the process in which existing social roles are radically altered or replaced. Roles, such as spouse, parent, widow, prison inmate, and employee, for example, all involve a kind of re-socialization.
- 2) Erving Goffman defined re-socialization as a process of tearing down and rebuilding an individual's role and socially constructed sense of self.
- 3) Re-socialization is related to socialization, in which a person learns the ways of his or her society, but the re-socialization process denotes the activity of relearning. The person needs to eliminate something that was previously learned in his life that is now causing dissonance or pain. Two conditions must be met in order to achieve re-socialization:
 - a) the person must feel that something is wrong, and
 - b) that it is possible for change to occur (Fein, 1990).

E. Strategies for Change

As noted thus far, our socialization defines who we are and is ever-changing. There may be aspects of our socialization that may not conform to societal norms (especially the duties of an EOA) and may require an adjustment in behavior.

1. Strategies for changing inappropriate socialized behavior start with recognizing the need for change. Being aware of our socialization will help us in deciding whether to accept or deny our current values, attitudes, and behavior.
2. Acknowledge inappropriate socialized behavior. Reflect on any learned prejudicial information about other people. Without this acknowledgment nothing can change. It is clear that if we can't talk about it, we surely can't change it.
3. Some specific strategies (Allport, 1979; Combs, 1971; Egan, 1977; & Gazda, 1973) may include:
 - a. Spend time in self-reflection.
 - 1) Perform an honest assessment of yourself.
 - 2) Become familiar with behaviors that might be considered defensive, dishonest, or closed-minded.
 - 3) Explore the attitudes that create these behaviors.
 - b. Become open to feedback.
 - 1) Talk to others about your recognized inferior socialized behavior. Another person or other people can help us with our changed behavior. Others can help us gain new information and hold us to our insights and our commitments.
 - 2) Use feedback to put things into perspective.
 - c. Make a commitment to change and make a commitment to a process of change.
 - 1) Accept new information.
 - 2) Listen empathetically to others.
 - d. Explore different perspectives, other than your own.
 - 1) Get information to disprove irrational thoughts, dysfunctional (inferior) behavior.
 - 2) Take the time to examine and challenge the thoughts that limit or devalue other people.

- 3) If you have a problem with someone, see if you can discover why it is a problem for you.
 - 4) Involve yourself in new situations.
 - 5) Learn how to advocate something that is not comfortable to your value system.
- e. Increase your exposure to or contact with those who belong to the group(s) toward which you have learned inappropriate social behavior, such as racism, sexism and other discriminatory practices.
 - f. Develop your communication skills (Listening and Feedback).
 - 1) Listen with intent to understand the point of view of others.
 - 2) Offer constructive and positive feedback.
4. Setting Goals for Change
- a. As an EOA, you will encounter situations resulting from conflicts in attitudes and values. By understanding how the socialization process impacts one's values and attitudes, you will have insight as to how these situations occur and how to reach a fair and equitable solution.
 - 1) Goal setting: Goals should be realistic. As you see your goals accomplished, you will be motivated to change.
 - 2) Become self-motivated (and help others to do the same).
 - 3) When you are motivated or persuaded to change behavior, you are more likely to eventually change your attitude. By contrast, when forced to change your behavior, your attitude is less likely to change.
 - b. **Final Note:** As an EOA, understand the cyclical relationship between attitude and behavior.



- 1) My attitude affects my behavior; my behavior affects your attitude.
- 2) Your attitude affects your behavior; your behavior affects my attitude, and so on.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the socialization process.
- B. Recall the fundamental elements associated with self-concept.
- C. Recognize ego defense mechanisms.
- D. Identify significant emotional events (SEE).
- E. Identify strategies for changing inferior socialized behavior.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1150

COMMUNICATION SKILLS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-federal government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to educate students on the effective use and development of communication skills. The lesson discusses both verbal and non-verbal modes of communication. It covers the five elements of the communication process, factors that impact communication, and information for effective communication. Additionally, students will be able to explain methods for improving their listening skills, including testing for understanding and identifying characteristics of effective listeners. Students will also examine the definition of feedback and discuss the guidelines for giving and receiving feedback. Students will be able to explain each pane of the Johari window model, how it changes, and why it changes. Completion of this lesson will enhance the students' communication skills for subsequent lessons and the small group environment, thus helping prepare them for their future roles as Equal Opportunity Advisors.

Recommended Reading

1. *Listening Effectively* by John A Kline
2. The Johari Window

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 1150 Communication Skills
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, study guide, and experiential learning activities, comprehend how the communication process can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define Communication	K	CRT
B. Identify the elements of the communication process	K	CRT
C. Describe the modes of communication and their respective elements	C	CRT
D. Describe the types of human communication	C	CRT
E. State barriers to communication	K	CRT
F. Identify the elements in the listening process	K	CRT
G. Identify benefits in effective listening	K	CRT
H. Identify the types of listening	K	CRT
I. Identify methods to become a better listener	K	CRT
J. Define the term feedback	K	CRT
K. State guidelines for giving and receiving feedback	K	CRT
L. Recall the 'Panes' of the Johari Window Model	K	CRT
M. Recognize behaviors/actions that caused the panes to move change size	C	CRT
N. Recognize the benefits of giving and receiving feedback	C	CRT

The Introduction and Summary should each take approximately 10% of the total formal lecture time.
 K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test
 SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation

Note: Breaks are subject to change and flow with classroom dynamics. For every instructional hour, ten (10) minutes is allocated as break time. (50 minutes of instruction, 10 minute break)

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Leveling	To develop skills in the giving/receiving feedback process	ISDE

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

A. Communication

Communication is the act or process of using words, sounds, signs, or behaviors to express or exchange information or to express your ideas, thoughts, and feelings to someone else.

B. Identify the elements of the communication process.

1. The communication process has five elements:
 - a. Communicators (sends and receives)
 - b. Messages (an object of communication)
 - c. Channels (Conduit for delivering messages)
 - d. Environment (physical location, personal experiences, and cultural background)
 - e. Feedback
2. Communication Roles

Communication is a two-way process. Each communicator has a role in this process. It is the responsibility of the communicator to provide a message that will be:

- a. Attended to: Relating the message to the receiving communicator's personal goals or providing a vivid or surprising message element that attracts attention.
- b. Understood: Adapting messages to the learning level of the receiving communicator, providing opportunities for feedback, and adding value to the message content ensures that the message will be easy comprehend.

C. Describe the modes of communication and their respective elements.

1. Verbal Communication is the words of your message.
 - a. Written communication
 - b. Oral communication
2. Non-Verbal Communication. It is important to study because where verbal and nonverbal message conflict, nonverbal messages are relied upon more. Nonverbal messages can have

different meanings for different people. Nonverbal messages cannot be avoided— even if we do nothing, we communicate.

Body language is one of the most powerful ways to communicate nonverbally.

- a. Touching is perhaps the most powerful nonverbal communication. Anger, interest, trust, tenderness, warmth, and a variety of other emotions can be communicated through touching.
- b. Eye contact and facial expressions can convey important emotional and social information.
- c. Smiling is a powerful cue that transmits happiness, friendliness, warmth, and liking. So, if you smile frequently you will be perceived as more likeable, friendly, warm, and approachable.
- d. Physical Space
 - 1) Intimate – Ranges out to about 18 inches. It is usually used with people who are emotionally the closest to us and then mostly in private situations, caressing, comforting, and protecting.
 - 2) Personal – Ranges from 18 inches at its closest point to 4 feet at its farthest. At this distance we can keep someone at arm's length. It is much less personable.
 - 3) Social – Ranges from 5 to 10 feet. The most neutral and comfortable zone to start a conversation between people who do not know each other well.
 - 4) Public – Ranges approximately 12 feet. This zone is reserved for public speaking or general speaking as in when talking to a large group.

D. Describe The Types of Human Communication

1. Intrapersonal communication is a conversation you have with yourself. The individual becomes his or her own sender and receiver, providing messages and feedback in an ongoing internal process. It can come in many forms such as:
 - a. Daydreaming
 - b. Dreaming in your sleep
 - c. Talking to oneself either internally or out loud
 - d. Reading aloud

- e. Repeating what one hears
2. Interpersonal communication is between you and at least one other person. The most common type of interpersonal communication is between two people. The communication can be:
 - a. Face-to-face
 - b. By telephone
 - c. Through written correspondence (e.g., emails or letters)
 - d. Interpersonal communication can also include small groups of three or more people. Small group communication is usually to share information, generate ideas, solve problems, or to help. Small groups can include:
 - 1) Family
 - 2) Friends
 - 3) Social or work gathering
 - e. Within large groups, the communication, while still interpersonal, is more often one-way with a speaker providing instruction or direction. Because of the number of participants, it is difficult for everyone to be actively involved in the communication. Large group communication can also involve mass communication or message transmitted to large, widespread audiences through print or electronic media.

E. State The Barriers to Communication

1. Physical barriers are environmental factors that can create conditions that adversely impact communication. These barriers can include:
 - a. Environmental – Bright lights, unusual sights, or any other stimulus that provides a potential distraction.
 - b. Noise – The noise of battle, equipment, or other people in close proximity can impede clear communication.
 - c. Objects – Closed office doors, large desks, or screens that obstruct view can be barriers to communication.
 - d. Distance – It is difficult to talk to others when you are too far away to hear them properly or they are too close for comfort.

- e. Temperature – An environment that is too hot or too cold can block communication by changing your focus to your physical level of comfort instead of the message.
 - f. Physical Health – If someone is hard of hearing or is not feeling well, they may have difficulty hearing or concentrating on the conversation.
2. Perceptual barriers are factors contained within the message from the sender or receiver that can cause distortion of the communication. These factors can include:
 - a. Past experience – Depending on whether your past experience was positive or negative with the sender, receiver, or message, will influence how you communicate with the individual.
 - b. Hidden agendas – Sometimes the speaker may state one intention for the communication and may have a second, hidden purpose for the communication.
 - c. Stereotypes – Over generalizations, not supported by facts, that cause us to have fixed, rigid ideas about something
 3. Emotional barriers are one of the chief barriers to open communication. Some of our feelings can include:
 - a. Anger – One person may be offended or in complete disagreement with the message.
 - b. Fear – One person may be afraid of the other person, afraid of the outcome of the message, or afraid of appearing at a disadvantage in front of others.
 - c. Surprise – One person may be astonished at a message that deflects attention into another area and the rest of the communication is unheard.
 4. Cultural and language barriers can also impede clear communication. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking, seeing, hearing, and interpreting the world due to cultural values. The same words can mean different things to people from different cultures, even when they speak the same language.

F. Identify Elements in the Listening Process

1. Receiving – The physical act of hearing.
2. Attending – Giving attention to what was heard.
3. Understanding – Learning what the speaker means.
4. Responding – This lets the sender know that the message was received, attended to, and understood.

5. Remembering – It is being able to recall or retain for later use.

G. Identify Benefits of Effective Listening

1. Improves communications
2. Control of the situation
3. Minimizes conflict
4. Shows that you care
5. Enhances understanding
6. Improves memory

H. Identify Types of Listening

1. Active listening – A process in which the listener makes conscious effort to listen for complete message
2. Inactive listening – Hearing only the words. The definition of this is the old adage, “In one ear and out the other.”
3. Selective listening – Filtering the message, hearing only what you want to hear.

I. Identify Methods of Becoming a Better Listener

1. Have a reason or purpose for listening.
2. Suspend judgment.
3. Resist distractions (overcoming deterrents). Identify distractions such as noises, views, and other people, and focus on the speaker.
4. Wait before responding. It is important to take the time to think about what has been said.
5. Seek important themes.
6. Respond to comments.
7. Avoid response blocks that obstruct effective listening.

- a. Evaluation – How it was said (e.g., good, bad).
- b. Unsolicited advice giving.
- c. Diagnosing/analyzing – Why it was said (i.e., motive, cause).
- d. Topping – Do not mentally try to one-up.

J. Define The Term Feedback

Feedback refers to a response from the receiver which gives the communicator an idea of how the message is being received and whether it needs to be modified.

Types of Feedback:

1. Evaluative feedback – When an individual assumes that he/she can distinguish between right and wrong, or good and bad.
2. Non-evaluative feedback – When you address and observable behavior.

K. State The Guidelines for Giving and Receiving Feedback

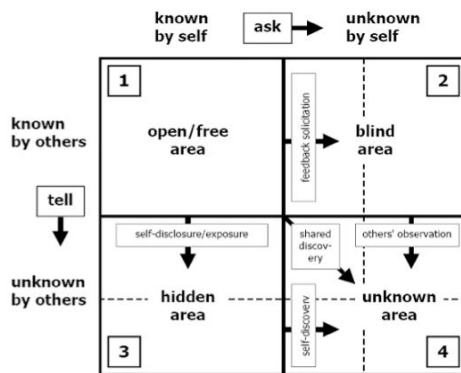
1. Giving Feedback

- a. Ensure feedback describes (non-evaluative) rather than judges (evaluative).
- b. Ensure feedback is specific rather than general.
- c. Ensure feedback takes into account the needs of both, the receiving communicator and the sending communicator of the feedback.
- d. Ensure feedback is analyzed to ensure clear communication.
- e. Ensure feedback is solicited rather than imposed.
- f. Ensure feedback is directed at a person's controllable behavior, not at the person.
- g. Ensure feedback is directed at behavior the receiver can control.
- h.
- i. Ensure feedback is well-timed.
- j. Ensure feedback is planned.

2. Receiving Feedback

- a. Establish a receptive atmosphere.
- b. State what you want feedback about.
- c. Check what has been heard.
- d. Maintain an objective attitude about the feedback even though it is about you.
- e. Share your reactions to the feedback, if practical.

L. Recall the ‘Panels’ of the Johari Window Model.



1. Open/free area – Contains “Things I know about myself and others know.”
2. Blind spot – Contains “Things I don’t know about myself, but the group knows.”
3. Hidden area – Contains “Things I know about myself, but the group doesn’t know.”
4. Unknown – Contains “Things that neither the group nor I know about myself.”

M. Recognize Behaviors/Actions which Cause the Panels to Move/Change Size

1. Behavior/action that causes the arena to move/change size:
 - a. Giving and soliciting feedback
 - b. Self-disclosure
2. Behavior/action that causes the blind spot to move/change size:
 - a. Soliciting feedback
 - b. Being receptive to feedback

3. Behavior/action that causes the facade to move/change size:
 - a. Giving feedback
 - b. Self-disclosure
4. Behavior/action that causes the unknown to move/change size:
 - a. Availing yourself of and being receptive to sharing experiences of others
 - b. Learning vicariously

N. Recognize The Benefits of Giving and Receiving Feedback

1. Exchange of information
2. Achieve personal growth
3. Provider finds out about self
4. Receiver gains insight
5. Creates an open environment for effective operational and interpersonal communications
6. Aids in preparation for the future; not dwelling on the past

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define communication.
- B. Identify the elements of the communication process.
- C. Describe the modes of communication and their respective elements
- D. Describe the types of human communication.
- E. State barriers to communication.
- F. Identify the elements in the listening process.
- G. Identify the benefits of effective listening.
- H. Identify types of listening.
- I. Identify methods of becoming a better listener.

- J. Define the term feedback.
- K. State guidelines for giving and receiving feedback.
- L. Recall the panes of the Johari window model.
- M. Identify behaviors/actions that cause the panes to move/change size.
- N. Identify the benefits of giving and receiving feedback.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 1100
PERCEPTIONS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

The perceptions process is the gathering of information in an effort to make sense of one's surroundings. This lesson discusses the perceptions process with recognition of the influence one's own biases and stereotypes have on the accuracy of perceptions. In exploring a systematic view of how individuals can gather the same information (raw data) and draw different conclusions (perceptions), students are better able to explore self, and more accurately identify their own biases, motives, and stereotypes. Commands are reliant on equal opportunity (EO) staff members to assess their organizations' climate with an accuracy unencumbered by personal biases, motives, and stereotypes.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 1100 Perceptions
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, study guide, and experiential learning activities, comprehend how perceptions can impact unit readiness and mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

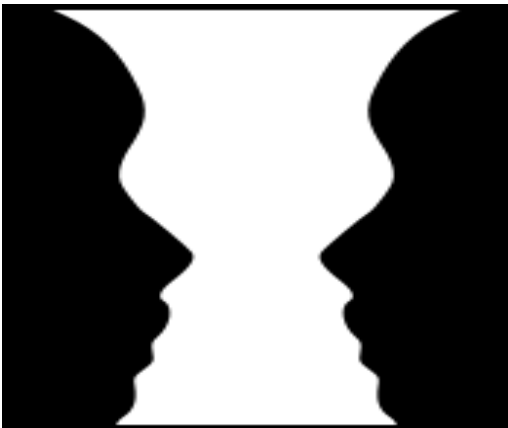
Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. State the elements of the perceptions process.	K	CRT
B. Recall the attributes of a stereotype.	K	CRT
C. Identify how perception shortcuts can impact your organization.	K	CRT
D. Describe biological perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.	C	CRT
E. Describe the sociological/cultural perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.	C	CRT
F. State ways to apply a strategy to correct inaccurate perception.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

PERCEPTIONS

A. Elements of the Perception Process

1. Three Elements of the Perception Process
 - a. The raw data
 - b. The mental process
 - c. The product (or decision)
2. Raw data is seeing an image, hearing a sound, inhaling a smell, tasting food, touching an object or person, or being involved in a situation (Jones and Gerard, 1967)
3. The mental process is unseen and is affected by motives and driven by personal bias; catalogues experiences derived from culture, socialization, and experiences; begins upon encountering raw data; and is capable of being misinterpreted (Jones and Gerard, 1967).
4. Product: The perception, sensing, or interpretation of experiences. It is a shortcut to understanding people, situations, and the world around us (Jones and Gerard, 1967).



B. Attributes of a Stereotype

1. Allows justification or rationalization of behavior, self-deception, acceptance/rejection of groups, and to selectively maintain our perception and thinking about a group (McGarty, Yzerbyt, and Spears, 2002).
2. Stereotypes have been said to be factually incorrect, illogical, and they are irrationally resistant to new information about the stereotyped group.

3. They are fixed, rigid ideas. The charge that stereotypes are fixed, rigid ideas means that people's perceptions of groups are difficult to change once they form that perception.
4. They are either overgeneralizations or oversimplifications. Stereotypes are said to be exaggerations of real group differences, either through overgeneralizations or oversimplifications.
5. They are not supported by reasonable evidence. It is often suggested that stereotypes are based on illogical or irrational foundations because they are not supported by reasonable evidence.
6. They are driven by motives such as fear, rationalization, and prejudice.
7. They have an adverse impact on our behavior regardless of whether the implications are positive or negative.

Factors that Support Stereotypes

1. Family, media, friends, etc.
2. The In-Group and Out-Group dynamic
 - a. In-Group—Group you belong to or identify with.
 - b. Out-Group—Group you don't belong to or identify with (Macrae, 1996).

The Self-Fulfilling Prophecy

1. The self-fulfilling prophecy is generally an unconscious process that occurs over time. People may not be aware of how their actions and behavior consequently influence the behavior and performance of people with whom they interact (Tauber, 1997, pp. 13–15).
2. The cycle of the self-fulfilling prophecy begins with a perception or stereotype of another person.
3. Next, the person with the perception behaves toward the other person as though the perception is true. Actions taken by one individual toward another person can be either positive or negative depending on what the person does and what the nature of the expectation is.
4. The first individual's expectation is then reinforced by the results of the situation that the other person has been placed in.

C. Perception Shortcuts

We are continuously exposed to a tremendous amount of information and we make certain assumptions in order to survive. The question is whether your individual biases, hopes, and motives will allow for a fair assumption. Here are some examples of perceptual shortcuts

- Halo Effect
- Viewing People as Constant
- Blaming the Victim
- First and Subsequent Impressions

1. First and subsequent impressions are:

- a. Formed at first meeting
- b. Tend to go beyond the visible data and make further inferences
- c. Carry first impression forward into subsequent interactions
- d. Further information about person is modified according to first impression.
- e. New and even contradictory information may end up being modified to validate the first impression.

2. Viewing people as constant:

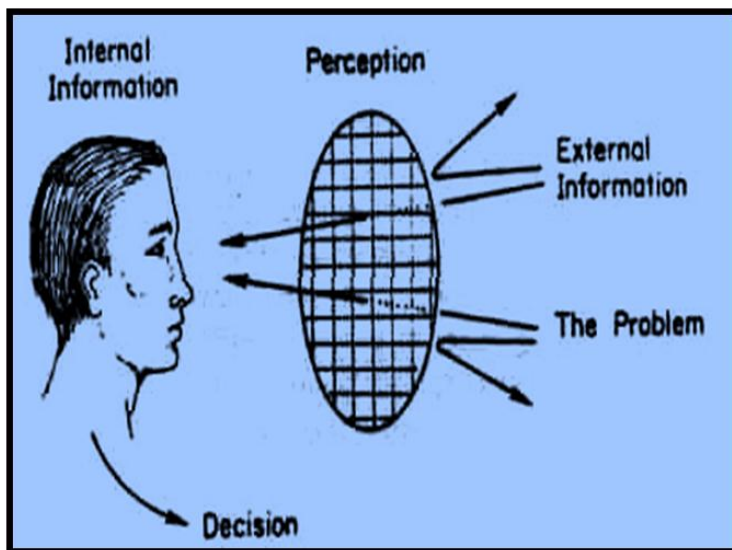
- a. Directly related to first impressions;
- b. Involves a belief that people will not, or cannot, change their behavior; and
- c. With this assumption, time is not taken to get to better know people each time you meet them.

3. The concept of blaming the victim:

- a. Sees people as the origin of action rather than seeing the contribution of circumstances to the situation.
- b. Actions save time in sizing up a situation, ignoring factors considered insignificant or unimportant.
- c. Within a system (eg., organization, workplace), people will blame the victim rather than attempt to resolve the issue (Ryan, 1976).

4. Halo effect:

- a. Tendency to extend a favorable or unfavorable impression to unrelated aspects of individual's personality (Oxford University Press, 2014)
- b. When knowing something good about a person, perception is they have other good characteristics
- c. When knowing something unfavorable about someone, we see other unfavorable characteristics about person. Impressions may be accurate or distorted about that individual.
- d. Ineffective management of one's own perceptual shortcuts can lead to inaccurate expectations, impressions, poor choices in the work environment, unfair treatment, discrimination, etc., which in turn can greatly impact the success of our mission, the ability to be ready in a moment's notice, and the overall morale of an individual, unit, and organization. (Rosenzweig, 2007)

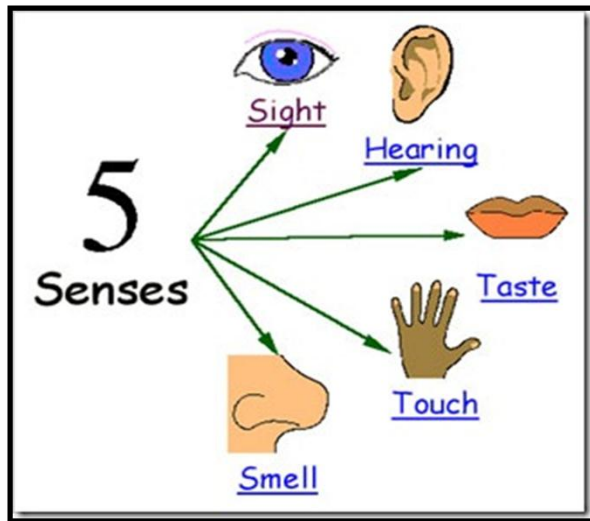


Perceptions differ between individuals. Filters create products that affect accuracy of perceptions.

D. Biological Perceptual Filters

Perceptions differ between individuals due to personal biological, sociological, and cultural differences. These filters create products that affect the accuracy of our perceptions (Jones and Gerard, 1967).

1. **Biological Filters:** Personal biological factors affect the perception process through our senses, which help us organize and make sense of the enormous amount of information we are bombarded with on a daily basis. Our perceptual senses stem from our physiology (Halonen, 1996).



2. Sight: Seeing a person will trigger the perception process. Judgments are made based on how the individual, group, or situation appears based on numerous criteria such as race, gender, age, appearance, height, weight, walk, dress, glasses, amount or type of hair, where we live, etc.
3. Touch: It is more involved than visual, provides direct experience and immediate information, and gives both information about environment and allows communication with others.
4. Taste: People have different tastes; taste in food may be derived from our culture, family, and other experiences. Perceptions about other individuals can be based on whether we have similar likes in food and beverages.
5. Hearing: The perception process can be triggered by sound and hearing even if we cannot see or touch a person.
6. Smell: The sense of smell can also trigger the perception process. Assumptions are made based on how people smell. We make assumptions based on how a person's car or house smells.

E. Sociological/Cultural Perceptual

1. Sociological or cultural filters affect the perception process because they are the sum total of the learned behaviors of a group of people. These behaviors are generally considered to be traditions of that group and are transmitted from generation to generation. (Jackson and Hogg, 2010)
2. Cultural and language barriers can also impede clear communications. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking, seeing, hearing, and interpreting the world due to cultural

values. The same words can mean different things to people from different cultures, even when they speak the same language.

F. Strategies to Correct Inaccurate Perceptions

1. Be aware of stereotyping.

Although stereotypes tend to make the social world more manageable, performance failures cannot always be attributed to ability or incompetence. The root of the problem may lie in stereotypes or preconceptions that others hold about groups to which they belong. (McGarty, Yzerbyt, and Spears, (2002)

2. Understanding the dynamics and processes that support stereotypes.

- a. Listen actively for understanding and the speaker's meaning
- b. Paraphrase back to the speaker the message received
- c. Listen with the same intensity to everyone. Don't think about what you will say next
- d. Ask questions to clarify inaccuracies or vague statements (McGarty, Yzerbyt, and Spears, 2002).

3. Identify the appropriate application of facts, opinions, and assumptions:

- a. Avoid distorting the facts, opinions, and assumptions to meet your needs.
- b. Identify personal barriers (such as biases, motives, prejudices, and stereotypes).
- c. Avoid stereotyping by distinguishing facts from overgeneralizations or oversimplifications.
- d. Recognize that thinking in terms of categories is normal human functioning.
- e. Recognize that people consciously and unconsciously hold stereotypes as a result of social conditioning.

4. Interact with groups different from your own or at levels above and below yours.

- a. Your level—not just your close circle of coworkers and contacts, but others as well. Make contacts in the chain of command.

- a. Levels above— make and maintain contact at echelons above you. For example, ask and attend staff meetings, social events, etc.
- b. Level below—a simple method of contact at levels below your own is to use a concept called management by walking around or MBWA.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. State the elements of the perceptions process.
- B. Recall the attributes of a stereotype.
- C. Identify how perceptions shortcuts can impact your organization.
- D. Describe biological perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.
- E. Describe the sociological/cultural perceptual filters and state their effects on the perceptions process.
- F. State ways to apply a strategy to correct inaccurate perceptions.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 1300

COMMUNICATING ACROSS DIFFERENCES



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will provide information that will familiarize how people differ and communicate in many ways. Some of the most profound differences are based on cultural background, gender, and age. These differences affect the way we communicate with each other. Knowledge of cultural customs, communication style differences, and socialization can help avoid misunderstandings and enable better communications.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, study guide, and experiential learning activities, know how communicating across differences (cross-cultural communication) can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

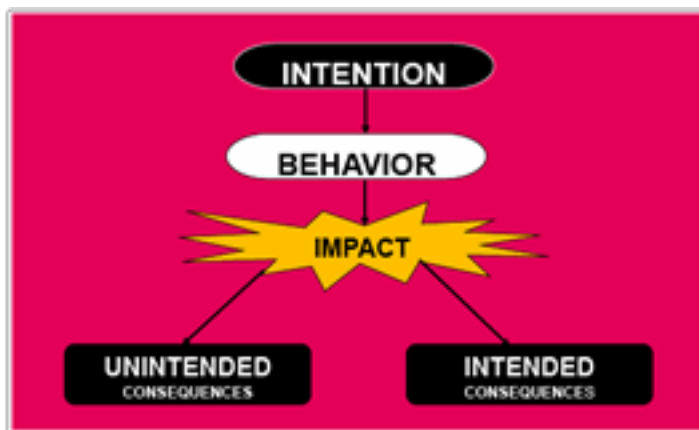
ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify factors that impact communication across differences.	K	CRT
B. Identify factors that impact cross-cultural communication.	K	CRT
C. Identify factors that impact cross-gender communication.	K	CRT
D. Identify factors that impact cross-generational communication.	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies to improve communication across differences.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

COMMUNICATION ACROSS DIFFERENCES

A. Factors that Impact Communication Across Differences

1. Slang language usage
2. World views
3. Religion
4. Cultural background
5. Stereotypes
6. Race
7. Gender
8. Generational differences

Impact Model



(Edith Ng, The Regents of the University of California)

1. Intention versus Behavior: When we do or say something there is *always* an impact. The impact model illustrates the unpredictability of behavior when a message is received by your listener.
2. Impact versus Intent: Occurs when the impact of the communication is negative.
3. Rather than focusing on our intent, we should focus on the action and acknowledge the unintended negative impact on a person.

B. Factors that Impact Cross-Cultural Communication

Definition

Cross-cultural communication is a process of exchanging, negotiating, and mediating one's cultural differences through language, non-verbal gestures, and space relationships. It is also the process by which people express their openness to a cross-cultural experience.

1. Stereotype vs. Generalization

- a. These two concepts appear similar, but they function differently. A stereotype is an ending point, and no effort is made to ascertain whether it is appropriate or correct; whereas a generalization serves as a starting point to learn more.
- b. Culture is concerned with beliefs and values on the basis of which people interpret experiences and behave individually and in groups.
- c. Culture is often at the root of communication challenges. Becoming more aware of cultural differences and similarities can help you communicate with others more effectively.
- d. Culture is central to what we see, how we make sense of what we see, and how we express ourselves. It is impossible to study the characteristics and nuances of every culture in existence today.

2. Cross-Cultural Differences

Cross-Cultural Differences are based on unique perspectives, practices, and products.

- a. Perspectives—The beliefs, thought processes, values, and worldviews (our ideas about how the world works) that encompass the philosophies of a culture.
- b. Practices—Behavioral practices include social norms, approaches to communication and conflict, orientation to hierarchy, power, class, status, and gender roles, etc., that constitute the norms of a culture.
- c. Products—These are tangibles such as food, clothing, books, and tools. And they are intangibles, such as songs, parables, rituals, language, and laws that comprise the artifacts of a culture.

3. Cultural Tendencies

Cultural tendencies vary, depending on race and ethnic identification. Understanding these tendencies improves your ability to adapt and successfully communicate within multi-cultural environments.

a. Personal Space

The standard personal space of a culture is strongly influenced by the amount of available space. People from crowded places, such as India or New York City, will be accustomed to a smaller circle of personal space. People from less crowded places, such as Mongolia or Montana, will generally have a much larger personal space bubble.

b. Eye Contact

The duration and frequency of eye contact communicates a great deal—honesty, respect, shame, interest—but the rules governing eye contact and what it means differ widely among cultures.

- 1) Among Latinos, it is respectful to avoid direct eye contact with authority figures.
- 2) For Muslims, direct eye contact between members of the opposite sex is considered bold and flirtatious.
- 3) Arabs have greater eye contact than Americans among members of the same gender.
- 4) Among Asians, direct eye contact is very brief, with the gaze then sliding away to the side, especially with superiors or members of the opposite sex.
- 5) Southern Europeans generally engage in more eye contact than Americans.
- 6) Britons generally engage in less eye contact than Americans.

c. Speaking Volume

The volume at which we speak says nearly as much as the words themselves by the degree to which it varies from a baseline. That variation in speaking volume communicates shyness, uncertainty, anger, enthusiasm, and more. But normal baseline volumes also vary among cultures and among individuals.

- 1) White Americans typically interpret raised voices as a sign of anger or hostility. Among non-white Americans and other ethnic groups such as Latin Americans or Africans, raised voices may simply signify an exciting conversation.
- 2) Baseline speaking volume is generally lower among Asians and Western Europeans. American tourists in these parts of the world are often seen as rude and thoughtless.
- 3) In some African cultures, whispering is a signal of witchcraft, plotting, or malicious gossip. Good manners dictate speaking loudly enough for everyone present to hear what you are saying.

d. Touch

Compared to other cultures, Americans rarely touch each other, limiting ourselves to handshakes and occasional pats on the shoulder or arm in business relationships, or hugs in closer friendships.

- 1) Latin Americans and Middle Easterners touch with much greater frequency. In these cultures, it is not uncommon for two men to hold hands, signifying nothing more than friendship.
 - 2) Certain other groups, such as the Japanese, touch less than Americans and may be uncomfortable being touched in a casual relationship.
 - 3) People from cultures with conservative customs regulating inter-gender relationships may be extremely uncomfortable being touched by someone of the opposite sex.
 - 4) Touching someone on the head is offensive to most Asians.
- e. Smiling
- For Americans, a smile is used with frequency to communicate friendliness and goodwill. Northern Europeans as a group smile with much less frequency, reserving the expression to show felt happiness. While this may cause Europeans to appear grim or unfriendly to Americans, Americans often appear childish or flippant to Europeans. Asians, in contrast, smile with greater frequency than Americans, using the expression to smooth over awkward or embarrassing situations, which may appear inappropriate to Americans.
- f. Facial Control
- Researchers have found that Americans display the least control over facial expressions, likely because our culture places high value on individual expression. Russians exhibit the most control over facial expression, followed by Japanese and Koreans. A higher degree of control may make people from other cultures appear unemotional or inscrutable to Americans.
- g. Time
- The way we use time also sends messages without a word being spoken. In American business culture, respect is communicated through punctuality. In Latin and Middle Eastern cultures, which place high value on interpersonal relationships, respect means continuing a meeting or conversation until it reaches a natural conclusion, even if it makes you late for the next one.
- h. Silence
- Americans are generally uncomfortable with silence in conversations. In other cultures, silence may signify respect, disdain, thoughtfulness, or seriousness.
- i. Agreement
- “Yes” does not always mean “yes” among Asians. In order to avoid conflict and maintain smooth, pleasant relations, Asians rarely say no directly. “Yes” may mean “maybe” or “I’ll consider it.” A negative reply is generally communicated indirectly through hints and suggestions that your request is unlikely to be fulfilled. The “no” will come across clearly to someone from the same culture, but will probably be missed by an American. (Diversity Council, 2008)

C. Factors that Impact Cross-Gender Communication

Definition of Gender/Sex

“Gender refers to the attitudes, feelings, and behaviors that a given culture associates with a person’s biological sex. Behavior that is compatible with cultural expectations is referred to as gender-normative; behaviors that are viewed as incompatible with these expectations constitute gender non-conformity.

“Sex refers to a person’s biological status and is typically categorized as male, female, or intersex (i.e., atypical combinations of features that usually distinguish male from female). There are a number of indicators of biological sex, including sex chromosomes, gonads, internal reproductive organs, and external genitalia (American Psychological Association, 2011).

1. Childhood Gender Communication

Gender communication differences begin during childhood. From a very early age, males and females are often taught different linguistic styles.

Communication behaviors that are prominent among girls may not be for boys and vice versa. The development of these norms begins during childhood and continues throughout the life-long socialization process. It should be noted that a person can engage in different levels of masculinity and femininity regardless of sex. Differences in communication tendencies between the sexes are not universal, but research has shown some trends in communication style worth noting.

2. Gender tendencies

Research suggests there are some differences in how men and women communicate.

- a. Men tend sharing stories to “one-up” each other. Men move to problem solving right away and value the ability to achieve results.
- b. Women tend to share experiences to show commonality and build off each other’s discussion points. Women take a more collaborative approach to problem solving by relying on the relationships they’ve built.
- c. Studies have shown that men actually talk more than women at meetings, taking up more time and space, while women try to make sure there is more equality in the room. Men typically interrupt women and talk over them much more than women do that to men (Adler, 1998).
- d. Generally, women will communicate by using a passive/assertive style in an effort to achieve rapport, connection, relationships, and equality of status, support, inclusiveness, responsiveness, and self-disclosure. On the other hand, stereotypically

men communicate by using a goal-oriented style in efforts to accomplish tasks, achieve status, and dominate the conversation (Lieberman, 2007).

Whether it's nature or nurture, some individuals do not have any of the traits attributed to their gender. They may have been teased, harassed, or excluded because of this, which is why it's important to understand male and female cultural norms, but also recognize that some people don't fit the mold.

We have to be careful not to stereotype and assume that all men will act a certain way or that all women will act a certain way. The truth is that there are some women that have some traits that might be attributed to the male style and there are times when it is necessary to use the male style, and vice versa.

D. Factors that Impact Cross-Generational Communication

1. Generational Types and Characteristics

a. Types

- 1) Traditionalists (born 1925-1942)
- 2) Baby Boomers (born 1943-1960)
- 3) Generation X (born 1961-1981)
- 4) Generation Y Millennials (born 1982-Present)

b. Characteristics

- 1) It is key to understand that not every person in a generation will share all of the characteristics shown in this table with others in the same generation. However, these examples are indicative of general patterns. Individuals born at one end of the date range or the other may see overlapping characteristics with the preceding or succeeding generation.
- 2) Consider other people's underlying values, personal and lifestyle characteristics. Identify individual behaviors, and match characteristics to specific generation type.

2. General Characteristics

- a. Traditionalists are hardworking and dedicated, respectful of rules and authority, conservative and traditional
- b. Boomers – Youthful self-identity, optimistic, team player, competitive

- c. Xers – Balanced (work/life quality), self-reliant, pragmatic
- d. Millennials – Fast-paced/multitasking, fun-seeking, technology-savvy (Bernstein, et al, 2008).

This table presents the four generations’ basic work attitudes:

	Traditionalists (1925 to 1942)	Baby Boomers (1943 to 1960)	Generation X (1961 to 1981)	Generation Y (Millennials) (1982 to present)
Work Style	By the book -- "how" is as important as what gets done	Get it done, whatever it takes - nights and weekends	Find the fastest route to results; Protocol secondary	Work to deadlines, not necessarily to schedules
Authority/ Leadership	Command/ control; Rarely question authority	Respect for power and accomplishment	Rules are flexible; Collaboration is important	Value autonomy; Less inclined to pursue formal leadership positions
Communication	Formal and through proper channels	Somewhat formal, through structured network	Casual and direct; sometimes skeptical	Casual and direct; eager to please
Recognition/ Reward	Personal acknowledgement and compensation for work well done	Public acknowledgement and career advancement	A balance of fair compensation and ample time off as reward	Individual and public praise (exposure); opportunity for broadening skills
Work/Family	Work and family should be kept separate	Work comes first	Value work/life balance	Value blending personal life into work
Loyalty	To the organization	To the importance and meaning of work	To individual career goals	To the people involved with the project
Technology	"If it ain't broke, don't fix it"	Necessary for progress	Practical tools for getting things done	What else is there?

One of the biggest challenges for today’s military leaders is to understand generational differences in perspective and effectively deal with their personnel. Those who cannot adapt will find their positions extremely frustrating. The social norm is to deal with people as you have been dealt with, and that is why it is so difficult for unenlightened leaders to communicate effectively with the youth of today. “Do as you are told” has limited effectiveness in today’s society. (Waite, 2007)

Understanding the generational differences may help you better understand the needs and preferences of co-workers, family, and friends. Understanding why people communicate the

way they do is a challenge in any environment. However, having a better understanding can lead to effective communication, which may lead to increased productivity in the workplace and better relationships with others.

E. Strategies to Improve Communication Across Differences

1. Negative Impacts of failing to communicate effectively

- a. Turnover rates
- b. Recruitment, hiring, training, and retention
- c. Morale and teamwork
- d. Perceptions of fairness and equity
- e. Grievances and complaints

2. General Guidelines

- a. Learn from generalizations about others, but don't use those generalizations to stereotype, oversimplify, or categorize.
- b. Don't assume that there is only one right way (your way) to communicate.
- c. Don't assume that breakdowns in communication occur because others are wrong and unyielding.
- d. Listen actively and empathetically.
- e. Stop, suspend judgment, and attempt to look at the situation as an outsider.
- f. Be aware of power imbalances.

3. Strategies for Success

- a. Listening
- b. Speaking
- c. Observation
- d. Patience

- e. Flexibility

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify factors that impact communication.
- B. Identify factors that impact cross-cultural communication.
- C. Identify factors that impact cross-gender communication.
- D. Identify factors that impact cross-generational communication.
- E. Identify strategies to improve communication across differences.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1350

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will help students recognize the manifestations of conflict and the types of conflict seen in the workplace. The lesson will also identify strategies for coping with conflict, and familiarize students with the systematic process associated with conflict management. Finally, the lesson will identify the components of the problem solving process to show how conflict can impact mission effectiveness.

Recommended Reading

32 CFR Part 83 *Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR) and Conflict Management*. Retrieved from <https://www.federalregister.gov/articles/2011/04/25/2011-9750/alternative-dispute-resolution-adr-and-conflict-management>

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–Conflict Management
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, know how conflict management can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recognize the manifestations of conflict.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the types of conflict and associated characteristics.	K	CRT
C. Identify strategies used to cope with conflict.	K	CRT
D. Identify the benefits of coping with conflict.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the systematic process associated with conflict management.	K	CRT
F. Identify components of the problem-solving process.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test		
W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

A. Manifestation of Conflict

1. Primary Causes of Conflict

- a. Conflict is generally based upon three assumptions:
 - 1) Disagreement is inevitable
 - 2) Conflict cannot be avoided since interdependence between groups is necessary
 - 3) Agreement and maintaining interdependence is possible
- b. Conflict can manifest in many ways.
 - 1) When wants or needs differ.
 - 2) When individuals' values differ.
 - 3) Differing degrees of knowledge expectations.
 - 4) Differences in race, gender, ethnicity, religion, and age.
 - 5) Assumptions/perceptions.

2. Why Conflict is Destructive

- a. Diverts energy from more important activities and issues
- b. Destroys morale
- c. Polarizes groups so that internal cohesiveness is decreased
- d. Deepens differences in values
- e. Produces irresponsible and regrettable behavior

3. Reasons Why Conflict is Constructive

- a. Opens up issues of importance
- b. Increases the involvement of individuals
- c. Causes authentic communication to occur

- d. Results in the solution of problems
- e. Serves as a release to pent-up emotion, anxiety, and stress
- f. Helps build cohesiveness among people
- g. Helps individuals grow personally

B. Types of Conflict and Associated Characteristics

1. Characteristics of Intrapersonal Conflict

Definition: A conflict that occurs solely in the psychological dynamics of the person's own mind (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

- a. Takes place inside an individual
- b. Individual has built-in resentment
- c. Individual has conflicting internal needs, values, and attitudes
- d. Individual is not in internal harmony, but may be internally disagreeable and, therefore, is unacceptable to him or herself (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006)

2. Interpersonal Conflict

Definition: Interpersonal conflict is a disagreement between two individuals or subgroups of an organization involving significant resentment and discontent (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

It is a situation in which an individual or group frustrates, or tries to frustrate, the goal attainment efforts of the other.

3. Characteristics of Interpersonal Conflict

- a. Conflict which takes place between two or more parties
- b. Each has mutually exclusive goals or values
- c. Each tries to overpower the other
- d. Parties attack each other instead of the problem

4. Intragroup Conflict

Definition: Intragroup conflict is conflict that occurs between members of a group that shares common goals, interests, or other identifying characteristics (Lewicki, Barry, & Sanders, 2006).

- a. By definition, intragroup conflict can be small-scale, such as within a workplace or large-scale, such as between members of a specific population group.
- b. Intragroup conflict can occur within an institution or community; "intragroup squabbling within the corporation" Disagreements and misconceptions might occur between team members, which create conflict.

5. Characteristics of Intragroup Conflict

- a. Takes place within a group
- b. Parties within the group behave as to defeat each other
- c. Manifest behavior (i.e., the resulting actions are aggressive, competitive, and argumentative)
- d. Conflict of interest (i.e., goals, values, beliefs, attitudes)
- e. Feelings (i.e., hostility, fear, mistrust, threat, defensiveness)

6. Intergroup Conflict

- a. According to social psychologists, intergroup conflict is defined as: "An incompatibility of goals, beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors between groups."
- b. Intergroup conflict can take many forms, ranging from a disagreement with the neighbors to a full-out war between countries. Though consequences vary, the cause of intergroup conflict usually stems from a few. Inter-group conflict applies to disagreements or misconceptions between work groups, such as between two project teams.

7. Characteristics of Intergroup Conflict

- a. Takes place between two or more groups
- b. Available resources are perceived as inadequate for all
- c. Each group tries to overpower the other
- d. Each group has mutually exclusive goals or values
- e. Perceptions are inaccurate or illogical

C. Strategies Used to Cope with Conflict

1. Coping with Conflict

- a. To cope with conflict, we must realize that disagreements happen every day. Conflict can arise from these disagreements and have adverse effects on us all. Whether at home, work, or in a social setting, we all have different opinions, values, goals, and concerns. Some conflicts are minor and others can become major. Usually conflicts are not resolved until we deal with them. Managing conflict require skillful techniques. These techniques are also helpful when dealing with disagreements, the start of conflicts.
- b. In coping with the conflict, someone involved in the conflict must decide to overcome the emotions and get down to the root of the problem. This is to say take a lead and try to manage the situation instead of letting the situation manage the people. Leaders must learn how to cope with conflict to be healthier, happier, and more effective in groups.

2. Strategies to Coping with Conflict

- a. Avoidance-----Lose/Lose

Withdraw from or deny there is a problem.

- b. Accommodating-----Lose/Win

Differences are played down; surface harmony exists.

- c. Competing -----Win/Lose

One's authority, position, majority rule, or a persuasive minority settles the conflict.

- d. Compromise-----Draw

Each party gives something in order to meet midway. It is powerful when both sides are right.

- e. Collaboration-----Win/Win

Abilities, values, and expertise of all are recognized; each person's position is clear, but emphasis is on the group solution.

3. Other Strategies Include:

- a. Talking About the Conflict
Do not expect others to know what you're thinking.
- b. Recognize Differences
Recognize and understand that people are going to have different beliefs, opinions, values, and morals.
- c. Prevent Escalation
Do not allow a minor argument to turn into a big one.
- d. Encourage Communication
Encourage every person involved in the conflict to voice their feelings or opinions about the issue and then identify the main point of contention.
- e. Remain Calm
It is easy to get upset when someone hurts your feelings, whether it's intentional or not. It is your conflict resolution skills that enable you to gain a deeper understanding of yourself and build more trusting relationships.

D. Benefits of Coping with Conflict

Conflict can have benefits. Healthy conflict provides you with the skills to develop better relationships, gain an understanding of yourself, increase your resolution skills, and avoid negative and damaging reactions.

1. Deals with reality
2. Confronts the real problem
3. Keeps identity and roles separate
4. Can assist the EOA in the organization

E. The Systematic Process Associated with Conflict Management

1. Conflict Management Defined

According to the 32 CFR, Part 83, conflict management is defined as, "A systemic process used to proactively identify and manage, at the earliest stage possible, conflict that can lead to one or more disputes, for the purpose of reducing the incidence of disputes and increasing the likelihood that disputes that do arise may be resolved efficiently, effectively, and expeditiously."

2. Purpose

It is a federal requirement to follow a framework for encouraging the expanded use of alternative means of dispute resolution and conflict management practices as an integral part of normal business practices (see 32 CFR, Part 83). The Department of Defense shall foster and advance collaboration and coordination among the DoD components on the use of conflict management techniques and practices.

3. Conflict Management Techniques

Federal and DoD personnel are encouraged to identify and address underlying conflict in order to prevent and avoid disputes. The following are some recognized conflict management techniques and practices (skills) to help avoid or resolve disputes.

Techniques used in the process include, but are not limited to, structured unassisted negotiation (e.g., use of interest-based negotiation techniques), joint or collaborative problem-solving, coaching, and the design of an integrated conflict management system.

4. Negotiation

- a. It is a formal discussion to reach agreement about an issue.
- b. It is an important method to reduce conflict and to get things done.
- c. The style of negotiation best suited for mediations is called interest-based negotiation, or “IBN.” The theory of IBN is that parties are much more likely to come to a mutually satisfactory outcome when their respective interests are met than they are when one “position” wins over the other.
- d. Most negotiations ultimately involve the question of how to distribute something among the disputants or negotiating parties, whether it is money, property, benefits, or obligations.
 - 1) Diagnosis: The ability to determine the nature of conflict.
 - 2) Initiation: Influencing someone to change a behavior that may be causing the problem.
 - 3) Listening: Very important. Ability to hear the other’s point of view. Listen, reflect, paraphrase, and clarify.

5. Mediation

Mediation is a form of negotiation between two parties where a third party neutral assists or facilitates a settlement, which is amenable to and voluntarily accepted by both parties.

6. Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR)

Any procedure that is used to resolve issues in controversy, including, but not limited to, conciliation, facilitation, mediation, fact-finding, mini-trials, arbitration, and use of Ombudsmen, or any combination thereof.

7. Coaching

As a professional in a coaching role, you educate managers and supervisors as you work with them as a supportive partner and coach. Your goal is to increase an individual's self-sufficiency. You provide tools needed to help others be successful in their occupation and interpersonal functions.

8. Problem Solving

- a. There are many ways to solve problems. There is no one right way. However, using problem-solving procedures may help find the best response to the situation.
- b. The following are two highly recognized procedures:

- 1) Six-Step Problem-Solving Process

- 2) APIE

Both have similar components in the problem solving process.

F. Components of the Problem-Solving Process

1. Six-Step Problem-Solving Process

- a. Identify and Select the Problem
 - 1) Step back from the issue (conflict) and try to understand both sides of the problem.
 - 2) The goal at this initial stage is to say what you want and to listen to what the other person wants.
 - 3) Define the things that you both agree on, as well as the ideas that have caused the disagreement.
 - 4) It is important to listen actively to what the other is saying, use "I" statements and avoid blame.
 - 5) Sometimes problems are so big you have to break them down into smaller, workable problems and attack each small problem first. By doing this, a problem is not so overwhelming that you don't know where to start. So if the problem is too big, refine

- it.
- 6) This should be thoroughly thought through and agreed upon so everyone is on the same page.
- b. Analyze the Problem (Gather Information)
- 1) Analyzing means to gather information.
 - 2) If there is not enough information, figure out how to research and collect it.
 - 3) Once the information is gathered, take a very close look at what is going on.
 - 4) Try to come to consensus on why the particular problem or issue occurs.
- c. List Possible Solution(s)
- 1) This is the brainstorming phase.
 - 2) Draw on the points that you both agree on and your shared goals generate a list of as many ideas as you can for solving the problem, regardless of how feasible they might be.
 - 3) There are no wrong answers here, and judgments should not be passed on another person's suggestions.
 - 4) Toward the end of this brainstorming session, allow time for each person to clarify his or her suggestion so there is a common understanding for a later selection.
- d. Select and Plan the Best Solution
- 1) It is important for each party to be honest in this phase.
 - 2) The group should prioritize the solutions into what would work the best. This is a slow process of elimination.
 - 3) There may be some possible suggestions that are immediately eliminated.
 - 4) Eventually, the group boils down the choices to one or two best solutions. The solutions might not be ideal for either party and may involve compromise or consensus on the best solution.
 - 5) Select the solution that seems mutually acceptable, even if it is not perfect for either party.
 - 6) As long as it seems fair and there is a mutual commitment to work with the decision,

- the conflict has a chance for resolution.
- e. Implement the Solution
 - 1) It is important to agree on the details of what each party must do.
 - 2) Discuss who is responsible for implementing various parts of the agreement, and what to do in case the agreement starts to break down.
 - f. Evaluate the Solution

This is an ongoing step.

- 1) Make it a point to ask the other parties' from time to time how things are going.
 - 2) Something unexpected might have come up or some aspect of the problem may have been overlooked. Your decisions should be seen as open to revision, as long as the revisions are agreed upon mutually.
2. The Problem-Solving Process can be Summarized Using the APIE Model

The APIE Model defines a four (4) step process; however, it aligns with the six (6) step process.

- a. Step No.1: Assess the Problem(s)
- b. Step No. 2: Plan a Solution(s)
- c. Step No. 3: Implement the Solution(s)
- d. Step No. 4: Evaluate the Outcome

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recognize the manifestations of conflict.
- B. Recognize the types of conflict and associated characteristics.
- C. Identify strategies used to cope with conflict.
- D. Identify the benefits of coping with conflict.
- E. Recognize the systematic process associated with conflict management.
- F. Identify components of the problem-solving process.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1450

INDIVIDUAL DIVERSITY



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding the concept of individual diversity is vital for an EOA. An equal opportunity (EO) professional will need to identify the concept of individual diversity, broaden their self-awareness of diversity, and recognize that each individual is a unique and valued asset to achieving mission effectiveness.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation—EOA 1450 Individual Diversity
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers.

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, know how individual diversity can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. State DoD and the Services definition of diversity.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the importance of diversity in the workplace.	K	CRT
C. Recognize the relationship between diversity and inclusion.	K	CRT
D. Identify primary and secondary dimensions of diversity.	K	CRT
E. List the dimensions of diversity that exert an impact on the socialization process.	K	CRT
F. Identify individual diversity strategies.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Assessing your Comfort with Diversity	To identify possible areas of personal discomfort in dealing with diversity.	ISDE

INDIVIDUAL DIVERSITY

A. Definitions of Diversity

1. Diversity

According to Merriam-Webster online (2014), diversity is “The condition of having or being composed of differing elements: variety, especially: the inclusion of different types of people (as people of different races or cultures) in a group or organization.”

2. DoD Definition of Diversity

Diversity is a military necessity (AF/A1DV, 2013).

DoD Directive 1020.02 (2009) defines diversity as “The different characteristics and attributes of individuals.”

To effectively manage diversity, several of the armed services have established diversity offices or departments as well as issued official definitions for diversity.

3. Air Force Definition of Diversity

Diversity in the Air Force, according to the Air Force Global Diversity Division, AF/A1DV (2013), is broadly defined as a “composite of individual characteristics, experiences, and abilities consistent with the Air Force Core Values and the Air Force Mission (p. 5).”

The AF/A1DV (2013) further goes on to state “Air Force diversity includes, but is not limited to, personal life experiences, geographic background, socioeconomic background, cultural knowledge, educational background, work background, language abilities, physical abilities, philosophical/spiritual perspectives, age, race, ethnicity and gender (p. 5).”

4. Army Definition of Diversity

The Army Diversity Strength in Diversity (2014) website defines diversity as “...the different attributes, experiences, and backgrounds of our soldiers, civilians, and family members that further enhance our global capabilities and contribute to an adaptive, culturally astute Army (U.S. Army, 2013).”

5. Coast Guard Definition of Diversity

The U.S. Coast Guard’s diversity website writes the definition of diversity as “Diversity is variety. It includes all the characteristics, experiences, and differences of each individual (U.S. Coast Guard Office of Diversity [CG-12B], 2013).”

6. Navy Definition of Diversity

The U.S. Navy's definition of diversity is, "All the different characteristics and attributes of individual sailors and civilians that enhance the mission readiness of the Navy (U.S. Navy, 2013)."

B. The Importance of Diversity in the Workplace

1. Why Diversity Matters.

- a. In January of 2005, the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO) published a report (GAO-05-90) titled, *Diversity Management: Expert-Identified Leading Practices and Agency Examples*.
- b. According to the report, high-performance organizations typically:
 - 1) Foster a work environment in which people are enabled and motivated to contribute to mission accomplishments.
 - 2) Provide both accountability and fairness for all employees (p. 2).
- c. To accomplish these objectives, high-performance organizations are inclusive, drawing on the strengths of employees at all levels and of all backgrounds—an approach consistent with diversity management (USGS, 2014, p. 1; GAO, 2005, p. 2).

2. Diversity Is Critical to Readiness

- a. The Acting Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness, Jessica Wright, says the Defense Department not only talks "about diversity in terms of race and gender, and ethnicity, but it is much more than that in my mind." She declared that diversity included, "your thought process, how you grew up, [and] what you can add to the greater good because of your background (Beard, 2013)."
 - 1) Current combat missions and terrorism operate among diverse cultures.
 - 2) Increased need for specialized talent (i.e. foreign language interpreters and medical professionals)
 - 3) Increased use of collaborative work structures.
- b. For diversity to add value, it is critical that each of us open our minds and make a sincere effort to understand the perspectives of others. There is never a guarantee that people with different perspectives will come to agreement, nor should there be.

3. Benefits of Diversity

- a. It leads to increased effectiveness, innovation, improved problem solving, greater cohesion, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, competitiveness, and enhanced mission readiness.
- b. How this relates to your role as an EOA
 - 1) Your comfort around diversity will prove useful during conflict resolutions as you will be better equipped to take other's perceptive.
 - 2) When reviewing climate assessment survey data you can determine if your organization fosters a climate conducive to support diversity.

C. Relationship between Diversity and Inclusion

1. As identified in the definitions, the word diversity represents a large group comprised of different people with different experiences.
2. Individual differences can include race, color, religion, gender, sex, national origin, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, age, disability, and veteran status. However, diversity does not address how these differences function.
 - a. This is where inclusion comes into play. Inclusion enables us to strive to have all people represented and included in the Federal workforce, and make all members feel welcomed and valued, not only for their abilities, but also for their unique qualities and perspectives.
 - b. The focus of inclusion and diversity is to create a culture that encourages all employees to be successful, regardless of their differences. (SkillsUSA, 2014)
3. In August 2011, President Obama established Executive Order 13583, *Coordinated Government-wide Initiative to Promote Diversity and Inclusion in the Federal Workforce*
 - a. The Executive order states that a commitment to equal opportunity, diversity, and inclusion is critical for the Federal Government as an employer. By law, the Federal Government's recruitment policies should "endeavor to achieve a work force from all segments of society (5 U.S.C. 2301(b) (1))."
 - b. To realize more fully the goal of using the talents of all segments of society, the Federal Government must continue to challenge itself to enhance its ability to recruit, hire, promote, and retain a more diverse workforce. Further, the Federal Government must create a culture that encourages collaboration, flexibility, and fairness to enable individuals to participate to their full potential (Executive Order 13583, 2011).
4. Diversity and EO

- a. Workplace EO programs are concerned with issues of fairness and equity based upon Title VII Civil Rights Act of 1964.
- b. People sometimes incorrectly think the word diversity is synonymous with equal opportunity.
- c. Diversity and inclusion programs, on the other hand, are strategic in focus. They strive to capitalize on strengths within the workforce, while minimizing weaknesses that inhibit optimal organizational performance.

D. Dimensions of Diversity

The dimensions of diversity are characteristics that describe people negatively and positively.

Differences between people can pose a potential impediment, but such obstacles can be resolved by supportive leaders who create a pro-diversity climate.

The term diversity has evolved over the years and its meaning has expanded in scope.

Diversity now has become a broad term which includes overt (primary) and covert (secondary) dimensions, and characteristics that may be used to group individuals (Loden, 1996).



Dimensions of diversity wheel © 1996. *Implementing Diversity* by Marilyn Loden. McGraw Hill publishing, Burr Ridge, IL. Reprinted with permission.

* = In 2010, Loden and Rosener stated sexual orientation may also be considered with secondary dimensions.

1. Loden's (1996) Primary Dimensions

The primary dimensions, as shown in the inner circle of the dimensions of diversity wheel in Loden's (1996) book, *Implementing Diversity*, are the properties and characteristics that constitute the core of our diverse identities.

a. Loden's (1996) primary dimensions include:

- 1) Age
- 2) Ethnicity (Ethnic Heritage)
- 3) Gender
- 4) Mental/physical abilities and characteristics
- 5) Race
- 6) *Sexual orientation

* = In 2010 Loden and Rosener stated that sexual orientation may also be considered with the secondary dimensions.

b. These dimensions are more immediately obvious to others and are ones over which we have little control. It is the immutability and sustained power that the primary dimensions exert throughout life that separates them from the secondary dimensions.

The six primary dimensions are so powerful that they shape our basic self-image and fundamental worldview, and our life experiences are filtered through them. These six inner dimensions are inescapable. For some, secondary dimensions can be so powerful that they too can become part of their core. (Loden, 1996)

2. Secondary Dimensions

The secondary dimensions are additional elements outside the core with some being quite permanent and others receding or changing over time (Loden, 1996). As shown in the outer circle of the dimensions of diversity wheel, they play an important role in shaping our values, perceptions, priorities, and experiences.

a. Secondary dimensions include:

- 1) Communication style
- 2) Education

- 3) Family status
 - 4) Military experience
 - 5) Religion
 - 6) First language
 - 7) Income
 - 8) Work experience
 - 9) Work style
 - 10) Geographic Location
 - 11) Organization role and level (Loden, 1996)
- b. The secondary dimensions are less visible to others, more changeable, and more variable in the degree or influence they exert on one's life. Together these dimensions form an individual's self-image and the filters through which he or she views the rest of the world. (Loden, 1996)

E. Diversity and Socialization

Together, the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity help shape our values, attitudes, and perceptions—the socialization of our culture and our self.

Each primary and secondary dimension adds additional complexity to our personalities and affects the ways in which we perceive ourselves and others (Loden, 1996).

When the perceptions and expectations others have of us are closely aligned with our own, conflict is less likely.

When we face conflicts over our perceptions and the perceptions of others based on one or more dimension, it becomes obvious differences do matter.

1. Effects of the Dimensions of Diversity Upon Socialization

- a. When the perceptions and expectations that others have of you are closely aligned with your own (matching), conflict is unlikely and the impact of the dimension becomes less obvious. (Loden, 1996)

- b. When we face conflicts between our perceptions and the perceptions of others based on one of the dimensions (not matching), it becomes obvious that differences do matter. (Loden, 1996)
- c. During periods of conflict, we become more aware of the ways in which biases about the dimensions of our diversity can impede progress.

2. Individual Diversity Awareness/Development

The developmental model of intercultural sensitivity, or DMIS, was first proposed by sociologist Milton Bennett in the mid-1980s. The DMIS is not a model of attitude change or of skill acquisition. Rather, it is a model of the development of worldview structure. (Bennett, 2006)

The six-stage model is also referred to as the Bennett (1998) scale. It includes two stages, each of which comprises of three steps. In the DMIS model, individuals may go up or down a continuum of six levels. As an individual makes progress upward on the scale, they become more able to sensitively perceive and communicate with different cultures.

- a. In the ethnocentric stage, individuals assume that their respective culture is central to the reality perceived by all others.
 - 1) Denial – The most basic stage of ethnocentrism and reflects an orientation which assumes there are no real differences among people from different cultures.
 - 2) Defense – Refers to a more explicit recognition of differences coupled with more overt attempts at erecting defenses against them. In this state, differences are not only viewed suspiciously; they are considered threatening to one's self-esteem and identity.
 - 3) Minimization – Individuals in this level recognize cultural differences, but trivialize them. Individuals at this level believe that human similarities are more important than differences.
- b. In Bennett's (1998) ethnorelative stage, individuals experience other cultures as equally complex, but different constructions of reality.
 - 1) Acceptance – Involves an acknowledgment that identifying significant cultural differences is crucial to understanding human interaction. The recognition of alternative cultural behavior involves an acceptance of deep cultural differences in language, nonverbal behavior, and styles of thinking and communicating.
 - 2) Adaptation – In the second level of the ethnorelative stage, individuals have achieved high levels of sensitivity. They may change their behaviors to communicate more effectively with people of another culture, use empathy by imagining another

person's perspective, and go beyond empathy to internalize other cultural frames of reference.

- 3) Integration – In the topmost level of the ethnorelative stage, individuals have achieved the ultimate level of diversity awareness. A person at this level has the ability to analyze and evaluate situations from more than one perspective. While this is the ultimate level of awareness, diversity individuals should continue to learn and build relationships with other cultures.

F. Individual Diversity Awareness Strategies

1. Effective personal development progresses along head, hands, and heart.
 - a. First, we approach diversity topics intellectually, as knowledge to be learned (head).
 - b. Then, we apply what we have learned and turn it into actions (hands).
 - c. Later, our feelings will likely follow our thinking and acting on the diversity issues (heart).
 - d. Here are some considerations:
 - 1) Put yourself in the other person's shoes.
 - 2) An individual's level of diversity awareness influences choices made in strategies to respond to differences (e.g., gender identity, ethnicity, religion, age, socioeconomic level, and race).
 - 3) As an EOA, developing your individual diversity awareness is the key to being able to recognize and help your unit members work together effectively.
 - 4) You should help unit members develop reflective thinking, empathy, understanding, raised awareness, sensitivity, an understanding of consequences, and a desire to be fair.
2. The best diversity interventions include all three aspects, but many times the head and hands are sufficient to initiate change. The heart can follow.
3. Understanding one's own attitudes and values about diversity is essential to understanding, appreciating, and responding to differences in others.
4. Understanding self
 - a. Be equipped to cope with issues that arise and be able to engage with and challenge yours and others' prejudices and stereotypes around differences.

- b. To become more aware of diversity, you should:
- 1) Be aware of your own cultural influences.
 - 2) Be aware of judging others' behavior and beliefs according to the standards of your own culture.
 - 3) Be aware of making assumptions about cultural influences and applying generalizations to individuals.
 - 4) Understand that the behavior and beliefs of people within each culture can vary considerably.
 - 5) Understand that not all people identify with their cultural or religious background.
 - 6) Understand that culture itself is a fluid entity that is undergoing transformations as a result of personal realizations.
 - 7) Increase your knowledge about different cultural practices and issues.
 - 8) Understand the importance of clear and effective communication.
 - 9) Monitor your verbal and nonverbal communication behaviors.
 - 10) Identify behaviors that enhance or detract from work group readiness.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. State DoD and the Services definition for diversity.
- B. Recognize the importance of diversity in the workplace.
- C. Recognize the relationship between diversity and inclusion.
- D. Identify primary and secondary dimensions of diversity.
- E. List the dimensions of diversity that exert an impact on the socialization process.
- F. Identify individual diversity strategies.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 1500

ETHICS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Whether you are a commander, an EOA, or in any leadership position you are a professional. From your own personal and ethical point of view, you will be responsible for deciding what course of action is most appropriate for a given situation. In addition, you will be called upon to advise your commander and others on how to proceed ethically to resolve various issues.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 1500 Ethics
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture and a study guide, comprehend how ethical decision-making can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define values.	K	CRT
B. Define morals.	K	CRT
C. Define ethics.	K	CRT
D. Describe moral theory.	C	CRT
E. Describe ethical decision-making.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ETHICS

A. Values

Values are our conceptions of what is good or bad, desirable or not, proper or improper (Schaefer, 2008). They include personal values, socially accepted values, and military values. Different groups of people uphold different values.

Values categories

1. Personal: Family, environment, and nation.
2. Social: Developed early in life; put the rights of wider groups of people first.
3. Political: Beliefs about the best way to govern a country or organization.
4. Economic: Focus on money. Examples include equal employment, economic stability, property ownership, and taxes.
5. Religious: Ethical principles founded in religious traditions, texts, and beliefs. Religious-based values (ethics) are based on scripture and a religion's established norms.

B. Morals

1. Definition:

Morals reflect beliefs about right and wrong conduct (Agnes & Guralnik, 2006), what to do in light of values.

2. Implications
 - a. Behaviors are deemed desirable or undesirable by a society.
 - b. Morals reflect local sensibilities.
 - c. Societies have different ideas about what behaviors are acceptable and unacceptable, moral or immoral.
 - d. Society can and does require people to behave in ways deemed moral. Example: the UCMJ evolved from a collection of moral standards into a formal legal code that directs the behavior of all who serve in the military.

C. Ethics

1. Definition: Ethics is the standard of conduct governing an individual or an organization (Nelson & Trevino, 2007) and developed through continual reflection of right and wrong.
2. Ethics is based on individual values and morals, or the values and morals set by society.
3. Ethics encompasses two concepts:
 - a. What is the right conduct for me?
 - b. What is the right conduct for others?

D. Moral Theory

1. Making Moral Decisions
 - a. Moral decisions result in the commander and other military members taking actions that will bring the greatest benefit to the greatest number or that enable the unit to fulfill the mission. At times, they decide in favor of actions based on principles or rules.
 - b. The most commonly used means of moral reasoning and moral decision-making in the military is goal-based ethics, followed by principle-based ethics.
2. Goal-Based Ethics
 - a. Definition: Centered on either an outcome-based ethical ideal or the idea that by making ethical decisions, you enjoy some greater benefit.
 - b. Three principal difficulties with goal-based ethics:
 - 1) Who determines whose good is *the good*? Those with the greatest numbers? Those possessing the greatest rank and power?
 - 2) One cannot know if one has done the right thing until the action is completed.
 - 3) The moral life is full of uncertainties, and we can make mistakes about our predictions and decisions. Do the ends justify the means?
3. Principle-Based Ethics
 - a. Definition: Focuses on theories of the importance of general principles, such as respect for autonomy, beneficence/non-maleficence, and justice.

- b. Involve making decisions founded on principles (philosophy, beliefs, doctrine, etc.) and sense of duty. Intentions should be of primary importance, not the consequences.
- c. May result in consequences that are difficult to live with (e.g., Lying to save a life).
- d. Very difficult way of life (e.g., Choosing to tell a would-be murderer a lie about the whereabouts of a murderer's intended victim, even if we believe lying to be wrong, rather than telling the murderer the location of the intended victim because being honest is always the right thing to do).

E. Ethical Decision-Making

1. Find the facts. What are the specific details?
2. List the benefits and harms.
 - a. Consider the potential solutions and their effects.
 - b. What course of action produces these?
 - c. Which alternative will lead to the best overall results?
3. Identify which course of action treats everyone fairly.

Can there be a morally justifiable reason to not act in a fair manner?
4. Identify the principles involved.
 - a. Determine the principles involved (e.g., issues of human rights, First Amendment rights, civil rights, and the UCMJ).
 - b. What course of action best respects those rights?
5. Consider the potential training possibilities.
 - a. Choose a course of action that educates and uplifts other unit members in that goal.
 - b. Choose a course of action that develops the morality you wish to see displayed, or that the military and/or nation advocates.
 - c. Identify important considerations necessary to sound, ethical decision-making.
 - d. Deliberate on moral issues and be mindful of facts and ethical considerations involved.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define values.
- B. Define morals.
- C. Define ethics.
- D. Describe moral theory.
- E. Describe ethical decision-making.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 2000

PRESENTATION SKILLS



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will familiarize students with how to prepare for and conduct the types of formal presentations or briefs Equal Opportunity Advisors (EOAs) will need to present. This lesson is an introduction to a skill that is improved upon by practice and experience. Students will leave with a basic understanding of how to prepare and present a formal brief.

Recommended Reading

DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

References

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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–Presentation Skills
2. Computer

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture and a study guide, know how to apply the fundamental skills associated with good presentations, with no less than 70% on a Criterion Referenced Test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify the different types of formal briefs.	K	CRT
B. Identify the format used to prepare and present a formal brief.	K	CRT
C. Identify briefing considerations used during a formal brief.	K	CRT
D. Describe types of support material used to conduct a formal brief.	K	CRT
Total Time: 2.5 Hrs		
Knowledge = K Comprehension = C Application = A Criterion Referenced Test = CRT		
Written Assignment = W Small Group Experience = SGE Presentation Evaluation = PE		

PRESENTATION SKILLS

A. Types of Formal Briefs

1. Information Brief

- a. Purpose is to keep the listener abreast of the current situation and supply specific information
- b. Designed to inform the listener and gain their understanding. Deals with:
 - 1) High priority facts and information requiring immediate action.
 - 2) Complex information on complicated plans, systems, statistics, or visuals.
 - 3) Controversial information requiring explanation.
 - 4) May have conclusions or recommendations.

2. Advocacy/Decision Brief

- a. Purpose is to persuade an audience to act; produce an answer to a question; or obtain a decision on a specific problem
 - 1) Advocacy Brief – “Sell” your audience on a new idea, new policy, new product, or change in current operations. Requires convincing evidence and support.
 - 2) Decision Brief – Briefer states he/she is looking for a decision. Ask for decision if one is not forthcoming at conclusion.
- b. Briefer must be prepared to present:
 - 1) Assumptions
 - 2) Facts
 - 3) Alternative solutions
 - 4) Reasons/rationale for recommended solution(s)
 - 5) Coordination involved
 - 6) Visual information
- c. Advise appropriate staff elements of the commander’s decision after the brief.

3. Staff Brief

- a. Purpose is to secure a coordinated effort and rapidly disseminate information orally, aid group decision-making, and secure a united effort.
- b. Most widely used and flexible type of brief – used at all levels of command
- c. Visuals make complex issues clearer
- d. Keeps commanders/staff abreast of situation(s)
- e. May involve an exchange of information, issuance of directives, or presentation of guidance

4. Mission Brief

- a. Purpose of a Mission Brief is to impart information that is used to elaborate on an order, give specific instructions, or instill an appreciation for the mission
- b. Briefer must exercise care to avoid confusion or conflict with orders
- c. Uses maps and graphical representations of situation(s)
- d. Mission briefing format varies from command to command

B. Briefing/Presentation Format

1. Introduction

- a. Stage setting remarks (Attention Step):
 - 1) Set the tone of the communication
 - 2) Focused on the topic/purpose
 - 3) Gain the audience's attention
 - 4) Establish rapport
- b. Purpose statement:
 - 1) Tells the audience why briefing is being given and what is in it for them.
 - 2) It specifically states your purpose, thesis, or main point.

c. Overview:

- 1) Present list of main points to be covered and identify areas and depth that each main point will cover
- 2) Preview sequence to the audience
- 3) Ties main points to purpose

2. Body

a. Organization

- 1) Well organized and easy to follow
- 2) Present a pattern and strategy of organization that actively contributes to the development of the topic

b. Support Data

- 1) Groups related ideas into single units of thought
 - a) Separate one unit of thought from another
 - b) Alert audience when shifting to another phase of subject
- 2) Relevant and credible statistics and/or testimony to support main points must be presented
- 3) Present ample facts and examples and relate these to the audience

3. Conclusion

a. Summary

- 1) Will foster retention
- 2) Review and reemphasize the main points and not introduce new ideas

b. Closure

- 1) Close with positive statements based on your communication
- 2) Leave the audience with a sense of completion

4. Transition

The fourth element within the structure of the formal brief is the transitions which tie together the parts of the briefing or presentation.

C. Briefing Considerations for a Formal Brief

1. Essential Tips:

- a. Know the material: Learn more about the subject than included in the speech. Use humor, personal stories, and conversational language to help remember what to say.
- b. Practice: Practice! Practice! Rehearse out loud using all of the equipment planned to use. Revise as necessary. Work to control filler words; practice, pause, and breathe. Practice with a timer and allow time for the unexpected.
- c. Know the audience: Greet the audience members as they arrive. It's easier to speak to a group of friends than to strangers.
- d. Know the room: Arrive early, walk around the speaking area and practice using the microphone and any visual aids.
- e. Relax: Begin by addressing the audience. It buys time and calms nerves. Pause, smile, and count to three before saying anything (One one-thousand, two one-thousand, three one-thousand, pause, and begin). Transform nervous energy into enthusiasm.
- f. Visualize giving the speech: Imagine speaking with a voice that is loud, clear, and confident. Have the initial remarks well in mind. The first few moments are the most difficult; get past these and the rest of the speech will go well. Visualize the audience clapping—it will boost confidence.
- g. Realize that people want you to succeed: Audiences want you to be interesting, stimulating, informative, and entertaining. They're rooting for you.
- h. Don't apologize for any nervousness or problem—the audience probably never noticed it.
- i. Concentrate on the message not the medium: Focus attention away from own anxieties and concentrate on the message and the audience.
- j. Gain experience: Your speech should mainly represent you as an authority and as a person. Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking. (Toastmasters International, 2012)

2. Presentation and Delivery Skills

a. Eye contact: Direct and impartial.

- 1) Establish good eye contact. Look for feedback (nods, puzzled looks). This search for feedback will take your mind off yourself and help you focus on the audience.
- 2) Be deliberate. Watch your audience and go with a pace that is comfortable for them.
- 3) Do not:
 - a) Scan the audience too quickly
 - b) Look at the floor
 - c) Look at the horizon

b. Voice quality: Make voice quality more pleasant by developing proper emphasis, making the presentation more intelligible, and providing a pleasing variation that will hold the listener's attention

- 1) Pitch: the voice should be natural. Use the pitch level at which you can speak with greatest ease and clarity and then vary this pitch to produce emphasis where needed.
- 2) Volume of voice: Speak loudly enough for all listeners to hear without difficulty. On the other hand, too loud a voice is deafening and the hearing attention soon dulls in self-defense.
- 3) Rate of Speech: Complex material should be presented slowly. Speaking too fast will make speech unintelligible; speak too slowly and the meaning will suffer
- 4) Articulation, Enunciation, and Pronunciation: Speak clearly and distinctly. Strive for clarity of expression. Pronounce or accent each syllable distinctly and clearly

c. Speech

- 1) Choice of words: Choose words carefully. The right word in the right place is the keynote of effective speech. Use terms that are common to the vocabulary of the listeners. If certain complex terms are essential, use them, but define each one.
- 2) Formation of sentences: Use short sentences. Signal the end of sentences by voice inflection. Do not pad sentences and clutter delivery with trite expressions

- 3) Pauses:
 - a) Listeners are able to absorb ideas more easily.
 - b) You get an opportunity to focus on your next point.
 - c) You give emphasis, meaning, and interpretation to your ideas you get a chance to breathe.
 - d) Length - Be brief and concise. Know what to say and say it.
- d. Movement and Gestures: Free and natural
 - 1) Posture and movement: Your presence creates a general impression of you as a speaker. Stand erect and alert, but don't look artificial. Avoid rocking back and forth or side to side, or slouching on one leg and then the other. Make your movements natural
 - a) Feet about shoulder width apart
 - b) Body Squared to Audience
 - c) Shoulder, hips, and knees aligned
 - d) No swaying, pacing, or shifting weight
 - e) Movement is purposeful
 - 2) Facial Expression - Normal, casual conversation
 - 3) Gestures - Gesture around chest/shoulder height. Do not fidget or use distracting mannerisms (Not mechanical)
3. Final Preparation
 - a. Set up brief location:
 - 1) Arrange seating
 - 2) Pre-stage handouts/displays/visuals
 - 3) Arrange for refreshments (if needed)
 - b. Check equipment: Perform equipment pre-use inspection

4. Deliver the brief
 - a. Ask developed questions.
 - b. Answer questions.
 - c. Be prepared to execute back-up plan: Hand out backup materials, if needed.
5. After the brief: Collect brief materials/media
 - a. Provide your contact information to audience members.
 - b. Depending on the type of brief, be available for further follow-up and questions.

D. Types of Support Material Used to Conduct a Formal Brief

1. Read-Ahead Material: Include an agenda and/or any background materials needed to prepare the listener before hearing the formal presentation.
2. Point, Talking, and Position Paper
 - a. Point Paper – a memory tickler or quick-reference outline used during meetings or to informally pass information quickly to another person or office.
 - b. Talking Paper – a quick-reference outline on key points, facts, positions, questions to use during oral presentations and speeches.
 - c. Position Papers – publish the official beliefs and recommendations of a group.

Commonly, a position paper substantiates the opinions or positions put forward with evidence from an extensive objective discussion of the topic.

3. Visual Aids
 - a. General considerations
 - 1) Audience should be able to quickly look at visual aid and get the point
 - 2) Think about visual aids from the perspective of the audience
 - 3) Make it professional, neat, and organized
 - 4) Visual aid should be pertinent to speech

- b. There are various types of visual aids:
 - 1) Props
 - 2) Media clips (e.g., movies, music, newsreels)
 - 3) Charts/graphs
 - 4) Butcher paper/dry erase board
 - 5) Handouts
 - 6) PowerPoint® presentations
- c. When developing a PowerPoint® presentation, ensure it is:
 - 1) Be easy to see
 - 2) Be easy to understand
 - 3) Look professional
 - 4) Not distracting
 - 5) Have relevance to the topic, purpose, and audience
 - 6) Appropriate

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify the different types of formal briefs.
- B. Identify the format used to prepare and present a formal brief.
- C. Identify briefing considerations used during a formal brief.
- D. Describe types of support material used to conduct a formal brief.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 2200

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an equal opportunity advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to pick up where presentation skills left off and to help the students understand how they will prepare for and present their Race and Ethnic Studies guided discussion. The lesson will present to students the instructional skills needed to be an effective EOA. The lesson is taught from a military training perspective. It is an introduction to a skill that is improved by practice and experience. Students will leave with a basic understanding and practical experience of instructional skills required of an EOA.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 2200 Training Development and Delivery
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a study guide, small-group instructions, preparation time, and collaboration with a partner, students will develop and facilitate a 45-minute guided discussion, scoring a “GO” on the criterion checklist. Each student will also be required to score a minimum of 70% on a Criterion Referenced Test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure	Time
A. Describe the teaching lecture	K	CRT	10 Min
B. Describe the guided discussion	K	CRT	30 Min
C. Identify how to prepare for a training session	K	CRT	20 Min
D. Identify how to deliver a training session	K	CRT	20 Min
Total Lecture Time			1.5 Hrs
The Introduction and Summary should each take approximately 10% of the total formal lecture time. K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development			

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY

A. Teaching Lecture

1. Definition: A teaching lecture is a formal or informal presentation of information, concepts or principles given by a single individual (United States Air Force, 2003).
2. Types of teaching lectures: Formal and Informal
 - a. The formal lecture is usually conducted from behind a lectern and there is no verbal interaction between the instructor and the students.
 - 1) The instructor simply tells the students the information without giving the students a chance to intervene and ask questions.
 - 2) The communication is one-way. Usually a formal lecture is used with large groups (i.e., 50 people or more).

- b. The informal lecture is conducted with verbal interaction between the instructor and students.
 - 1) The students and the teacher ask questions and provide comments to enhance the lesson.
 - 2) It is usually held in groups smaller than 50 people. If the instructor is experienced and able to handle larger groups, they may do an informal lecture with groups larger than 50 people.
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of the Teaching Lecture
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Ideal for introducing a subject and teaching facts
 - 2) Presents information to a large group of students at one time
 - 3) Allows for note taking and reference to other material
 - 4) Effective way of motivating students to learn by a person who has experience
 - 5) Supplement to other methods
 - 6) Prepares students for discussion
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Limits student participation
 - 2) Unable to use lecture to teach skills
 - 3) Difficult to evaluate learning
 - 4) Difficult to maintain students' attention

B. Describe The Guided Discussion

1. Definition: Instructor controlled group process in which students share information and experiences to achieve a learning objective.
 - a. A method of teaching using questions to encourage participation
 - b. The learning situation involves exchanging ideas, opinions and experiences

- c. During guided discussions, facilitators ask questions, pose problems, and direct student participation.
2. Basic Characteristics of a Guided Discussion
 - a. Tied to a standard of performance (measurable)
 - b. Self-contained unit of work
 - c. Adapted to the needs of the learner
 - d. Has a definite structure
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Guided Discussion
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Allows everyone to participate in the learning situation
 - 2) Pools knowledge and experience of all participants
 - 3) Stimulates and motivates participants when well organized
 - 4) More closely simulates real-world situations through discussions
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Can be very time-consuming
 - 2) Limits the number of participants
 - 3) Can degenerate quickly if not skillfully controlled
 - 4) Some members may feel intimidated or reluctant to participate

C. Preparing the Training Session

There are many ways to prepare a training session. The following are simple guidelines:

1. Develop training objectives

Training objectives – a concise statement that describes what one should be able to do upon completion of training.

- a. Emphasis should be placed on what the trainee can do, rather than what they know or how they feel.
 - b. Objectives describe learning in terms of student outcomes.
 - c. Measurement of success is based on comparing student performance to the objective.
2. Conduct your research – read, review, and research up-to-date information
- a. Internal sources – personal experience and knowledge you already possess
 - b. Internet sources – Search engine (Google, Yahoo, Bing, etc.) will result in numerous hits. Evaluate each site for validity:
 - 1) Accountability – who owns the website?
 - 2) Accuracy – is the information on the site accurate and reliable (closely related to accountability)?
 - 3) Objectivity – is the information biased or objective?
 - 4) Date – Is the information recent?
 - 5) Usability – Is the information presented in a way that is easy to use and understand?
 - c. Library sources – can the information be accessed at the DEOMI library, online through Web OPAC, or other library search engines
 - 1) Books
 - 2) Periodicals
 - 3) Full-text databases
 - 4) Newspapers
 - 5) Government documents
 - d. Expert resources – educators, professionals, and organizations
3. Organize your lesson (Develop a teaching plan)
- a. Develop training content – training content is the information, definitions, descriptions, concepts, and skills that you present
 - b. Build an outline

- c. Select your teaching pattern or strategy
 - 1) Chronological or sequential – arranging the content in the time order or in the order in things occurred
 - 2) Cause-effect – one set of conditions is presented as the cause of another set
 - 3) Problem-solution – “disease-remedy” pattern. Presents a problem and proposes a solution
 - 4) Pro-con – usually equally covers two sides to an issue
 - 5) Topical – categorizing the main points by topic
- d. Prepare your introduction – A teaching lecture and guided discussion are introduced in the same way with attention, motivation, and overview steps
 - 1) Attention – the primary purpose is to gain the audience’s attention and focus them on the topic.
 - 2) Motivation – Describe the specific reason why the students need to participate in this lesson
 - 3) Overview
- e. Develop your questions

During a guided discussion, the content for each lesson objective is discovered through question and answer rather than the instructor telling students as they would in a teaching lecture.

While some of your questions during the guided discussion are spontaneous, you need to develop your lead-off questions (LOQ) and follow-up questions (FUQ) as you develop your teaching plan.

- 1) LOQ – opens areas for discussion

You should have an LOQ for each main point in the discussion. A LOQ is used to initiate (spark) discussion and to get students thinking about the first main point you presented in the overview.

- 2) FUQ – solicits specific responses to cover lesson content
- 3) Spontaneous questions – used to extract more information and keep the discussion moving

- f. Determine training time frames
 - 1) Total time of training event
 - 2) Time within each main point
 - 3) Time within introduction and conclusion
- g. Select training materials
 - 1) Develop participant's guide or other handouts
 - 2) Develop training tools (e.g., PowerPoint® visuals, chart paper, markers, videos, etc.)

D. Delivering the Training Session

- 1. Personalizing your lesson plan
 - a. Purpose – Personalization is the act of adding individual subject matter knowledge to the instructional process.
 - b. Examples of personalization
 - 1) Subject- matter detail
 - 2) Instructional techniques
 - 3) Personal experiences
 - 4) Examples and analogies
 - 5) Introduction, transitions, and conclusion
- 2. Characteristics common to good instructors
 - a. Effective instructors are knowledgeable
 - 1) Become the subject-matter expert
 - 2) Know more about the subject than your students
 - b. Effective instructors possess ability
 - 1) Leadership

- a) Planning and organizational skills
 - b) Flexibility
 - c) Make best use of resources
 - d) Monitor progress and results
 - e) Discipline and reward
 - f) Skill to influence or persuade others
 - g) Maintain self-control
 - h) Lead by example
- 2) Instructional skills
- a) Know principles, methods, and techniques of instruction
 - b) How and when to apply them
 - c) Know the strategy and lesson content
- c. Personality traits effective instructors possess
- 1) Sincere
 - 2) Nonjudgmental
 - 3) Patient
 - 4) Integrity
 - 5) Understanding
- d. Effective instructors are good communicators
- 1) Students understand why the information needs to be learned
 - 2) Inspire, encourage, persuade, and motivate
- e. Effective instructors have an intrinsic desire to teach
- f. Effective instructors have the respect of students

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the teaching lecture.
- B. Describe the guided discussion.
- C. Describe how to prepare for a training session.
- D. Describe how to deliver a training session.

The following topics will be conducted and evaluated for the Guided Discussion Activity:

- E. Prepare a teaching plan.
- F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion.

END OF LESSON

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366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3000

POWER AND PRIVILEGE



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will demonstrate that power and its associated privilege can sometimes create exclusive work environments at the expense of others. Power and privilege can also make it possible for certain groups to obtain and maintain control over those who have limited power and privilege, which can lead to discriminatory practices. It is the intent of this lesson to point out facts showing relationship between the powerful and the privileged. In this lesson, students will discover how ingrained and taken for granted power and privilege are and how they impact society. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional, you must understand that privilege and power are human relation issues that affect unit cohesion and mission accomplishment.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Star Power activity

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 3000 Power and Privilege
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, study guide, and experiential learning activities, comprehend how power and privilege impact mission effectiveness, with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define power.	K	CRT
B. Identify the types of power.	K	CRT
C. Identify the misuse (abuse) of power.	C	CRT
D. Define privilege.	K	CRT
E. Identify the types of privilege.	C	CRT
F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).	K	CRT
G. Recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure	Time
Star Power	Recognize effects of power among individuals	ISDE	3.5 Hours

POWER AND PRIVILEGE

A. Definition of Power

Merriam-Webster (2013) defines power as “the ability or official capacity to exercise control over others; a person, group, or nation having great influence or control over others.”

B. Identify the Types of Power

1. Types of power (Cartwright & Zander, 1968)

a. Political power

In the official capacity, political power is held by the political leader of a state, such as a president, prime minister, or monarch. Political powers are not limited to heads of states, however, the extent to which a person or group holds such power is related to the amount of societal influence they can wield, formally or informally.

b. Physical Power:

The energy or motive force by which a physical system or machine is operated (e.g. turbines turned by steam power; a sailing ship driven by wind power; the human body digesting food and water).

c. Social power:

The potential influence of one person over another.

2. Bases of Social Power (Hershey & Blanchard, 2012)

a. Legitimate power

Based on a person in a higher position having control over people in a lower position in an organization.

b. Coercive power

Based on a person that leads by threat, real or imagined force. Fear of being hurt, poorly treated, or dismissed allows the wielders of this power to rule over the fearful. It is unlikely to win respect and loyalty of employees for long.

c. Reward power

Based on the person that motivates others by offering raises, recognition, promotions, awards, money, or goods to follow.

d. Expert power

Based on the person who sets the perception that one possesses superior skills, talent or knowledge.

e. Referent power

Based on the person who has the ability to convey a sense of personal acceptance or approval. It is held by people with charisma, integrity, and other positive qualities. It is the most valuable type of power.

f. Information power

Based on a person who possesses needed or necessary information for the successful functioning of the organization or mission. This is a short-term power that doesn't necessarily influence or build credibility.

g. Connection power

Based on a person who attains influence by gaining favor or simply acquaintance with a powerful person. This power is more commonly referred to as "networking" these days.

3. Categories of Power (French and Raven)

a. Formal (*Positional*) Power:

- 1) Formal power is conferred on a person; it is not necessarily earned. In other words, formal power is a function of position not necessarily ability.
- 2) It is a function of position, rank, or status.
- 3) Authority is given to a person who holds a certain position in the organization and is supported by the organization.
- 4) It may include the ability to reward and punish.

b. Informal (*Personal*) Power:

- 1) Informal power comes from forms of leverage; these types of power must be earned and maintained. Unlike formal power bases, they cannot be conferred.
- 2) It is mostly a function of ability, personality, or association.
- 3) It may be based on knowledge and skills.

- 4) Power based on expertise can only be exercised if others recognize the ability and have a use for it.
- 5) May be based on trust developed through friendship or personality characteristics.
- 6) Trust as a power base builds on common goals, fosters good relationships, and can overcome authority relationship viewed as negative.
- 7) May be based on association with a group or another person perceived to have power.

C. Identify the Misuse (Abuse) of Power

1. Definition:

“Abuse of Power- Improper use of authority by someone who has a position of power in an abusive way” (West’s Encyclopedia of American Law, 2nd ed.)

Abuse of power can take many forms, such as:

- a. Taking advantage of someone,
- b. Gaining access to information that shouldn’t be accessible to the public, or
- c. Manipulating someone with the ability to punish them if they don’t comply (Cuming, 1981).

2. Types of Abuse (Supervisory/Position)

In recent times, reports of power and its use have come to the forefront when analyzing unit readiness in the U.S. Armed Forces (Inspector General’s Office). Supervisors, those who retain “formal power” (positional power), can abuse their power in many ways.

- a. Speech: Supervisors can abuse their power through their speech, including making criticisms about employees’ physical appearance, work skills, and intellect.
- b. Tone: The tone of a supervisor’s voice for example. A supervisor raising her voice at an employee or using foul language can constitute emotional abuse.
- c. Ignoring/threatening: Ignoring and threatening employees with paycheck reductions or loss of a promotion are abusive.
- d. Physical: Touching, hitting, and slapping are all indications of the misuse of power.

3. Abuse of Power and its Effects

As an EOA, you may see the effects associated with the abuse of power within an organization. Using the climate assessment survey, otherwise known as the DEOCS, you might see issues and concerns that need to be addressed.

EOAs need to address these issues with their commands to minimize negative effects, such as stress, low self-esteem, and distress.

- a. The U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey conducted by the *Workplace Bullying and Trauma Institute* in September 2007 found that employees who suffered from abuse experienced a significant amount of stress at work and the stress lasted longer than a year, which impacted employee health.
- b. Moreover, employees reported feeling mentally distressed, which affected their focus at work.
- c. Other studies by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES), associated with the U.S. Department of Education (Counseling Outfitters) showed that employees dealing with workplace abuse suffer from lack of self-esteem and decreased productivity.

4. The Consequences of Abuse of Power

Supervisors who abuse their authority at work can face serious consequences.

- a. Lawsuits and fines
- b. UCMJ action
- c. Other non-judicial punishment

5. Resources

- a. Chain of Command
- b. Inspector General (IG)
- c. Labor relations agencies
- d. State and federal agencies that handle abuse and harassment in the workplace.

Note: If the abuse becomes physical, employees should contact law enforcement or other legal authorities.

D. Definition of Privilege

1. Privilege Defined

- a. A special advantage, immunity, permission, right, or benefit granted to or enjoyed by an individual, class, or caste. (Merriam-Webster Online, 2013)
- b. An advantage, immunity, or right held as a prerogative of status or rank, and exercised to the exclusion or detriment of others.

2. Privilege can be Earned or Unearned

- a. “Earned Privilege” is acquired as a result of effort or action.
- b. “Unearned Privilege” is an advantage based on social group membership (in-group) that simultaneously disadvantages members outside that social group (out-group).

Furthermore, members of advantaged social groups typically are unaware of their privileges, whereas members of disadvantaged social groups typically are sensitized to the disadvantages of not having the privilege (McIntosh, 1988; Wildman, et.al. 1996).

E. Types of Privilege

Privilege can also be linked to various forms of identity such as:

- Race/Ethnic privilege
- Socioeconomic privilege
- Sexual orientation privilege
- Sex (Biological) privilege
- Religious privilege (University of Vermont; Media Smarts, 2014)

1. Race/Ethnicity

Privileges associated with an individual’s race/ethnicity is considered unearned. Historically, racial privilege was based upon the dominant culture. However, all races and ethnicities have some form of privilege; though, some have more than others (Parillo, 2007)

2. Socioeconomic Privilege

- a. Socioeconomic privilege includes individual attitudes, behaviors, and systems of policies and practices that are set up to benefit the upper classes at the expense of the lower classes.

- b. Socioeconomic privilege, also known as classism or elitism, is grounded in a hierarchy belief system that ranks people according to socioeconomic status, family lineage, and other class related divisions. (Parillo, 2007)

3. Sexual Orientation Privilege

- a. Sexual orientation privilege is associated with the marginalization of non-heterosexual lifestyles and the view that heterosexuality is the normal sexual orientation. Instances of this include the idea that people fall into two distinct and complementary categories (male and female), that sexual and marital relations are normal only when between people of different sexes, and that each sex has certain natural roles in life.
- b. Department of Defense Directive 1020.02E, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the Department of Defense* (2015) establishes policy, assigns responsibilities, and provides an overarching framework for DoD diversity, military EO, and civilian equal employment opportunity (EEO) programs and plans to prevent unlawful discrimination.
- c. In July 2014, President Obama signed an Executive Order banning Federal contractors from discriminating against employees on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity (CNN Politics, 2014).
- d. All Service members, regardless of sexual orientation, are entitled to an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. Harassment or abuse based on sexual orientation is unacceptable and will be dealt with through command or IG channels.
- e. However, perceived privileges associated with sexual orientation are evident in today's society.
- f. Historically, a heterosexual orientation came with certain privileges, such as:
 - 1) Public recognition and support for an intimate relationship
 - 2) Kissing, hugging, and being affectionate in public without threat or punishment
- a. As an EOA, it is important to note that sexual orientation **will now** be considered with race, color, religion, sex, and national origin as a class under the Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) program and will be handled through the MEO complaint process. Reference *DoDD 1020.02E Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the DoD*.
- g. Executive Order 11478, section 1 prohibits discrimination in employment based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, handicap, or age, and to promote the full realization of equal employment opportunity through a continuing affirmative program in each executive department and agency. This policy of equal opportunity applies to and must be an integral part of every aspect of personnel policy and practice in the employment,

development, advancement, and treatment of civilian employees of the Federal Government.

4. Sex (Biological)

- a. Sex privilege is a term used to describe the perceived freedoms granted to a person (normally heterosexual) based upon their biological sex (e.g. public displays of affection, etc.).
- b. Transsexual, transgender, and sometimes homosexual populations, are denied the freedom enjoyed by heterosexual couples.

5. Religion

- a. Religious privilege is seen in a society that provides its dominant religion special status. The favoring of religious beliefs and religious figures is predominating within a society.
- b. Many societies privilege religions by providing official sanction and support for their holy days. Religious holy days have become official state holidays.

The U.S. Constitution proscribes Congress from enacting any law prohibiting the free exercise of religion.

c. Religious Accommodation in the DoD

As described in DoDI 1300.17, *Accommodation of Religious Practices Within the Military Services*, the DoD places a high value on the rights of members of the military services to observe the tenets of their respective religions. It is DoD policy that requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on mission accomplishment, military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.

Note: Federal government employees can file claims of discrimination under the Part 1614 EEO process on any of the bases covered under the laws EEOC enforces, and/or may also utilize additional complaint procedures described in EEO law.

F. Recall Social Dominance Theory (Dominate Group Privilege)

In your role as an EOA, specifically when assessing the organizational climate or even processing a complaint, you should be aware of some potential privileges associated with dominant groups. These privileges cause concern when they influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The theory behind social dominance in our society will help shed light on some issues and concerns seen by an EOA.

1. Social Dominance Theory

- a. According to social dominance theory, societies are organized into group-based hierarchies with inequitable distributions of limited resources favoring dominant groups at the expense of subordinates (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- b. Social dominance theory proposes that societies contain ideologies that either promote or attenuate intergroup hierarchies (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).
- c. The acceptance of ideologies that legitimize inequality and its associated behavior is partly determined by people's general desire for group-based dominance, which is captured by a construct associated with dominant group privilege. This allows the dominant group to maintain control and their privileges.

2. Privilege and Discrimination

- a. Within social dominance theory, individual and structural distinctions are made among groups based on gender and—arbitrary-set distinctions such as race, ethnicity, class, nationality, or religion (Sidanius et al., 2004, p. 861).
- b. Dominant groups derive psychological and material rewards from the privileges, esteem, and power they receive in the traditional status of hierarchy (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- c. Social dominance theory indicates that constant group-based oppression can influence systematic institutional and individual discrimination (Levin, 2004).
- d. Many social institutions, such as organizations, and powerful individuals disproportionately allocate (control) desired goods, such as selection for employment, power, and prestige, to members of dominant and privileged groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- e. Institutional discrimination can be accounted for in terms of consensual discrimination based upon specific societal norms embodied in the institution, which prescribe the nature and extent of this discrimination (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).

3. Dominant Group Demographics

The dominant group is the group with more power and privilege over minority groups. According to the 2012 statistics from the U.S. Census Bureau, the dominant groups within the United States are:

- Race: White alone, not Hispanic or Latino = 63%
 - Gender: Females = 50.8%
- a. From a statistical perspective, White females are narrowly identified as the dominant group. However, when identifying the dominant group (the group with the power and

perceived privilege) within a society, we sometimes have to look beyond the statistics and focus on who has the power and privilege.

- b. Understanding this concept can help an EOA understand the social dynamic of an organization during climate assessments and any possible discriminatory practices or behaviors associated with privilege.

G. Recognize and Address the Negative Effects of Power and Privilege

The following strategies will help the EOA recognize and address, as required, the negative effects of power and privilege.

1. Be aware of your surroundings. See if you can identify inequality, based upon power and privilege, while at work, watching television, listening to the news, or playing video games.

In day-to-day operations, keep in mind that privilege exists and it is real. However, it may not be overt.

2. Point out instances in which members of groups other than your own are being hampered by their exclusion from privilege.
3. Consider making a statement, write a letter, post a blog, or generate discussions/dialogue on instances of privilege that create inequality.
4. Acknowledge your privilege when it is pointed out to you and take that opportunity to learn something new about privilege.
5. Privilege will never go away until the systems in our society that cause discrimination go away.

In your own daily life, work to make those inequitable systems visible and call them into question when you can so that someday we all enjoy the benefits of being on equal footing with each other.

6. Address privilege philosophies that can influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The following can be associated behavior of an individual or group of people who may have a privileged identity as described by Sherry K. Watt (2001) in her paper "Difficult Dialogues, Privilege and Social Justice: Uses of the Privileged Identity Exploration (PIE) Model," in *The College Student Affairs Journal*:

- a. Denial
Persons displaying denial may acknowledge the injustice, but make contradictory statements that indicate that they are having difficulty accepting it as a reality.

b. Minimization

To represent as having at a least degree of importance or value.

Today some dominant group members might talk about race and gender issues and minimize racism and sexism by saying, “Personal achievement mostly depends on personal ability. Racism or sexism isn’t prevalent anymore.”

c. Deflection

A person employing a Deflection defense may make a comment that avoids coming to terms with the realities of racism or heterosexism by deflecting the focus toward a less threatening target such as another individual or institution.

d. Rationalization

This defense can be identified by behavior in which an individual supplies a logical response regarding why atrocities happen in the realm of racism, sexism, heterosexism, and ableism.

An individual might present an alternative reason that does not require him or her to explore the roots of injustice in more depth.

e. Intellectualization

An Intellectualization defense can be identified when a person avoids feeling dissonant by focusing on the intellectual aspects associated with the topics of social injustice.

Goodman’s example of intellectualization can lead us to understand that intellectualization can be used to not only project power, but to also guard against the loss of it.

f. Principium

This defense can be identified by behaviors where one is avoiding exploration based on a religious or personal principle.

A person using this philosophy might state, “I find it upsetting and disheartening that homosexuals, or anyone for that matter, would have to bear such injustices. However, I do not believe that it is an injustice or discriminatory act to not allow homosexuals couples to cross the threshold of qualifications to be married.”

g. Benevolence

A Benevolence defense is when one presents behavior that displays an overly sensitive attitude toward a social and political issue based on a charity act.

7. Become Personally Aware of Privilege
 - a. To decode your social identity, examine your memberships in empowered groups:
 - 1) Consider the associated privileges.
 - 2) Think about how you define what is normal.
 - 3) Realize that accepting your privileges can make you uncomfortable.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations you use to justify privilege, and identify the logical flaws or personal dissonance.
 - b. Examine your memberships in marginalized groups:
 - 1) Consider the associated disadvantages of group membership.
 - 2) Think about the aspects of your social identity that makes you different than normal.
 - 3) Become aware of and understand the coping strategies you use to maintain self-esteem in relation to your membership.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations that others use to justify your disadvantages, and identify the logical flaws.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define power.
- B. Identify the types of power.
- C. Identify the misuse (abuse) abuse of power.
- D. Define privilege.
- E. Recall the types of privilege.
- F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).
- G. Recall the strategies to recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3050

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Recognizing personal prejudice and acts of discrimination is an important responsibility of an EOA. This lesson emphasizes how prejudice and discrimination impact society and the military. It is imperative to identify acts of illegal discrimination and take immediate action to resolve them. As an EOA, you must recognize how the manifestation of personal prejudice and the acts of discrimination can adversely impact leadership, unit cohesion, and mission accomplishment. This course includes one lesson of instruction.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 3050 Prejudice and Discrimination
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, study guide, and experiential learning activities; comprehend how prejudice and discrimination can impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define prejudice.	K	CRT
B. Describe the levels of prejudice.	K	CRT
C. Define discrimination.	K	CRT
D. Describe the types of discrimination.	K	CRT
E. Describe institutional discrimination.	K	CRT
F. Describe the six bases of discrimination.	K	CRT
G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.	C	CRT
H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION

A. Definition of Prejudice

Preferred definition: Prejudice as an unreasonable negative attitude toward others because of their membership in a particular group. The quality that makes an attitude unreasonable is that it does not readily get modified when exposed to new and conflicting information (Fishbein, 2002, p. 5).

B. Levels of Prejudice

1. Cognitive prejudice

Refers to a stereotype. Whether favorable or unfavorable, a stereotype is an overgeneralization or exaggeration that ignores individual differences within a group.

2. Emotional prejudice

Refers to emotions and feelings of hostility or liking. Might be found in attitudes toward members of particular classes such as race, ethnicity, national origin, or creed.

3. An action-oriented level of prejudice

The positive or negative predisposition to engage in discriminatory behavior.

C. Define Discrimination

Discrimination is unfairly treating a person or group of people differently from other people or groups of people (Merriam-Webster Online, 2014).

The six bases of discrimination in accordance with DoDD 1020.02E, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the DoD* are; race, color, national origin, sex, and religion, and sexual orientation. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended includes age and disability.

D. Types of Discrimination

1. Type A – Isolate Discrimination

Occurs when an individual purposely acts to harm members of another group.

2. Type B – Small-Group Discrimination

Harmful action taken intentionally by a small number of dominant-group individuals acting

in concert against members of another group, without the direct support of the norms and of most social or community context.

3. Type C – Direct Institutionalized Discrimination

Defined as organizationally prescribed or community-prescribed action that by intention has a differential and negative impact on members of another group. These actions are not sporadic but are carried out routinely by a large number of members of another group guided by the legal or informal norms of the immediate organizational or community context.

4. Type D – Indirect Institutionalized Discrimination

Consists of dominant-group practices having a harmful impact on members of another group even though the organizationally or community-prescribed norms or regulations guiding those actions have been established with no intent to harm.

E. Institutional Discrimination

1. Carried out by the dominant group against non-dominant groups because it is the dominant group that generally controls the social institutions. Impact of institutional discrimination can be seen in society and the military (Plous, 2009).

2. Impact on Society – Employment

- a. Hiring practices such as last hired, first fired; higher likelihood that members will be fired during job layoffs because they were the most recently hired.
- b. Education requirements – Individuals who have been segregated to lesser funded schools cannot find employment in businesses that hire according to specified credentials that inferior schools do not offer.

3. Impact on Society – Housing

- a. Steering – A practice that may be used to place minorities in predominately minority neighborhoods.
- b. Red lining – Specifically used by insurance companies to discriminate against individuals living within specific areas (Housing and Urban Development).
- c. Zoning – Practice of marking areas of land and establishing specific restrictions affecting racial demographics.

4. Impact on Society – Education

- a. Testing – Tests used to measure the academic standing of students that may have inherent

cultural bias.

- b. Textbooks – School boards select textbooks. Many textbooks presently in use provide little or no information on minority groups, their minority histories, and contributions that minorities have made to American culture.
- c. Teacher Testing/Hiring – Historically minorities have lower scores than the majority on teacher qualifying tests, and thus, do not qualify for teaching positions.

5. Impact on the Military: Individual

- a. Individual Recruitment – Based on gender, test scores, education level, moral waivers, and regional recruitment.
- b. Retention – Some career fields are closed to women.

6. Impact on the Military: Unit

- a. Unit Readiness – In the Navy during the Civil War, African Americans were restricted to positions of servants, cooks, assistant gunners, or powder boys. During WWI, Filipinos (who were denied U.S. citizenship) served in the Navy as cooks, waiters, pantry-men, dishwashers, custodians, bed-makers, and valets.
- b. Mission Effectiveness – Statistics show Whites are the majority in senior leadership positions (i.e., flag officers, general officers, and Senior Executive Service) and lend itself to the perpetuation of racism. What appears as discriminatory is that the percentages of non-Whites and females in military high ranking positions are significantly lower than the general population.

F. Bases of Discrimination

The following category descriptions were taken from the U.S. Equal Opportunity Employment Commission:

1. Race discrimination

This involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because he/she is of a certain race or because of personal characteristics associated with race such as hair texture, skin color, or certain facial features.

2. Color discrimination involves treating someone unfavorably because of skin color complexion.

- a. Race/color discrimination also can involve treating someone unfavorably because the person is married to (or associated with) a person of a certain race or color or because of

- a person's connection with a race-based organization or group, or an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain color.
- b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same race or color.
3. Sex discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of that person's sex. Can involve treating someone less favorably because of his/her connection with an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain sex.
 4. Religious discrimination involves treating a person (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of his/ her religious beliefs.
 - a. The law protects not only people who belong to traditional, organized religions, such as Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, and Judaism, but also others who have sincerely held religious, ethical, or moral beliefs.
 - b. Religious discrimination also involves treating someone differently because that person is married to (or associated with) an individual of a particular religion or because of his/her connection with a religious organization or group.
 5. National origin discrimination involves treating people (applicants or employees) unfavorably because they are from a particular country or part of the world, because of ethnicity or accent, or because they appear to be of a certain ethnic background.
 - a. National origin discrimination also involves treating people unfavorably because they are married to (or associated with) a person of a certain national origin or because of their connection with an ethnic organization or group.
 - b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same national origin.
 6. Disability discrimination occurs when an employer or other entity covered by the Americans with Disabilities Act, as amended, or the Rehabilitation Act, as amended, treats a qualified individual with a disability who is an employee or applicant unfavorably because they have a disability.
 - a. Disability discrimination also occurs when a covered employer or other entity treats an applicant or employee less favorably because they have a history of a disability (such as cancer that is controlled or in remission) or because they believed to have a physical or mental impairment that is not transitory (lasting or expected to last six months or less) and minor (even if his/she does not have such an impairment).
 - b. The law requires an employer to provide reasonable accommodation to an employee or job applicant with a disability, unless doing so would cause significant difficulty or

- expense for the employer (i.e., undue hardship).
- c. The law also protects people from discrimination based on their relationship with a person with a disability (even if they do not themselves have a disability). For example, it is illegal to discriminate against an employee because his/her spouse has a disability.
7. Age discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) less favorably because of his/her age.
 - a. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) only forbids age discrimination against people who are age 40 or older. It does not protect workers under the age of 40, although some states do have laws that protect younger workers from age discrimination.
 - b. It is not illegal for an employer or other covered entity to favor an older worker over a younger one, even if both workers are age 40 or older.
 - c. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are both over 40.
 8. Sexual orientation refers to a person's emotional, romantic, and sexual attraction to individuals of a particular gender (male or female). Sometimes referred to as sexual preference, though this term adds the concept of sexuality as fluid and incorporates the element of choice. Sexual identity is often interpreted as describing an individual's perception of their own sex, rather than sexual orientation. (American Psychological Association)
 - a. People are classified as heterosexual if their sexual focus is primarily people of the opposite sex/gender, homosexual if it is people of the same sex/gender, and bisexual if it is both men and women. Terms straight, gay, and lesbian are less formal terms; used by people to describe themselves and their friends and family. Sexual orientation discrimination occurs in the workplace because of prejudices among employees, preconceived notions, or misunderstandings of legally binding protections. Employees expect to be treated according to their role and performance at work, not their sexual orientation.
 - b. Federal laws protect employees from discrimination and/or harassment on the basis of many factors. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawed discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 provide protections for people based on age or disabilities.
 - c. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) Federal employees are protected by Executive Order 11478, as amended by Executive Order 13087, signed by President Clinton in 1998, to protect against discrimination over sexual preference in hiring, firing and promoting federal employees.

9. Specific manifestations of prejudice and discrimination can be found in the following protected categories in accordance with DoDD 1020.02E, , *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the DoD* and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act as amended:
- a. Race
 - b. Color
 - c. Religion
 - d. Sex
 - e. National origin
 - f. Age
 - g. Disability
 - h. Sexual Orientation

10. The DoD Human Goals Charter (2014) states

...We strive:

To make military service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion or national origin. To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

Executive order 13087 has made it illegal to discriminate against Federal civilians because of sexual orientation.

11. The DoD Human Goals Charter further states

...We strive:

To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, or genetic information, without reprisal and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

G. How Prejudice and Discrimination Can Manifest

1. In-group versus Out-group
 - a. In-group (most like me) = In-group bias

- b. Out-group (least like me) = Out-group homogeneity

2. Social Learning and Conformity

- a. Laws, regulations, and norms of segregation or unequal access, which maintain the power of dominant groups over subordinate ones
- b. Mass media – Media's portrayal of racial and ethnic groups may be a person's principal source of information. If the media communicates primarily in stereotypes and the viewer has little opportunity for personal contact with members of that minority, the probability of the stereotype becoming the reality to the viewer is high.
- c. Educational system – Schools share responsibility for socializing groups of young people in particular skills and values in our society.
- d. Structure and functioning of work organizations.
- e. Actively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Verbally or physically harassing target group members
 - 2) Telling oppressive or offensive jokes
 - 3) Perpetuating stereotypes
 - 4) Avoiding out group
 - 5) Considering prejudice and discrimination to be a thing of the past
- f. Inactively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Condoning or accepting the status quo
 - 2) Ignoring acts of discrimination
 - 3) Integrated Threat Theory – perceived group threat or perceptions of threatened group interests occur when in-group members see an out-group as posing negative consequences to the interests of their in-group.
 - a) Realistic Threats – threats to political, economic, physical or material well-being of in-group
 - b) Symbolic Threats – perceived threats to in-groups morals, values, standards, beliefs and attitudes
 - c) Intergroup Anxiety – fear about negative outcomes for self, such as being embarrassed, rejected or ridiculed

- d) Stereotypes – when expectations are negative, conflict or unpleasant interactions are likely to be anticipated

H. Describe How Power Affects Prejudice and Discrimination

Power is at the core of discrimination. Without power, discrimination is ineffective. With power, discrimination maintains the dominance of one group over the other (Plous, 2009).

In most circumstances of discrimination, both power and prejudice lie beneath. Although prejudice and discrimination are related concepts, one does not automatically mean that the other is present.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define prejudice.
- B. Describe the levels of prejudice.
- C. Define discrimination.
- D. Describe types of discrimination.
- E. Describe institutional discrimination.
- F. Describe the six bases of discrimination.
- G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.
- H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3100

RACISM



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to ensure that each student can form the necessary framework to understand sources, causes, forms, and contemporary manifestations of racism, racial discrimination, and related intolerance issues. Emphasis is placed on the different definitions of race and the significance of the social definition of race. The instructor will combine an overview of the lesson plan 3100 Racism lecture's key points with small group activities designed to reinforce these key points and strengthen the learner's comprehension of how this knowledge impacts the duties of an EOA.

Recommended Reading

1. *Historical Overview of Racism in the Military*
2. *American Anthropological Association Statement on "Race"*

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation—EOA 3100 Racism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, comprehend how racism can impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define race.	K	CRT
B. Define racism.	K	CRT
C. Describe types of racism.	C	CRT
D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.	K	CRT
F. Recognize racist behavior.	K	CRT
G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.	C	CRT
H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.	K	CRT
I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
The Power of Illusion (The House We Live In)	To increase student knowledge and awareness of racism and its impact on individuals.	ISDE

RACISM

A. Define Race

1. “A division of human beings identified by the possession of traits that are transmissible by descent and that are sufficient to characterize persons possessing these traits as a distinctive human genotype” (DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, p. 19).
2. A group of people who are generally considered to be physically distinct in some way (e.g., skin color, hair texture, or facial features such as size and shape of the head, eyes, ears, lips, nose, color of eyes) from other groups and are generally considered by themselves and/or others to be a distinct group (Farley, 1995).
3. In October 1997, the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) announced the revised standards for federal data on race and ethnicity. The categories for race are now:
 - a. American Indian or Alaska Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - e. White
 - f. **Note:** Ethnicity: Hispanic or Latino; Not Hispanic or Latino

B. Define Racism

“Any attitude, belief, behavior, or institutional arrangement that favors one race or ethnic group (usually a majority group) over another (usually a minority group; Farley, 1995)”

“Any action or attitude, conscious or unconscious, which subordinates an individual or group based on skin color or race (treats as if of less value or importance; Ford, 1994, p. 11)”

Common elements of racism:

1. Prejudice and discrimination based on differences
2. A belief in the superiority of one over another

C. Types of Racism

Types

1. Individual Racism: Belief that one's own race is superior to another (racial prejudice) and exhibits behaviors that suppress the inferior race (racial discrimination).
 - a. Examples of *racist attitudes* include bigotry, belittling, and jealousy.
 - b. Examples of *racist beliefs* include racial stereotyping, classifying people according to race, and thinking that some races are better than others.
 - c. Examples of *racist behavior* include violence, name-calling, and discrimination in hiring practices.
2. Institutional Racism: Takes the form of the practices, customs, rules, and standards of organizations, including governments that unnecessarily disadvantage people because of their race, color, or ethnicity.
 - a. Consists of established laws, customs, and practices that systematically reflect and produce racial inequalities in U.S. society.
 - b. Is embedded in policies that have generally become accepted as normal, and might have or might have not have been intentionally written to practice racism.
 - c. More subtle, less visible, and less identifiable than individual acts of racism. Managers may not be racists as individuals, but they may discriminate as part of carrying out their jobs, without being aware their role is contributing to a discriminatory outcome.

D. Difference between Intentional and Unintentional Racism

Forms of Racism (Kinder & Sears, 1981)

1. Intentional or unintentional racism is due to social relationships between people which are structured by perceived biological and/or cultural differences.
2. Intentional racism is a conscious act, usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
3. Unintentional racism is an unconscious act not usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm. It is still damaging. Prejudice underlies the end result.
4. Examples include:

- a. A White waiter who serves a Hispanic patron last even though the Hispanic person put an order in first. This could be *intentional or unintentional racism* depending on whether or not the waiter was aware of what she/he was doing.
- b. A police officer who handles an African American suspect much more roughly or the bombing of a Black church describe *intentional or conscious racism* because they are motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
- c. A teacher's conveyance of beliefs/prejudices can be *unintentional or unconscious*. A lack of understanding of the student's background leads the teacher to misjudge the student through his or her own cultural lens. As a result, the student does poorly in the class.

E. Difference between Overt and Covert Racism

1. Overt racism – Blatant, obvious, and almost always meant to harm; can lead to mental and physical injury, violent destruction, or even death (Scarville, 1997).
2. Covert racism – Hidden, usually subtle, difficult to document treatment which proves harmful to members of subordinate racial groups (Scarville, 1997). Originates within established and respected forces in society, therefore, receives far less public condemnation.
 - a. Often oblivious to the victim, but not as overt as traditional forms of racism
 - b. Can be individual or institutional
 - c. More widespread in the United States today than overt racism, but is still very damaging
 - d. Includes sabotage, tokenism, and is almost always intentional

F. Racist Behavior

1. Definition of Racist
 - a. A person who believes that a particular race is superior to another (Oxford Dictionary, 2010).
 - b. Someone who does not like or respect people who belong to races that are different from their own and who believes their race is better than others (MacMillan Dictionary, 2010).
2. Racist Behavior (Gaertner & Dovidio, 1986)

- a. All racist behavior falls into the sociological phenomena of groups and power dynamics. It is a tool for domination and social control, a psychological tool for dominating one group over another.
- b. Racist behavior can be:
 - 1) Directed toward an individual or group.
 - 2) Intentional (conscious).
 - 3) Unintentional (unconscious).
 - 4) Based on skin color, ethnicity, or race.
 - 5) Perpetrated by an individual and/or an institution.
- c. Examples of racism include graffiti, racial and ethnic slurs, jokes, intimidation, and physical violence.

3. Contemporary Models

Racist Behavior				
Models of Racism				
	TRADITIONAL	SYMBOLIC (circa 1965)	MODERN (circa 1978)	AVERSIVE (circa 1986 – Today)
Ideology	Biological Superiority	Individual Effort is Key To Success	People Get What They Deserve	All People Should Have Equal Political, Social, & Economic Rights
Beliefs about minorities	Innately Inferior	Could Succeed if Worked Harder	Undeserving of Special Efforts to Redress Past Inequities	Victims of Past Injustices
Attitude toward discrimination	Deemed Justifiable & Desirable	Systematic Barriers to Advancement Ignored	A Thing of The Past	Non-Discriminatory Practices Favored
Attitude toward policies that address racial equality	Affront To Superior Status	Threat to The Cultural Ideals That Symbolize American Ethics	Violation of Norms and Fairness	Publicly Supported
Behavioral Consequences	Bigoted Language, Overt Discrimination, Violence	Opposition to Policies Designed to Promote Racial Equality	Opposition to Policies Designed to Promote Racial Equality	Avoidance, Interracial Anxiety, Unintentional Discrimination

- a. Subtle racism appears nonracial on the surface.

Beneath surface are negative attitudes and stereotyped beliefs that affect personal interactions. In organizations, subtle racism has a negative impact on interpersonal relations and breeds institutional racism.

b. Forms of subtle racism – Traditional, symbolic, modern, and aversive

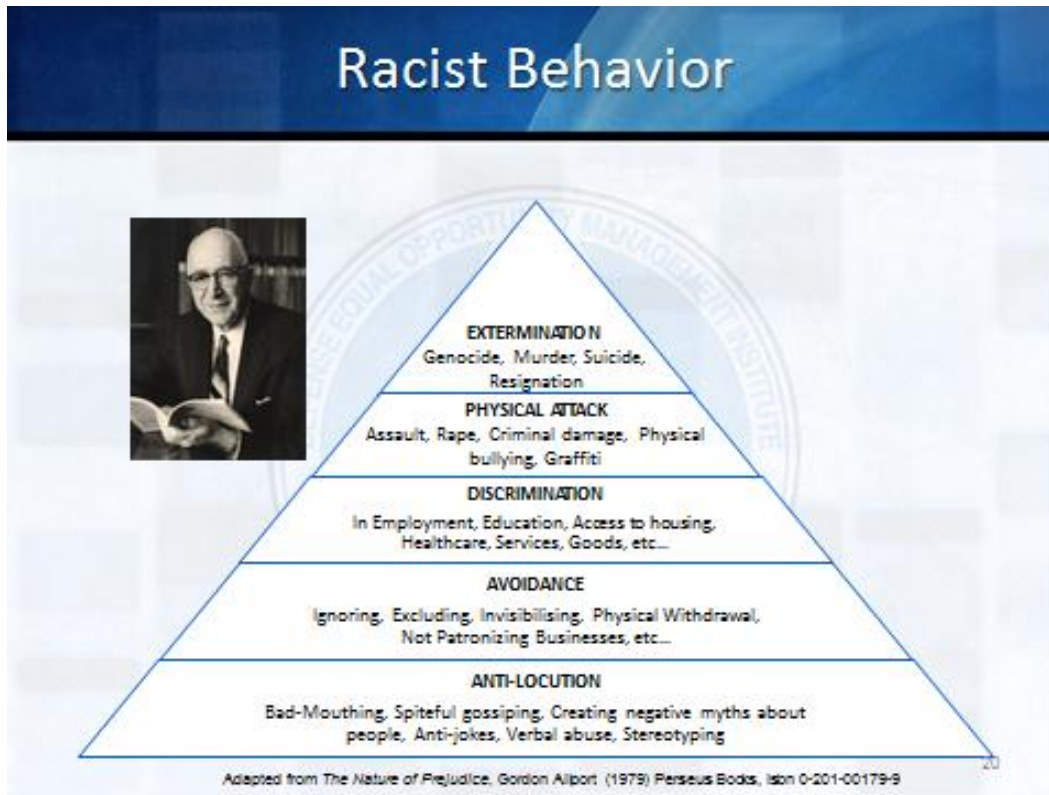
- 1) Traditional: Individual with traditional racist attitudes who acted out bigoted beliefs. Racial attitude measures were comprised of items attempting to assess the presence of prejudice, hostility, and derogatory beliefs.

After about 1965, however, standard racial attitude measures had two problems. First, by the middle 1960s, most White people knew the socially desirable answers so that the then standard items were more likely to trigger politically correct responses than valid attitudes. Second, that generation of items did not correlate well with what should have been racially relevant behavior, for example, reported voting intentions or hiring decisions. Replacement items were then developed. The new items that correlated best with racially relevant behavior were those of an abstract, moral tone, or items that used code words or symbols for blacks. These items were thought to tap a new form of racism called “symbolic racism.” (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414–431)

- 2) Symbolic: These are abstract, moral tone, code words, or symbols for races. New surveys tapped into this new form of racism. Replacement items were developed that correlated best with racially relevant behavior (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414–431).
- 3) Modern: Symbolic racism was renamed as “modern racism” (1978) to emphasize the contemporary nature. The principal tenets of modern racism are:
 - a) Discrimination is a thing of the past; blacks now have the freedom to compete in the marketplace and to enjoy those things they can afford.
 - b) Blacks are pushing too hard, too fast, and into places where they are not wanted.
 - c) Tactics and demands of activists are unfair.
 - d) Recent gains are undeserved.
 - e) Prestige granting institutions of society are giving Blacks more attention and status than they deserve.
 - f) Racism is bad.
 - g) Beliefs of modern racism do not qualify as racist because they are alleged to be empirically grounded (McConahay, 1986, pp. 91–126).

- h) Those whose beliefs are described as modern racism do not define their own beliefs and attitudes as racist.
 - 4) Aversive: Around 1986, the concept of “aversive racism” began to emerge. According to this orientation, many White Americans with strong egalitarian values simultaneously have negative feelings and beliefs about Blacks. Attitudes need not be consistent and in this case may be the result of conflict between cognition and socialization. Aversive racists put high value on egalitarian beliefs; contradiction between those feelings and racial attitudes was handled by excluding the racist feelings from awareness. They typically avoid close contact with minorities or communicate their underlying negative attitudes in subtle, rationalizable ways. They are also negatively likely to be demonstrated in discomfort, uneasiness, fear, or avoidance of minorities rather than in outward hostility. It is difficult to document aversive racism through the techniques of behavioral research. (Gaertner, 1986, pp. 61–89)
4. Contemporary Views on Racism
- a. Many U.S. Americans have widely divergent views on whether a problem even exists.
 - b. Most minorities see racism as a problem and many feel it has gotten worse.
 - c. Racism is often invisible to many White Americans in the U.S. for several general reasons:
 - 1) They suffer less from it.
 - 2) They do not attribute their misfortune to race.
 - 3) They do not always see the suffering that minorities endure.
5. Acting Out
- a. Gordon Allport’s (1979) five intensity levels of hostile actions:
 - 1) Antilocution
 - 2) Avoidance
 - 3) Discrimination
 - 4) Physical Attack
 - 5) Extermination

- b. Antilocution – Most people who have prejudices talk about them to like-minded friends and occasionally with strangers (e.g., bad-mouthing, name calling), but many never go beyond this mild degree of hostile action.
- c. Avoidance – As prejudice becomes more intense, it leads to avoiding members in the disliked group—even if inconvenient. The prejudiced person does not directly harm the disliked person or group. They take on the burden of accommodation and withdrawal. Examples of avoidance include maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, or asking for a transfer.
- d. Discrimination – The prejudiced person makes detrimental distinctions by actively excluding all members of the group in question from certain types of employment, residential housing, unequal pay for equal work, giving awards or job assignments based on race, political rights, educational or recreational opportunities, churches, hospitals, or other social privileges.
- e. Physical Attack – The majority group vandalizes, burns, or destroys minority group property and carries out violent attacks on individuals or groups. Emotional prejudice leads to acts of violence or semi-violence. Examples of physical attacks include knockout games, unwanted family of another race may be forcibly ejected from a neighborhood or so severely threatened that they leave in fear; this was seen in Nazi Germany during WWII. Gravestones in cemeteries may be desecrated or other property vandalized.
- f. Extermination – The majority group seeks extermination or removal of minority group. Examples of extermination include the Wounded Knee Massacre in 1890, an event that ended the last of the Native American Indian wars in American history, marks the ultimate degree of violent expression of prejudice; the Final Solution towards the later part of WWII killing millions of Jews by the Nazis in Germany; Ethnic Cleansing in Bosnia; and Saddam’s attempt to exterminate the Kurds in Northern Iraq.



G. Internal and External Factors that Contribute to Racism

1. Internal Factors

- a. Lack of understanding of the history, experiences, values, and perceptions of ethnic groups other than one's own.
- b. Stereotyping members of an ethnic group without consideration of individual differences within that group.
- c. Ethnocentrism is judging other ethnic groups according to the standards and values of one's own group.
- d. Assigning negative attributes to members of other ethnic groups.

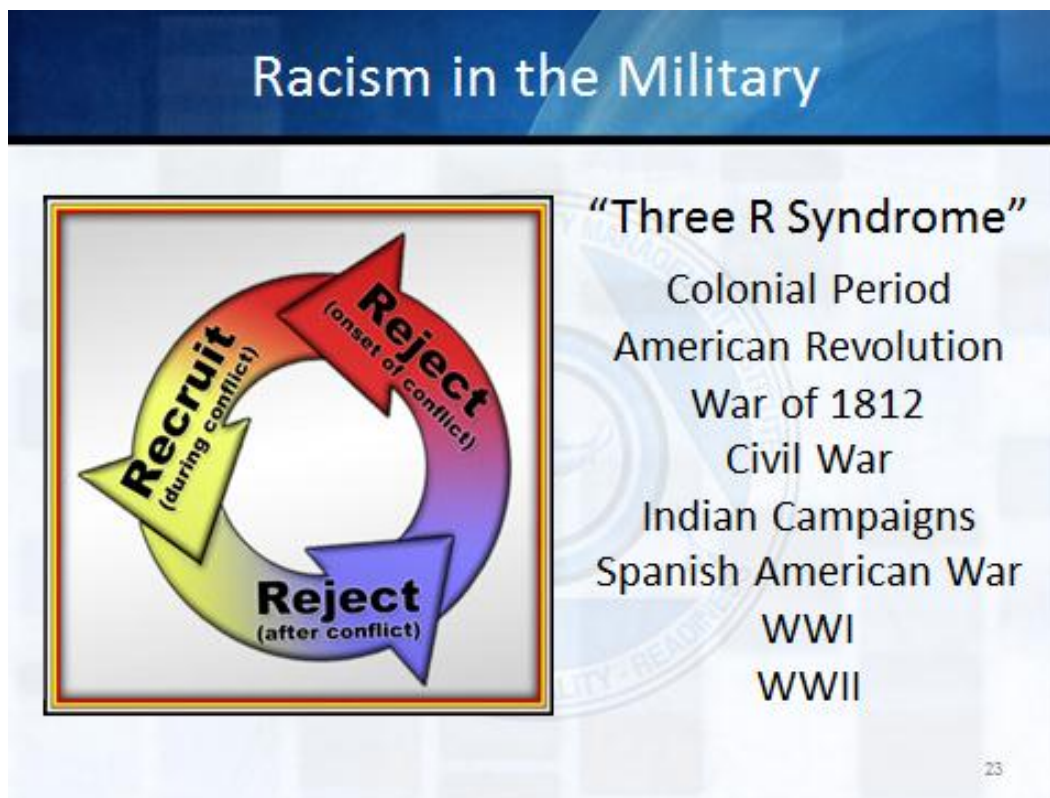
2. External Factors

- a. Family, peers, and friends are very important influences on the development of individual racism.
- b. Social visibility – Differences in physical appearance are easiest differences to identify and use for discrimination.

- c. Contact – The amount and kind of contact develops racial thinking; ideas tend to be vague and partially attributable to ethnocentrism.
- d. Mass media – Television, newspapers, magazines, radio, and the Internet—major sources of stereotypical images.
- e. Unequal power – When groups of unequal power interrelate, the stronger group tends to dominate the weaker group. The dominant group resists sharing its powers.
- f. Competition – This occurs when two or more individuals are striving for the same, and sometimes scarce, resources; certain groups look at other groups as a threat if they obtain control of one or more of the resources.

H. Historical Events that Contributed to Racism in the Military

1. The “Three R Syndrome”



- a. Reject – Minorities were not allowed to enlist in the armed services at the onset of periods of hostilities.
- b. Recruit – When the need for military personnel increased because of manpower demands and insufficient numbers, minorities were recruited, usually during a conflict and after

enormous casualties. After induction, most minorities were segregated, poorly trained, and/or relegated to low levels or hazardous jobs.

- c. Reject – When hostilities were over, the units were disbanded and the racial minorities were released from any requirements to serve, despite any desire to continue service. In some cases, minorities were denied veterans' benefits.

2. Impact of the “Three R Syndrome”

- a. In colonial times, laws excluded minorities from being provided with arms and/or ammunition. Basis of this was fear of slave revolts that would upset the colonists' economic security and way of life and reverse the roles.
- b. Militia Act of 1792 restricted militia enrollment to only free and able white male citizens.
- c. Marine Corps (1798) adopted a policy forbidding the enlistment of Negroes, Mulattos, and American Indians. Policy remained in effect until 1942.

3. Quota systems

The U.S. Navy had a quota of 5% Blacks until it was forced to be lifted during the Civil War because of a massive personnel shortage.

4. Segregation

- a. Hispanic men were placed in either White or colored units based on their skin color.
- b. Navy Steward's Branch included 72% of all African Americans in the Navy during WWII.
- c. Even after the Fair Employment Practices Commission was established in 1941, the Marines continued to operate segregated basic and field trainings.
- d. Japanese Americans serving in WWII were restricted to the European Theatre due to the leadership's allegations of disloyalty and belief they could not be trusted to fight the Japanese in the Pacific Theatre.

5. Hazardous Duties

- a. American Indians fought both for and against the United States during various conflicts, serving as infantrymen, code talkers, sharpshooters, guides, guerrillas, and spies.
- b. Port Chicago Naval Base, California. On July 17, 1944: 202 African American enlisted men were killed and another 233 were injured when two transport vessels loading ammunition suddenly exploded. This accounted for almost 15% of all Black naval casualties during WWII. Protesters were tried and sentenced for mutiny.

c. In WWI, Filipinos served as dishwashers, custodians, bed makers, and valets.

6. Historical Examples

a. Minorities could only serve in the lower pay grades.

b. Some White officers sacrificed higher rank because they refused to command Black men.

c. An institutional climate of acceptable discrimination allowed individual racism to flourish.

7. Desegregation

President Harry S. Truman ordered the desegregation of the Armed Services in July 1948, with Executive Order 9981. The order declared equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the Armed Services with regard to race, color, religion, or national origin. He also established the Gillem Board to determine the best way to integrate the Services.

I. Strategies to Combat Racism in the Military

1. Combating Racism

a. Awareness – Groups are aware and are making others aware of the existence of individual and institutional racism in its contemporary and subtle forms. Within the unit, celebrations such as National American Indian Heritage Month and Black History Month help promote awareness of the contributions these groups have made to the military and the United States.

b. Education – Awareness is facilitated through education. Courses, small group discussions, workshops, guest speakers, and movies provide educational opportunities for the unit. Topics related to racism can be addressed, including how racism dehumanizes people, the tremendous financial costs of racism, and contemporary racism.

c. Participation – An inclusive model of decision-making that is representative of all people promotes diversity and aids in the reduction of racial stereotyping. Active commitment by leadership to initiatives that encourage members of all groups to take advantage of programs and services on base, such as mentoring programs, special interest clubs, and other organizations will also combat racism.

d. Legislation – Federal, state, and local programs and laws written to ensure equal opportunity for all U.S. citizens. **DoD Directive 1350.2 defines the policy of nondiscrimination in the military.** It sets the standard for all programs, chain of command, responsibilities, and etc. for equal opportunity. Legislative programs and laws

simultaneously provide benefits for significant parts of the majority and for deprived minorities.

- e. Mass Media – Media programs have had positive effect in reducing prejudice. It is an excellent medium to attack prejudicial attitudes and prevent discrimination. Public service announcements, public relations materials, and advertisements that positively depict the diversity of the military and that encourage everyone from all walks of life to enlist are beneficial.
- f. Change – There have been significant positive changes for most racial groups in this country. However, there is still a long way to go to ensure equal opportunity is afforded to all groups. Through proactive actions EOAs can be change agents or champions of changes.

2. Leadership

- a. Leaders set standards that create an environment for everyone to excel free of hostility, intimidation, and unfair treatment. Climate and behavior of an organization is an indicator about the attitudes and actions demonstrated by leaders.
- b. Leadership actions to effectively reduce and eliminate racist behavior:
 - 1) Establish policies prohibiting racist behaviors and racial discrimination.
 - 2) Provide thorough investigations of informal and formal complaints.
 - 3) Adhere to established timelines for complaint investigations.
 - 4) Enforce penalties against offenders.
 - 5) Enforce penalties against unit commanders or other superiors who allow racist behaviors to continue.
 - 6) Ensure information moves up the chain of command on problems and incidents relating to racist behaviors.
 - 7) Protect those who make complaints by ensuring reprisal is not occurring. Ensure all information is a need to know basis.
 - 8) Publicize the availability of hotlines for complaints.
 - 9) Publicize the availability of complaint channels.
 - 10) Take extra steps beyond mandatory requirements to understand and correct underlying issues or problems.

11) DEOCS

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define race.
- B. Define racism.
- C. Describe types of racism.
- D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.
- E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.
- F. Recognize racist behavior.
- G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.
- H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.
- I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3150
EXTREMISM



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

As an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA), it is important to understand and recognize extremism. While extremist groups might seek to join the military and recruit military members to their causes, military members must reject participation in organizations that promote supremacist causes. Knowing about extremist groups will help you combat extremism in the military. Upon completion of this lesson, the student will have a better understanding of extremist groups and organizations. This will enhance student knowledge, thus preparing them as an equal opportunity advisor in dealing with extremist identification and issues.

This lesson will focus on awareness and current issues requiring the attention of future EOAs. It will also provide information that describes sources of extremism information, definitions, and recruitment of DoD personnel, common themes in extremist ideologies, common characteristics of extremist organizations, DoD policies, and command functions regarding extremist activities.

Recommended Reading

1. Seven Stage Hate Model, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin March 2003 (in library or online)
2. DoDI 1325.06, Handling Dissident and Protest Activities Among Members of the Armed Forces

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10. Schafer, J.R. and Navarro, M.A., (2003). *The law enforcement bulletin: The seven-stage hate model*. http://www.fbi.gov/stats-services/publications/law-enforcement-bulletin/2003-pdfs/mar03leb.pdf/at_download/file

Additional Service Specific sources:

1. Department of the Army Pamphlet. (2000). Extremist activities (DA PAM 600-15).
2. Department of the Navy Instruction. (2007). Navy equal opportunity (EO) policy (OPNAVINST 5354.1F).
3. Department of the Navy, Marine Corps Order. (1997).
4. Guidelines for handling dissident and protest activities (MCO 5370.4B).
5. The Secretary of the Army's Task Force on Extremist Activities. (1996).
6. U.S. Air Force Instruction 51-903. (1998). Dissident and protest activities (AFI).
7. U.S. Coast Guard. (2007). Personnel manual (COMDTINST M1000.6A).

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

Slide presentation, computer, Screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, know how extremism impacts the readiness of our military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define key terms associated with extremism.	K	CRT
B. Identify prohibited activities.	K	CRT
C. Identify the seven stages of hate.	K	CRT
D. Recognize extremist ideologies.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the traits and symbols associated with extremism and hate groups.	K	CRT
F. State extremist organizations' recruiting motives toward DoD personnel.	K	CRT
G. Identify strategies to combat extremism in the military.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

EXTREMISM

A. Key Terms Associated with Extremism

1. Ideology: A set of beliefs about the nature of people and society; an organized collection of ideas about the best and most appropriate way to live.
2. Extremism: A tendency or disposition to go to extremes or an instance of going to extremes, especially in political matters. For example, the extremism of the Nazis.
 - a. “Any political theory favoring immoderate uncompromising policies.” (dictionary.com)
 - b. Can also be a term used to describe the actions or ideologies of individuals or groups who take a political idea to its limits, regardless of unfortunate repercussions, and show intolerance toward all views other than their own.
3. Extremist: A person who favors or resorts to immoderate, uncompromising, or fanatical methods or behavior. Extremists can be politically radical or advocate supremacist causes based on race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or national origin. (FBI, 2011)
 - a. Relative to the negative impact on military readiness, an “extremist” is a person who advocates the use of force or violence; advocates supremacist causes based on race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or national origin; or otherwise engages to illegally deprive individuals or groups of their civil rights.
4. Supremacism: The belief that a particular race, religion, gender, species, belief system, or culture is superior to others. For example, “white supremacism” (George and Wilcox, 1992).

Supremacists believe they are entitled to dominate, control, or rule those who do not fall into their race, religion, gender, species, belief system, or culture.

B. Prohibited Activities

The First Amendment to the Constitution of the United States provides that, “*Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.*”

As military members, you retain these rights as citizens of the United States. There are, however, prohibitions to military personnel regarding the exercise of these rights per DoDI 1325.06.

Individuals who hold extremist views are in conflict with the standards expected of all military members and participation in extremism is inconsistent with the duties of military service.

1. Prohibited Activities. According to DoD Instruction 1325.06, military members are prohibited from participating in any of the following activities:
 - a. Military personnel must not actively advocate supremacist, extremist, or criminal gang doctrine, ideology, or causes.
 - b. This includes any organization that advances, encourages, or advocates illegal discrimination based on race, creed, color, sex, religion, ethnicity, or national origin.
 - c. Or those who advance, encourage, or advocate the use of force, violence, or criminal activity or otherwise advance efforts to deprive individuals of their civil rights.
 - d. Military personnel must reject active participation in criminal gangs and other organizations that advocate supremacist, extremist, or criminal gang doctrine, ideology, or causes. Active participation includes, but is not limited to:
 - 1) Fundraising
 - 2) Demonstrating or rallying
 - 3) Recruiting, training, organizing, or leading members
 - 4) Distributing material (including online)
 - 5) Knowingly wearing gang colors or clothing
 - 6) Or otherwise engaging in activities in furtherance of the objective of such gangs or organizations that are detrimental to good order discipline or mission accomplishment or are incompatible with military service.
2. Federal employees
If an extremist organization advocates or attempts to bring about political, religious, economic, or social change through the use of force, violence, or ideologically-motivated criminal activity, then the Federal Government precludes Federal employees from actively participating in any of the activities listed above.
3. Furthering the objectives of extremist organizations is viewed as detrimental to the good order, discipline, or mission accomplishment of the unit and are, therefore, subject to appropriate disciplinary action.

C. The Seven Stages of Hate

Extremist groups are closely related to hate groups.

Understanding the stages of how hate groups develop can help you, as an EOA, watch for the behaviors that may indicate a hate or extremist group within the military

Stages of Hate

Schafer and Navarro (of the FBI) have identified seven stages that hate groups go through. If unimpeded, haters will pass through these seven successive stages without skipping a stage.

In the first four stages, haters vocalize their beliefs. In the last three stages, haters act on their beliefs. As an EOA, being able to assess the stage of hate a person expresses can help you determine the best intervention strategy required to deter the development from continuing. (http://www.fbi.gov/stats-services/publications/law-enforcement-bulletin/2003-pdfs/mar03leb.pdf/at_download/file)

Stage 1: Grouping

Irrational haters seldom hate alone. They feel compelled, almost driven, to entreat others to hate as they do. Peer validation bolsters a sense of self-worth and, at the same time, prevents introspection, which reveals personal insecurities. Further, individuals otherwise ineffective become empowered when they join groups, which also provide anonymity and diminished accountability.

Stage 2: Defining

Hate groups form identities through symbols, rituals, and mythologies, which enhance the members' status and, at the same time, degrade the object of their hate. For example, skinhead groups might adopt the swastika, the iron cross, and the Confederate flag. Group-specific symbols or clothing often differentiate hate groups. Group rituals, such as hand signals and secret greetings, further fortify members. Hate groups, especially skinhead groups, usually incorporate some form of self-sacrifice, which allows haters to willingly jeopardize their well-being for the greater good of the cause. Giving one's life to a cause provides the ultimate sense of value and worth to life. Skinheads often see themselves as soldiers in a race war.

Stage 3: Disparaging

Hate is the glue that binds haters to one another and to a common cause. By verbally debasing the object of their hate, haters enhance their self-image, as well as their group status. In skinhead groups, racist song lyrics and hate literature provide an environment wherein hate flourishes. In fact, researchers have found that the lifespan of aggressive impulses increases with ideation. In other words, the more often a person thinks about aggression, the greater the chance for aggressive behavior to occur. Thus, after constant verbal denigration, haters progress to the next more openly hostile and bitter stage.

Stage 4: Taunting

Hate, by its nature, changes incrementally. Time cools the fire of hate, thus forcing the hater to look inward. To avoid introspection, haters use ever-increasing degrees of rhetoric and violence to maintain high levels of agitation. Taunts and offensive gestures

serve this purpose. In this stage, skinheads typically shout racial slurs from moving cars or from afar. Nazi salutes and other hand signals often accompany racial epithets. Racist graffiti also begins to appear in areas where skinheads loiter. Most skinhead groups claim turf proximate to the neighborhoods in which they live. One study indicated that a majority of hate crimes occur when the hate target migrates through the hate group's turf.

Stage 5: Attacking without weapons

This stage is critical because it differentiates vocally-abusive haters from physically-abusive ones. In this stage, hate groups become more aggressive, prowling their turf seeking vulnerable targets. Violence coalesces hate groups and further isolates them from mainstream society. Skinheads, almost without exception, attack in groups and target single victims. In addition to physical violence, the element of thrill seeking is introduced in Stage 5. The adrenaline "high" intoxicates the attackers. The initial adrenaline surge lasts for several minutes; however, the effects of adrenaline keep the body in a state of heightened alert for up to several days. Each successive anger-provoking thought or action builds on residual adrenaline and triggers a more violent response than the one that originally initiated the sequence. Anger builds on anger. The adrenaline high combined with hate becomes a deadly combination. Hard-core skinheads keep themselves at a level where the slightest provocation triggers aggression.

Stage 6: Attacking with weapons

Some attackers use firearms to commit hate crimes, but skinheads prefer weapons, such as broken bottles, baseball bats, blunt objects, screwdrivers, and belt buckles. These types of weapons require the attacker to be close to the victim, which further demonstrates the depth of personal anger. Attackers can discharge firearms at a distance, thus precluding personal contact. Close-in onslaughts require the assailants to see their victim eye to eye and to become bloodied during the assault. Hands-on violence allows skinheads to express their hate in a way a gun cannot. Personal contact empowers and fulfills a deep-seated need to have dominance over others.

Stage 7: Destroying

The ultimate goal of haters is to destroy the object of their hate. Mastery over life and death imbues the hater with godlike power and omnipotence, which, in turn, facilitates further acts of violence. With this power comes a great sense of self-worth and value, the very qualities haters' lack. However, in reality, hate physically and psychologically destroys both the hater and the hated.

D. Extremist Ideologies

Extremist groups sometimes fall under certain ideologies. (Atkins, 2002)

1. Nationalism—Some extremist organizations will use “Nationalism” to perpetuate their agenda of hate, intolerance, and inequality.
Common to the nationalist’s perspective is the policy of asserting that the interests of one’s own nation are separate from the interests of other nations or the common interest of all nations.
2. Supremacy— the belief that your race or ethnicity is superior to all others and should dominate society. Supremacy, as with racial supremacies in general, has frequently resulted in anti-black and anti-semitic violence.
3. Separatism—setting oneself or others apart based on culture, ethnicity, race, or religion.
4. Anarchism— a political ideology that considers the state to be unnecessary, harmful, or undesirable. National anarchists appeal to these youths in part by avoiding the trappings of skinhead culture — flight jackets, shaved heads and combat boots — in favor of hooded sweatshirts and bandanas. They act the part of stereotypical anarchists, as envisioned by most Americans outside of far-left circles: black-clad protesters wreaking havoc at political conventions and anti-globalization rallies.
5. Religion— extremist ideology based on intolerance toward other religions. Anti-semitism is a prime example of this ideology.
6. Eco-Terrorism—environmental activists who engages in illegal activities.

The FBI defines eco-terrorism as “the use or threatened use of violence of a criminal nature against innocent victims or property by an environmentally oriented, sub-national group for environmental-political reasons, or aimed at an audience beyond the target, often of a symbolic nature.”

E. Traits and Symbols Associated with Extremists and Hate Groups

It is important for EOAs to be aware of traits and symbols associated with hate groups because he/she advises leadership on procedures for handling dissident activities and protest activities among members of the Armed Forces.

- DoDI 1325.06, *Handling Dissident and Protest Activities Among Members of the Armed Forces*

This policy assigns responsibilities, and provides procedures for handling dissident activities and protest activities among members of the Armed Forces.

It is important to note that DoD does not maintain an official list of Hate Groups.

While many extremist groups advocate violence, some extremists avoid violence at all costs. So, one cannot say that the terms extremist and hate group are synonymous.

The terms extremism or extremist are almost always applied by others to a group rather than a group labeling it.

People within an extremist group will deny that they practice or advocate violence; instead they would more likely call themselves political radicals, who speak in terms of acts of resistance, militant action, or the use of force.

According to George and Wilcox, there are a number of specific traits or behaviors that tend to represent the extremist style. As a caution, we are all fallible human beings and some of us may resort to these behaviors from time to time without bad intentions. With extremists, these lapses are not occasional; rather they are habitual and a strongly-established part of an extremist's character.

1. Traits/Behaviors associated with extremists (George & Wilcox, 1992)
 - a. Character assassination—Extremists often attack the character of an opponent rather than deal with the facts or issues raised. They will question motives, qualifications, past associations, alleged values, personality, looks, and mental health as a diversion from the issues under consideration.
 - b. Name calling and labeling—Extremists are quick to resort to taunts (e.g., pervert, racist, and crackpot) to label and condemn opponents and to divert others from listening to their arguments.
 - c. Irresponsible sweeping generalizations—Extremists tend to make sweeping claims or judgments with little to no evidence, often confusing similarity with sameness. That is, they assume that because two or more things are alike in some respects that they are alike in all respects.
 - d. Inadequate proof for assertions—Extremists tend to be very fuzzy about what constitutes proof for their assertions and tend to get caught up in logical fallacies where they assume that a prior event explains a subsequent occurrence simply because of their before-and-after relationship. They tend to project wished-for conclusions and to exaggerate the significance of information that confirms their prejudices and to derogate or ignore information that contradicts them.
 - e. Tendency to view opponents and critics as essentially evil— Extremists feel that their opponents hold differing views because they are bad, immoral, dishonest, hateful, cruel, prejudices, etc., and not merely because they simply disagree, see matters differently, or are mistaken.
 - f. Dualism worldview—Extremists tend to see the world in terms of absolute good and evil, for them or against them, with no middle ground or intermediate position. All issues are ultimately moral issues of right and wrong, good or bad, with the right and good positions

coinciding with their interests. Their slogan is often, "Those who are not with me are against me."

- g. Tendency to argue by intimidation—Extremists tend to frame their arguments in such a way as to intimidate others into accepting their premises and conclusions. To disagree with them is to ally oneself with the devil or to give aid and comfort to the enemy. They tend to be very judgmental and moralizing, allowing them to define the parameters of the debate by keeping their opponents on the defensive.
- h. Use of slogans, buzzwords, and thought-stopping clichés—For many extremists, shortcuts in thinking and in reasoning seem necessary to avoid troublesome facts and compelling counter-arguments. Simple slogans substitute for more complex abstractions.
- i. Assumption of moral superiority over others—The most obvious assumptions are claims of racial or ethnic superiority—a master race. Less obvious are claims of ennoblement because of alleged victimhood, a special relationship with God, or membership in a special or elite class, and a kind of aloof, high-minded snobbishness that accrues because of the weightiness of their preoccupations, their altruism, and their willingness to sacrifice themselves (and others) to their cause.
- j. Doomsday thinking—Extremists often predict dire or catastrophic consequences from a situation or from a failure to follow a specific course, and they tend to exhibit a kind of crisis-mindedness. It can be a Communist takeover, a Nazi revival, nuclear war, earthquakes, floods, or the wrath of God. Whatever it is, it is just around the corner unless we follow their program and listen to their special insight and wisdom, to which only the truly enlightened have access. For extremists, any setback or defeat is the beginning of the end.
- k. Belief that it's OK to do bad things in the service of a "good" cause—Extremists might deliberately lie, distort, misquote, slander, defame, or libel their opponents and/or critics, engage in censorship or repression, or undertake violence in special cases. This is done with little or no remorse as long as it is in the service of defeating the Communists, Fascists or whomever. Defeating an enemy becomes an all-encompassing goal to which other values are subordinate. With extremists, the end justifies the means.
- l. Tendency to personalize hostility—Extremists often wish for the personal bad fortune of their enemies, and celebrate when it occurs. When a critic or an adversary dies or has a serious illness, a bad accident, or personal legal problems, extremists often rejoice and chortle about how he or she deserved it. For example, right-wing extremists celebrated the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr. and leftists agonized because George Wallace survived an assassination attempt. In each instance their hatred was not only directed against ideas, but also against individual human beings.
- m. Emphasis on emotional responses and less emphasis on reasoning and logical analysis—Extremists have an unspoken reverence for propaganda, which they might call education or consciousness-raising. Symbolism plays an exaggerated role in their thinking, and

they tend to think imprecisely and metaphorically. Effective extremists tend to be effective propagandists. Propaganda differs from education in that the former teaches one what to think, and the latter teaches one how to think clearly.

- n. Hypersensitivity and vigilance—Extremists perceive hostile innuendo in even casual and innocuous comments, imagine rejection and antagonism concealed in honest disagreement and dissent, and see latent subversion, anti-Semitism, perversion, racism, disloyalty, and so on in innocent gestures and ambiguous behaviors. Although few extremists are actually clinically paranoid, many of them adopt a paranoid style with its attendant projective mechanisms, hostility and distrust.
- o. Use of supernatural rationales for beliefs and actions—Some extremists, particularly those involved in cults and religious movements, claim some kind of supernatural rationale for their beliefs and actions; their movement or cause, they believe, is ordained or looked upon favorably by God.
- p. Advocacy of double standards—Extremists generally tend to judge themselves or their interest group in terms of their intentions, which they tend to view generously, and their critics and opponents by their acts, which they tend to view very critically. They would like you to accept their assertions on faith, but they demand proof for yours.

Hate Symbols

As an EOA, it is important that you are knowledgeable of and alert to the **symbols, logos, and tattoos** that extremist groups use to identify themselves and their group affiliation. Being aware of these symbols and what they mean can assist you in combating extremism in the military.

While some people may use or display extremist symbols in ignorance, extremists use these symbols to display a sense of power and belonging. Symbols are also a quick way of identifying others who share their beliefs.

Additional information about hate groups and extremist symbols can be found in your student guide and on the Intranet. The Anti Defamation League (ADL) maintains a database of hate group symbols. As an EOA, you should familiarize yourself with the symbols of hate, and learn to recognize the symbols and what they mean so you are better prepared to support the military standards of conduct and eliminate extremism in the military.

F. Extremist Organizations Recruiting Motives

Recruiting Motives

Military personnel, public officials, and law enforcement officers are actively sought by extremist groups. Extremist leaders seek to recruit members with military experience to exploit their:

- Discipline
- Knowledge of firearms and explosives
- Tactical skills
- Access to weapons and intelligence
(DA PAM 600-15, 2000)

In addition, members of extremists groups are joining the military, not to serve their country but to receive training, specifically in discipline and tactical skills, and to learn how to better defend themselves and their ideals.

1. Young extremists are encouraged by leaders to enlist in the military to gain access to weapons, training, and other military personnel. Some extremist groups even provide advice to their members in how to respond to questions from military recruiters.
2. Military members are trained to be proficient with weapons, combat tactics, and explosives, to train others in their use, and to operate in a highly disciplined culture that is focused on the organized violence of war. This is why military extremists present an elevated threat to public safety.

Even the non-violent activities of military personnel with extremist tendencies (e.g., possessing literature, researching information via computer) can have detrimental consequences for the good order, discipline, readiness, and cohesion of military units.

G. Strategies to Combat Extremism

It is the responsibility of every military member to help combat extremism in the military.

- Just the presence of a member with extremist views can have an adverse impact on the performance of a unit.
 - Other members who oppose or disagree with the extremist views may say or do nothing because they fear damaging the unit's cohesiveness.
1. Awareness of extremism and extremist groups is the first step in combating extremism. (DA PAM 600-15, 2000)
 - a. Examine personal viewpoints in light of military values and loyalty.
 - b. Reject affiliation with any extremist organizations.
 - c. Decline the distribution or circulation of extremist literature.
 - d. Encourage others to avoid extremist affiliations and views.
 - e. Report indicators of extremism to the appropriate command.
 2. Extremism is prohibited in the military in accordance with DODI 1325.06.

Increasing employee awareness about extremist ideologies and discriminatory behavior or acts will broaden your effectiveness as an Equal Opportunity Advisor to the command. Combating extremism in the military begins with the individual.

3. Increase “Cultural Competency” and Teamwork (esprit-de-corps)

Extremists’ views divide the unit into opposing factions and the team concept required for mission accomplishment is lost.

4. As an EOA, you should be vigilant to the signs of extremism by paying attention to: (DA PAM 600-15, 2000)

- a. Surreptitious meetings
- b. Off-duty clothing (e.g., skinhead dress, extremist tattoos)
- c. Music selections and reading materials
- d. Extremist graffiti or symbols in personal and common areas.

5. In addition, EOAs should assist the unit command to:

- a. Educate and counsel unit members on the incompatibility of military service with extremist views.
- b. Be aware of unit members' extremist beliefs.
- c. Be alert for indicators of extremist ties, views, or behaviors .
- d. Include questions on extremism in climate assessments.
- e. Enforce policy on participation in extremist group activities.
- f. Advise unit members of the consequences for participation in extremist activities.
- g. Monitor information available on extremists groups, activities, and philosophies.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define key terms associated with extremism.
- B. Identify prohibited activities.
- C. Identify the seven stages of hate.
- D. Recognize extremist ideologies.

- E. Recognize the traits and symbols associated with extremism and hate groups.
- F. State extremist organizations' recruiting motives towards DoD personnel.
- G. Identify strategies to combat extremism in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3200

SEXISM



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Sexism is the discrimination against people based on their sex rather than their individual merits. It can refer to three subtly different beliefs or attitudes namely the belief that one sex is superior to the other; the belief that men and women are very different and that this should be strongly reflected in society, language, as well as the law. Sexism can also refer to simple hatred of men (misandry) or women (misogyny). This lesson will emphasize the importance of objectivity, fairness, openness, and avoidance of a personal agenda in the job of an EOA. It is important for an EOA to have some skepticism and to approach problems with empathy rather than sympathy.

Recommended Reading

History of Women in the Military

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 3200 Sexism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, comprehend how sexism can impact the military, with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify the foundation of sexism.	K	CRT
B. Define sexist behavior.	K	CRT
C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.	K	CRT
D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.	K	CRT
E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.	K	CRT
F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SEXISM

A. The Foundation of Sexism

1. Definition of Sexism

Sexism is a belief and attitude that one sex is superior to the other, thereby justifying sexual inequalities. Sexism is a prejudice, which may lead to discrimination based on a person's sex.

2. Sexist Attitudes

May stem from traditional stereotypes of gender roles and may include the belief that a person of one sex is intrinsically superior to a person of the other.

- a. A job applicant may face discriminatory hiring practices, or (if hired) receive unequal compensation or treatment compared to that of their opposite-sex peers. Extreme sexism may foster sexual harassment, sexual assault, and other forms of sexual violence (Doob, 2012).
- b. Although both men and women can be target and victims of sex discrimination, a vast literature show that sex discrimination in the Unites States is overwhelmingly a matter of men targeting women (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995 p.39).
- c. It has been 50 years since the United States Commission on Civil Rights has examined civil rights in the military. The Commission has authority to examine questions related to sexual assault in the military because the issues involve both sex discrimination and the denial of equal protection in the administration of justice.
- d. The issue of sex discrimination involves female Service members, who represent 14 percent of the military population, and the likelihood that they are over five times more likely to experience some form of sexual assault, as defined by the DoD, than their male counterparts (Under Secretary of Defense, 2013).

3. Gender Role and Gender Typing

Gender role socialization is the first aspect of the development of sexism. It is established during our socialization process (McDowell, 1986, p. 168)

- a. Socialization – All-encompassing educational process from which values, goals, beliefs, attitudes, and gender roles are acquired. It is an elaborate process by which individuals become distinctive and actively functioning members of the society in which they live. It is the primary method of learning culture.
- b. Gender typing – A socialization process by which children, at an early age, learn appropriate gender roles (Corsini, 1987, pp. 1028).

- 1) Reinforced by family, peers, and the environment
 - 2) Continues throughout an individual's lifetime
 - c. Gender roles – Behaviors, interests, attitudes, skills, and personality traits a culture considers appropriate for males and females (Corsini, 1987, p. 1027).
4. Values and attitudes

Sexism can also be attributed to our values, which enforce our attitudes.

- a. Values – represent something important in our existence; a type of belief, centrally located within our self-concept, about how we ought or ought not to behave.
- b. Attitude – as a state of mind or feeling with regard to some matter: a disposition.
- c. Prejudice – An antipathy based upon faulty and inflexible generalization. It may be felt or expressed. It may be directed toward a group as a whole or toward an individual because he/she is a member of that group.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \textit{Values} \\
 + \\
 \textit{Attitudes} \\
 (\textit{Unreasonable and negative}) \\
 = \\
 \textit{Prejudice}
 \end{array}$$

B. Sexist Behavior

1. Definition of Sexist behavior is defined as verbal and/or nonverbal behaviors that convey insulting, offensive, or condescending attitudes based on the gender of the respondent. (Fitzgerald et al., 1988).
2. Dr. Allport's Levels of Intensity

Consider how these levels can be aligned to sexist behavior when acting out prejudice.

- a. Antilocution – Catcalls, bad mouthing, name calling (e.g., babe, chick, the old lady, beefcake, and stud-muffin).
- b. Avoidance – Joining all male/female clubs, maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, asking for a transfer.

- c. Discrimination – Unequal pay for equal work, establishing all male/female clubs, giving awards or job assignments based on gender.
 - 1) Sex discrimination is defined as treating individuals differently in their employment specifically because of their sex (e.g., unfair or unequal access to professional development resources and opportunities due to a member's gender). It is illegal to create artificial barriers to career advancement because of an individual's sex. *Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members (WGRA)* is conducted by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC).
 - 2) Examples of blatant sex discrimination include sexual harassment, sexist language and jokes, physical violence, and other forms of obviously unequal treatment in the family, employment, politics, religion, law, and other areas (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995, p. 39)
- d. Physical attacks – Rape, spouse abuse, sabotage of another's work, vandalizing property.
- e. Extermination – Killing your spouse, ignoring or pretending they do not exist.

C. Influences that Perpetuate Sexism

1. Mass Media and Stereotyping Allow Sexism to Continue

From a historical perspective, sexism has been perpetuated in many ways.

a. Mass Media

Historically, the mass media portray females as either sexual objects or as people who fight too hard in order to survive in "a man's world."

b. Stereotyping

Stereotypes may or may not originate in a kernel of truth, they aid people in simplifying their categories, they justify hostility, and sometimes they serve as projection screens for our personal conflict. However, there is an addition and exceedingly important reason for their existence. They are socially supported continually revived and hammered in by our media of mass communication—novels, short stories, newspaper items, movies, stage radio, and television. (Allport, 1979, p. 200)

2. Societal Influences that Allow Sexism to Continue

a. Behavior.

Historically, boys were encouraged to compete from early childhood. They learn that competition is ok and that winning is important. Until recently, girls were more likely to

participate in activities which stressed service and cooperation. As a result, studies have shown that women today tend to react differently to competition than men. Sometimes they will withdraw from competitive situations. Given a choice, they are more likely to set up a cooperative system, rather than a competitive one. They also tend to be more concerned with fairness and will try to equalize relationships, even when they are not equal. For example, they may give credit where it isn't due (Strauss, pp. 17–19; Bem, 1993, pp. 19–20).

- b. Ability: It could be said that women and men have different abilities and aptitudes.

Men's and women's bodies are different because of the reproductive design. Differences based on productivity, however, do not generalize to the ability to shoot a gun or wash a baby. Most studies done, do not take into account the effect of lifetime gender role training. (Burke, 1996, pp. 192–193)

- c. Psychology/Personality

Some people perceive that factual biological differences result in psychological or personality differences. For example, women are emotional, dependent, won't make calm, logical decisions, women have mood swings—unreliable for positions of responsibility. In a 1995 Newsweek cover story, *The New Science of the Brain: Why Men & Women Think Differently*, the author, Begley, concluded that the “overlap between men's and women's scores on just about every psychological test is huge. Any randomly chosen woman might do better at a ‘male’ skill than a man and vice versa.” She also stated a Yale study which found that, in one particular experiment, “42 percent of the women's brains “worked like the men's.” Perhaps the most arresting implication of the research is not that there are undeniable differences between males and females, but that their differences are so small relative to the possibilities open to them (Burke, 1996, pp. 189–192).”

- d. Ignoring, speaking for, clarifying, and interrupting

Discounting input by giving the impression that the speaker has nothing important to say is usually unable or unprepared to respond or is incapable of getting the message across.

- e. Pro-Sexism

It is accommodating sexist behavior by reinforcing or encouraging it, rather than questioning, checking, or opposing it. People are pro-sexist for a number of reasons. Some people are socialized to accept it; some go along to be more acceptable—sometimes because it will help them gain power and make more effective changes. Whatever the reason, it is often not an easy choice. Regardless of the intention, a person who is pro-sexist must understand that the message will be that sexist behavior is ok. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 30–32; 36–37; 63–65)

3. Cultural Influences that Allow Sexism to Continue

From childhood on, many males and females in our culture are taught to exhibit certain behaviors.

The preference for biological rather than cultural explanations is suggestive of accounts once offered. To experts around the turn of the century, an “innate sexual disqualification” rather than “social prejudice” was obviously to blame. Similar, if more subtle, cultural binders remain, much of the research and even more of the media coverage concerning “real differences” present contested findings as established facts. Yet the point on which there is greatest consensus is that experts have reached no consensus on these issues. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 28–29)

4. Institutional Roles Influencing the Continuance of Sexism

- a. Job role labels—There is such a strong gender association with some jobs—we use labels that set others apart (women doctor, male nurse, female service member) and expect men to do certain jobs and women to hold certain jobs.
- b. Unnecessary division—Actor: one who acts, why then say actress? Then there is the waiter, but waitress. Men on airplanes/not stewards—all flight attendants
- c. Media—Has continued to turn sexual images of both women and men into entertainment.

D. Historical Events that Contributed to Sexism in the Military

1. Historical Events

Historically, sexism has been perpetuated in the military. To demonstrate the historical behavior, let’s use the Three R Syndrome, first introduced in the racism lesson.

- a. Reject: Army regulations did not allow women to enlist, and so many women masqueraded as men in order to serve their country.
- b. Recruit: Spanish American War 1898—When the United States formally intervened to aid in Cuba’s quest for independence from Spain, only men were recruited for an Army that would fight the Spanish American War. Before the war barely got off the ground, an epidemic of typhoid fever spread through the Army camps. The medical treatment facilities were unsanitary and understaffed for handling the large number of sick and wounded. Because the Army was unable to recruit enough men to provide medical treatment, Congress authorized the Army to appoint women as Army nurses under contract, but without military status. Some 1,500 women were recruited and served for approximately four years.

- c. **Reject:** It was emphasized that the nurses were civilian contract workers and not to be confused with soldiers who cared for the sick. Although medical care was much more organized and effective under direct military control, most Army personnel opposed giving military status to women.
- d. **Recruit:** There is evidence that Army leaders wanted women workers other than nurses, but the Secretary of War would not permit it. General John J. Pershing, Commander of the American Expeditionary Forces in Europe (AEF), however, proceeded without authorization and issued a call for women to serve as military switchboard operators. Approximately 7,000 women applied, but only those who could speak French were considered. The 233 who were accepted for service took an enlistment oath, purchased uniforms, and completed two weeks of training in communications and self-defense before being sent to France. They became known as the “Hello Girls.”
- e. **Reject:** The Hello Girls were praised in the newspapers for their bravery and they were awarded service medals when the war ended. Then, without warning, they were sent civilian service termination letters instead of honorable military discharges because (despite what the women were told when they were recruited) the Army still considered them contract civilians.
- f. **Recruit:** In 1920, the Army Reorganization Act granted military nurses the status of officers with “relative rank” from second lieutenant to major, but they were not given the rights and privileges generally accorded those ranks.
- g. **Reject:** In 1925, the 1916 Naval Reserve Act was changed to read “male citizens” instead of “citizens” as enlistment qualifications. Women could no longer enlist in the Navy and Marines without Congressional approval. The number of women in the Services continued to decline.
- h. **Recruit:** World War II 1941–1945—When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the Services once again began recruiting women. Recruitment of women was a big undertaking. Posters urged women to join the Services and “free a man to fight.” In 1942, the War Department was still in desperate need of women to fill support roles and free men for combat. Amid much controversy, Congress passed legislation to form the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC).
- i. **Reject:** President Truman signed the Women’s Armed Services Integration Act of 1948. Women finally had permanent military status and opened the door for women to serve in peacetime and provided a means for mobilizing women in the event of war. But, the number of women on active duty could not exceed 2 percent of the force, the number of high-ranking female officers in each service branch was limited, and certain career fields were not open to women, particularly those where there was a potential for combat. That same year, the President signed the Selective Service Act of 1948, authorizing a peacetime draft of men. There was then less incentive for recruiting women to fill the military ranks in peacetime, and their numbers dropped. When the conflict began in Korea, all of the Services stepped up their recruiting efforts, but they were unsuccessful

in getting the numbers they wanted. By 1951, only 1% of the total military force was female, even though a goal was set for the maximum 2%.

- j. Recruit: Finally, on November 8, 1967, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed Public Law 90-130, which removed restrictions on the careers of female officers in the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps. The law eliminated the 2% cap on the number of women serving and the ceiling on the highest grade they could achieve. Later in 1978, the WAAC was disestablished and the women became part of the regular Army.

2. Current Policies

- a. Opportunities for servicewomen have increased dramatically since 1948, when the Women's Armed Services Integration Act of 1948 gave women a permanent place in the military services. Your required reading should have made you aware of this fact up to today's progress. Let's talk about DoD policy leading this issue.
- b. In February 1988, the DoD adopted a Department-wide policy called the "Risk Rule," that set a single standard for evaluating positions and units from which the military service could exclude women. The rule excluded women from noncombat units or missions if the risks of exposure to direct combat, hostile fire, or capture were equal to or greater than the risk in the combat units they supported. Each service used its own mission requirements and the Risk Rule to evaluate whether a noncombat position should be open or closed to women.
- c. The National Defense Authorization Act for fiscal years 1992 and 1993 repealed the prohibition on the assignment of women to combat aircraft in the Air Force, the Navy, and the Marines Corps. The act also established the Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces to study the legal, military, and societal implications of amending the exclusionary laws. The Commission's November 1992 report recommended retaining the direct ground combat exclusion for women.
- d. In January 1994, the Secretary of Defense, in response to advice from the Implementation Committee, rescinded the Risk Rule. In the DoD's view, the rule was no longer appropriate based on experiences during Operation Desert Storm, where everyone in the theater of operation was at risk. The Secretary of Defense also established a new DoD-wide direct ground combat assignment rule that allows all service members to be assigned to all positions for which they qualify, but excludes women from assignments to units below the brigade level whose primary mission is direct ground combat.
- e. The purpose of this change was to expand opportunities for women in the services. Additionally, the Secretary stipulated that no units or positions previously open to women would be closed. At that time, the Secretary issued a definition of direct ground combat to ensure a consistent application of the policy excluding women from direct ground combat units.

E. Factors that Impact the Full Integration of Women in the Military

1. Stereotypes that Impact Full Integration

- a. Psychological – Don't have the killer mentality, can't handle stress, emotional, mood swings, too feminine (i.e., perceived as weak, not taken seriously, given office jobs) or too masculine (i.e., labeled lesbians; Herbert, pp. 68–73)
- b. Physical – For example women are the weaker sex and have no endurance

All services physical fitness tests are based on age and gender. Men willingly accept the differing age standards that affect them, but complain about the lower standards for women (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52).

- c. Pregnancy issues – During contingencies the ability to deploy pregnant women is restricted by policy. Under some conditions, pregnant women can participate in field exercises, but they cannot deploy overseas or out to sea. In the Navy, women are removed from the ship when they are 20 weeks into a pregnancy. The effect of this “unplanned loss” depends on how long it takes to get a replacement. (Harrell, 1997, p. 39)

Service men say that policies for pregnancy adversely affect their units. Some accuse women of intentionally getting pregnant in order to avoid deployments. Men complain they must do more work because of the limitations doctors put on pregnant women and blame individual women personally rather than service policy. (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52)

- d. Leadership issues – For example, no man would follow a woman into battle; and women can't make logical decisions.
- e. Sexual harassment – As reported in the 2012 *Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*, 23% of women and 4% of men indicated experiencing sexual harassment in the last twelve months. The report also states that 47% of women and 15% of men indicated experiencing sexist behavior (DMDC, 2012a, *2012 Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*)
- f. Teasing and offhand comments – Although the law does not prohibit simple isolated incidents that are not very serious, harassment is illegal when it is so frequent or severe that it creates a hostile or offensive work environment or when it results in an adverse employment decision such as the victim being fired or demoted. (EEOC.gov/laws/types/sex.cfm)
- g. First names – When ranks/last names are used for members of one sex versus the other, it implies superiority of one sex over another, establishes a power relationship, shows disrespect towards, or discounts members of one sex. Women are often caught in the grip of a paradox. They are far more often called by their first names and touched by men. (Feldman, 1993, p. 24)

2. Sexism and Ego Defense Mechanisms

Remember when you learned about ego defense mechanisms in the Socialization lesson? Now, let's associate some of those mechanisms into the Sexism lesson.

- a. Denial – “There is no way she outdid me in the push-ups” or “No way, she returned fire with her weapon, before I did!”
- b. Projection – “If she didn't dress so provocatively, she wouldn't get so much attention.”
- c. Rationalization – “Boys will be boys.” “It's expected that the men in my shop unload the truck when supplies are delivered, most items are too heavy for the women to carry.” “I was not promoted because of a quota that promote unqualified candidates specially women”

F. Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

1. EOA Responsibilities/Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexist Behaviors in the Military

- a. Self-Analysis/Self-Awareness – Know self. “How has Sexism influence/affected me?” “What behaviors do I displayed that may be interpreted as sexist?”
- b. Model behavior
 - 1) Role model – Walk the talk. Acknowledge and understand difference, don't group people and assume they all have the same characteristics; this will reduce your stereotyping.
 - 2) Challenge – challenge inappropriate behaviors
 - 3) Advocate for EO – Advocate fair treatment. Deal with standards, qualifications, and a person's ability to meet them, rather than perceptions and beliefs about what is appropriate.
- c. Keep current on EO issues/information
- d. Education and training – train at all levels

2. Leadership Strategies that will Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

- a. Policy and administration – Development and implementation of legislation, laws, and policies that do not discriminate on the basis of gender
- b. Prevention – Periodic climate assessment, education/training awareness

- c. Set the example – Organizational culture from top to bottom
- d. Mission – Fully utilize all personnel. Zero tolerance for negative impact of sexism on mission readiness.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify the foundation of sexism.
- B. Define sexist behavior.
- C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.
- D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.
- E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.
- F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3250

SEXUAL HARASSMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding sexual harassment and recognizing harassment behaviors is vital for an EOA. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional it is important that you recognize sexual harassment, understand the impact it has on individuals and the organization collectively in a military setting, and apply strategies to prevent sexual harassment in your unit.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–Sexual Harassment
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and study guide, comprehend how sexual harassment can impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define sexual harassment.	K	CRT
B. Describe types of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.	K	CRT
D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

SEXUAL HARASSMENT

A. Definition of Sexual Harassment

The term sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or

Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or

Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as abusive work environment harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. Workplace is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment. (*Title 10 United States Code (U.S.C.) § 1561, Complaints of Sexual Harassment: Investigation by Commanding Officers*)

1. The term "sexual harassment" is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:
2. Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or
 - a. In the context of this definition, *explicit* is a full precise expression in the form of verbal, nonverbal, or physical behavior(s). In other words, things being said or acted upon or demonstrated in a clear, overt, and open manner that are "clearly out of bounds."
 - b. *Implicit* means implied or inferred behaviors that are not clearly expressed, but are understood. These behaviors can also be verbal, nonverbal, or physical in nature. Implicit behaviors are closely associated with the subtleties of sexual harassment and often take the form of innuendoes. Examples include hints of something improper, indirect remarks, or gestures suggesting impropriety.

- c. Third party sexual harassment means that the victim does not have to be the only person affected by the harassment behavior, but could also be anyone affected by the offensive behavior in the defined “workplace”—“an expansive term for military members that includes conduct on/off duty, 24 hours a day” (DoD Directive 1350.2).
3. Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or
 4. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual’s work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.
 - a. A “hostile environment” occurs when service members or civilians are subjected to offensive, unwanted, unsolicited comments and behaviors of a sexual nature. If the behavior in question has the purpose (intent) or effect (impact) of unreasonably interfering with their work performance, then the environment is classified as “hostile.” A “hostile environment” brings the topic of sex or gender differences into the workplace. It does not necessarily include the more blatant acts of *Quid Pro Quo*. Rather, it normally includes those actions in the “gray areas” or the nonviolent behaviors which are gender based.
 - b. Assessing whether the behavior is appropriate or offensive must be done from the perspective of the recipient, not the alleged harasser. The primary concern is the victim’s perspective and not the intent of the alleged harasser. While the intent (purpose) of the alleged offender is given consideration, the effect (impact) of such behaviors on the subject or recipient may sometimes cause the intent to be irrelevant.
 5. This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. “Workplace” is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day.
 - a. Work environment is defined according to DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, 20. It is the workplace or any other place that is work-connected, as well as the conditions or atmosphere under which people are required to work.
 - b. The Reasonable Person Standard Test has two components:
 - 1) Objective portion

The objective test requires a hypothetical exposure of a “**reasonable person**” to the same set of facts and circumstances—How would a reasonable person under similar circumstances react or be affected by such behavior?

If such “reasonable person” perceives the harassing behaviors as creating an intimidating, hostile or abusive work environment then the objective test has been met.

2) Subjective portion

The subjective test requires that the victim or subject perceives the harassing behaviors as intimidating or hostile or as creating an abusive work environment.

6. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment.

The definition of sexual harassment emphasizes supervisory and command responsibilities. Some examples of supervisory and command responsibilities include:

- a. Examining his/her behaviors.
 - b. Providing an environment free of intimidation, hostility, and psychological stress.
 - c. Controlling social interactions so that they do not interfere with productivity.
 - d. Taking corrective action(s) whenever sexual behavior is displayed.
 - e. Holding everyone responsible and accountable for their actions.
 - f. Establishing and enforcing behavioral standards.
 - g. Taking disciplinary action as appropriate.
 - h. Examining the totality of the circumstances (e.g., nature of advances, and context of occurrence).
7. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment.

B. Types of Sexual Harassment

1. Quid Pro Quo

In a “*Quid Pro Quo*” sexual harassment situation, the person who is the harasser is usually a person who is in a position of power (e.g., supervisor, manager, and instructor). The victim is usually a person who feels s/he must respond to the sexual advance in order to gain something in return. It is important to note that it is not necessary for the victim to respond

or act upon the sexual advance for the sexual harassment offense under “*Quid Pro Quo*” to apply.

2. Hostile Environment

For workplace conduct to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, it need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim perceives, the work environment as hostile or offensive.

C. Behaviors that Constitute Sexual Harassment

1. Verbal

Verbal behavior refers to comments made to, about, and in the presence of a person. For example:

- a. Turning work discussions into sexual topics.
 - b. Sexual connotations or innuendoes while referring to someone as honey, baby, hunk, stud, darling, and etc.
 - c. Telling lies or spreading rumors about a person’s personal sex life.
 - d. Telling jokes or stories and making comments with sexual connotations.
 - e. Making sexual comments about a person’s clothing, body, or sexual activities.
 - f. Asking questions about a person's sexual life, fantasies, preferences, or history.
 - g. Whistling or making catcalls at someone.
- 1) Although behaviors are not blatant or overt in nature, if they convey overtones or undertones that are suggestive in nature, it might result in sexual harassment. In terms of service policies and regulations, either suggesting or encouraging a subordinate to wear shorter or tighter clothing could also result in sexual harassment.
 - 2) It is difficult to determine the nature of the behavior that would constitute sexual harassment. Although a behavior may be very much unprofessional, if behavior does not have a sexual connotation, it does not constitute sexual harassment.

2. Non-verbal

According to the definition of sexual harassment, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated *unwelcome...gestures...* of a sexual nature is engaging in sexual harassment (DoDD 1350.2). Some examples are:

- a. Paying unwanted attention to someone by ogling or staring at their body.
- b. Displaying sexually suggestive visuals (e.g., centerfolds, calendars, cartoons).
- c. Items depicting sexual parts of the body (e.g., ashtrays, coffee cups, figurines).
- d. Sexually oriented entertainment in organizations, base facilities, or officially sanctioned functions.
- e. Sexually suggestive gestures with hands or through body movement (e.g., blowing kisses, licking lips, winking, grabbing crotch, lowering pants, raising skirts, etc.).
- f. E-mails, text messages, or any type of electronic communication that is sexual in nature.

3. Physical

Physical behavior refers to unwanted touching of an individual. For example:

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

D. Effects of Sexual Harassment

1. Work Related

The Supreme Court has recognized that harassment in the workplace is a violation of the Civil Rights Act, and although past cases have clarified employer responsibilities for preventing and correcting harassment, many other issues are uncertain.

Determining when social interaction becomes “unwelcomed” sexual harassment, and just how severe or widespread offensive conduct must be to constitute a hostile work

environment is not very clear. In the rest of this section we will examine in more detail individual, organizational, and economic effects of sexual harassment in the workplace.

a. Individual

- 1) Studies have shown that some of the negative job ramifications for victims of sexual harassment include:
 - a) decreased job satisfaction
 - b) decline in job performance
 - c) decreased motivation
 - d) decreased motivation
 - e) decreased morale
 - f) increased absenteeism
 - g) lowered productivity
 - h) impaired relationships between co-workers
- 2) As a result, commanders should not merely be concerned with whether steps have been taken to ensure that an affirmative defense can be raised in the event that a sexual harassment complaint is filed. Rather, they should address whether mechanisms are in place for evaluating the extent that employees perceive conduct of a sexual nature is offensive and the effect those perceptions have on their self-esteem and work performance.

b. Organizational

- 1) Many emotional factors may result when employees return to the workplace after filing a complaint, such as a rise in retaliatory actions. Types of organizational withdrawal include avoiding work duties (work withdrawal), job turnover, retirement, and etc. (job withdrawal). Some of the organizational effects of sexual harassment resemble individual effects and include:
 - a) lower productivity
 - b) damaged reputation
 - c) emotional factors
 - d) organizational withdrawal

- 2) Understanding the impact that sexual harassment can have on your unit will help you to help your commander improve command policy regarding filing and processing sexual harassment complaints and help design prevention programs.
- 3) Improving job attitudes will mediate the influence that sexual harassment has on organizational withdrawal.

c. Economic

- 1) The costs of sexual harassment to the economy are staggering. The EEOC has estimated that the monetary cost of sexual harassment for civilians in fiscal year 2011 was \$52.3 million. The costs to the military include things such as:
 - a) lost duty time
 - b) lost productivity
 - c) decreased unit morale/cohesion
 - d) mission accomplishment
 - e) medical treatment
 - f) reassignment costs
 - g) family impacts
 - h) suicide
- 2) Imagine the economic impact of the time spent on inquiries/investigations including investigators, the alleged harasser, the complainant, witnesses, and others, training stand-downs, unplanned losses such as the harasser and/or the complainant.

2. Effects on the Victim

a. Psychological

- 1) A victim is often not only affected by the sexual harassment itself, but also other related stress such as workplace gossip and a disrupted work history. Sexual harassment victims experience a wide variety of symptoms, including:
 - a) Decreased self-esteem and self-confidence
 - b) Difficulties with trust

- c) Depression
 - d) Anxiety
 - e) Fear of rape
 - f) Increased fear of crime in general
 - g) Seemingly “contradictory” emotional responses to harassment
 - h) The victim may regard sexual harassment as a shameful experience, which may lead to social isolation and/or alienation from co-workers who may have experienced similar harassment.
- 2) Those who experience sexual harassment may also experience intangible emotional costs inflicted by anger, humiliation, frustration, withdrawal, and dysfunction in work and family life.

b. Health-Related

In addition to the psychological abnormalities caused by sexual harassment, researchers have documented a variety of physical health complaints. Common physical health complaints include:

- 1) Headaches, neck, and back pain
- 2) Gastrointestinal disturbances
- 3) Tiredness/fatigue
- 4) Sleep disturbance
- 5) Weight loss and loss of appetite
- 6) Dental-related problems

c. Individual/Victim Coping Strategies

1) Detachment

To cope with sexual harassment, both victims and harassers may discount or invalidate the victim’s claim that sexual harassment has occurred or is occurring. A victim may minimize the situation by treating it like a job or deciding that the incident was really not important.

2) Denial

This is the most common form of discounting that victim's abuse. This means pretending the situation is not happening or trying not to notice that sexual harassing behaviors are taking place. Denial may take the form of trying to forget about the situation or incident in order to put the incident behind him/her.

3) Relabeling

This involves offering excuses for the harasser or interpreting the behavior as flattering. For example, "S/he is not really like that... S/he did not mean to harass me... S/he was only joking... Maybe I'm being a little too uptight."

4) Avoidance

The victim may ask to be transferred, use frequent leave, or go to sick call frequently to avoid the harassing situations.

E. Strategies to Combat Sexual Harassment

The commander and other leaders within your unit must have the attitude that sexual harassment is a serious problem that interferes with productivity and that it will not be tolerated.

Prevention is the best tool and as an EOA you play a pivotal role by assisting the commander with policy awareness, training, command climate assessments, complaints processing, and overall advisory assistance concerning the prevention of sexual harassment.

1. Proactive Strategies

Commitment from the top makes a difference, and when senior management is perceived as making the prevention of sexual harassment a top priority, this attitude of seriousness will be passed down and throughout the entire unit. The best approach will be positive and oriented toward addressing the issue or concern. Sexual harassment programs should be direct and not overly threatening, and should include everyone—employees at all levels. Proactive sexual harassment prevention strategies include the following:

- a. Addressing and stopping existing sexist or other behaviors of a sexual nature that may create an atmosphere conducive to sexual harassment. In most cases, employees will stop behaving in ways that offend others if they are informed about their behavior in private and in a respectful, non-threatening way.
- b. Ensuring organizational policy letters are up-to-date, outlining procedures on what to do in the event sexual harassment occurs. A written, posted policy statement regarding sexual harassment is a strong indicator of top management support.

- 1) Using bulletin boards for passing on information concerning prevention of sexual harassment. Bulletin boards must be visible to all members of the public (e.g., organizations, services agencies, and any other location that is visible to the public). Most important, be familiar with DoD, EEOC, and your Service's regulations and policies on sexual harassment.
- 2) Conducting sexual harassment prevention trainings, such as: workshops, seminars, guest speakers, symposiums, informal and formal group discussions, etc.). During the training, have individuals role-play in situations, and discuss individuals' differences in culture, personal space, socially accepted behaviors, and internalized values (enculturation).
- 3) Conducting unit climate assessments on a regular basis. Climate assessments are tools that assist commanders at all levels in determining their human relations climate. The program identifies those human relations factors, both positive and negative, that may affect mission readiness such as unit morale, equal opportunity and treatment, interpersonal relationships, and communications.

2. Reactive Strategies

- a. Once a sexual harassment complaint has been filed, there are reactive strategies you will need to assist your commander with:
 - 1) Ensure all actions/complaints are dealt with in a timely manner.
 - 2) Conduct appropriate follow-up actions and check for reprisal or retaliation.
 - 3) Based on reactive measures, you need to reengage and reemphasize proactive strategies.
- b. If you do nothing, most likely nothing will be done. The system is for you so use it. You will learn more about complaint processing procedures in your service specific training. Always refer to your Service's policies and procedures for specific guidance.

3. Techniques

Service members are encouraged to try to resolve acts of sexual harassment or to report them to the chain of command or other appropriate agencies. In order to do this, Service members must be trained on a variety of strategies they can use to prevent or resolve sexual harassment in the unit or work area. The following strategies can be a valuable tool in dealing with sexual harassment:

a. Direct Approach

- 1) Write down thoughts before approaching the individual involved. Confront the harasser and tell him/her exactly what behavior is offensive and unwanted and that it

must stop. Avoid verbal attacks. Instead, use common courtesy staying focused on the behavior being addressed and its impact. In most cases, the alleged harasser will stop behaving in ways that offend others if he/she is informed about offensive behavior in private, respectful, and non-threatening way.

- 2) Individuals should let the harasser know how they feel.
- 3) Individuals should let the harasser know that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues.

b. Indirect Approach

Send a letter to the harasser stating the facts (i.e., an objective description of the incident), specific behaviors that are offensive and unwelcome, personal feelings about the inappropriate behavior, expected resolution, and that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues. Subjects of sexual harassment should keep a copy of the letter for record in the event an informal/formal complaint is subsequently required.

c. Third Party Approach

- 1) Request assistance from another person (i.e., intermediary). Ask someone else (a co-worker, supervisor, or leader) to talk to the harasser on your behalf, or to accompany you to resolve the conflict.
- 2) A third party or intermediary does not speak for the subject. Instead, he/she relates specifically what behavior the subject wants stopped, and makes clear that continued behavior will result in reporting the incident to the chain of command.

d. Report the Harassment to the Chain of Command

- 1) Chain of Command: Report the behavior to immediate supervisor or others in the chain of command and ask for assistance in resolving the situation. The decision to report an incident of sexual harassment is often viewed as a last resort by most of the subjects. However, reporting does have its place even when the subject has been successful in stopping the harassment. The letter to the harasser becomes a valuable tool in the process of reporting sexual harassment to the chain of command.
- 2) Filing an Informal/Formal Complaint: Details of filing an informal/formal complaint are described in respective service regulations and instructions.
- 3) Use Resources Appropriate for Your Branch of Service. Familiarize yourselves with the details of your respective service policies on the prevention of sexual harassment and grievance procedures. Other sources of assistance include:
 - a) Local EO/EEO Office

- b) The Inspector General (IG)

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define sexual harassment.
- B. Describe types of sexual harassment.
- C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.
- D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.
- E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 3300

SYSTEM vs. VICTIM FOCUS



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Reference materials from nonfederal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an equal opportunity advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context

Lesson Overview

Provide information so students understand that victim focus, which can be physical, psychological, or economic, tends to concentrate on symptoms of problems while system focus tends to center on the causes. Stress to students that it is imperative for leaders to be dual focused to eliminate discrimination by spotlighting causes as well as symptoms. Begin by defining key terms. Thoroughly discuss the process of blaming the victim and explain why the system rarely is blamed. Use the Drawbridge Activity in the small group environment to explore the distribution of power and its effect(s) on our ability to focus on the system.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 3300 System vs. Victim Focus
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective:

Given a lecture, study guide, and experiential learning activities; comprehend how victim focus (victimization) impacts mission readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion-referenced test.

As part of cognitive development, students must also develop their interpersonal skills by participating in activities while in residence. It’s important to note that activities are designed to elicit discussion that may enter the **Affective Domain** of learning. In these cases, the **affective objective** is for each student to actively participate in various group activities and to “respond with interest” to material presented (i.e., express opinions, beliefs, etc.). To measure the Cognitive and Affective behaviors expected of the students during activities, the Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation (ISDE) form is used and each student must obtain a minimum passing score of 70%. Students are expected to demonstrate professionalism as they control their intrapersonal and interpersonal skills.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define victim.	K	CRT
B. Define victim focus.	K	CRT
C. State the process of blaming the victim.	K	CRT
D. State the ideological process of blaming the victim.	K	CRT
E. Describe system focus.	C	CRT
F. Describe the method to prevent victim focus.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SYSTEM vs. VICTIM FOCUS

A. Victim

Definition of Victim

In the “Handbook on Justice for Victims”, “victims” are defined in the broad sense as persons who, individually or collectively, have suffered harm.

Types of Harm

1. Physical and mental injury

- a. Physical injuries resulting from victimization may not always be immediately apparent. This may be particularly true in cases of domestic violence where the injuries occur on parts of the body that are normally clothed.
- b. Physical injuries may be a permanent effect of crime and there is evidence that this has a negative effect on long-term psychological recovery, since the physical scars serve as a constant reminder of the crime.

2. Emotional suffering

Anger is a reaction that some victims and helpers find difficult to deal with. It may be directed at other victims, helpers, bystanders, organizations and also at oneself. Among some groups and in some cultures there may be a feeling that it is wrong to express anger even when it is strongly felt. There may be pressure on victims to control their emotions.

3. Economic loss

The financial impact of crime is less well documented. Victims may incur costs in the following ways: repairing property or replacing possessions; installing security measures; accessing health services; participating in the criminal justice process, for example, attending the trial, obtaining professional counseling to come to terms with the emotional impact, taking time off work or from other income-generating activities, funeral, or burial expenses.

4. Substantial impairment of fundamental rights

- a. Acts of omissions that violate national laws or internationally-recognized norms relating to human rights.
- b. Many victims face insensitive treatment by the police, prosecutors, and court officials, thus causing a “second injury.” This applies particularly to certain, especially vulnerable, categories of victims, such as migrants, minorities and victims of sexual offenses, as well as refugees, prisoners of war, and civilian victims of war and civil strife.

5. Victimization

“Unwarranted singling out of an individual or group for subjection to crime, exploitation, tort, unfair treatment, or other wrong” (Business Dictionary.com).

Victimization looks at how society responds to victims and the systems that deal with victims “Victim Focus” or “System Focus.”

B. Victim Focus

1. Definition of Victim Focus

Victim focus is a reactive problem-solving approach, which narrowly defines problems in terms of the victims. This viewpoint sees the cause of the problem as the victims themselves. We focus on and study the victims only, find out how we can fix them and then integrate them back into the system.

2. Victim Focus is Reactive

Sometimes this process is unavoidable. The concern enters when victim focus becomes the organization’s primary means of problem solving. Why is it that in some of our organizations, we often seem to fix the same problem(s) again and again and the only difference often being the person presenting the concern? This practice may be partially linked to the way victims are viewed.

C. Process of Blaming The Victim

Steps involved with blaming the victim.

Step 1: Identify a social problem.

No one would argue that social problems are abundant and readily identifiable.

- a) Be structural or social in origin.
- b) Be of considerable magnitude.
- c) Appears as viable alternatives that society is able to provide (i.e., solutions).

Step 2 – Study those affected by the problem and discover how they are different from the rest of society.

Many cultural beliefs associated with the protected “social order” stereotype victims while others help observers evaluate and assess victim behavior. So we look at those

who “have” the problem and separate them in some way as a special group that is different.

The different ones are seen as less competent, less skilled, and in short, less human. All the news reports and original files of early racial incidents at bases around the world identified the blacks as being different and the ones with the issues.

Step 3 – Define the differences that are the root of the problem. By taking a very individualized focus, blaming the victim identifies—or even manufactures—traits that differentiate victims from the rest of us (i.e., the poor are poor because they are unfit).

Step 4 – Assign someone to initiate a humanitarian program to correct the impact of the differences.

D. Ideological Process of Blaming the Victim

1. The belief system itself:

It is the way of looking at the world, the set of ideas, and concepts.

2. Systematic distortion of reality reflected in those ideas:

Victims are viewed as numbers or statistics instead of individuals.

So if we determined earlier that victims are the cause of their own problems, we can easily view them as statistics that need to be addressed, instead of members of a society affected by the very system they are a part of.

3. Distortions must not be a conscious and an intentional process:

These beliefs and concepts are so widely accepted by society, it’s not considered intentional, but merely in line with how things are “supposed to happen.”

4. Distortions, although not intentional, must serve a specific function:

Maintaining the status quo is in the interest of a specific group.

E. System Focus

1. Definition of System Focus

System focus is “a problem-solving approach that broadly defines problems as being a part of or caused by the system, organization, society, or community.” We look at the system that

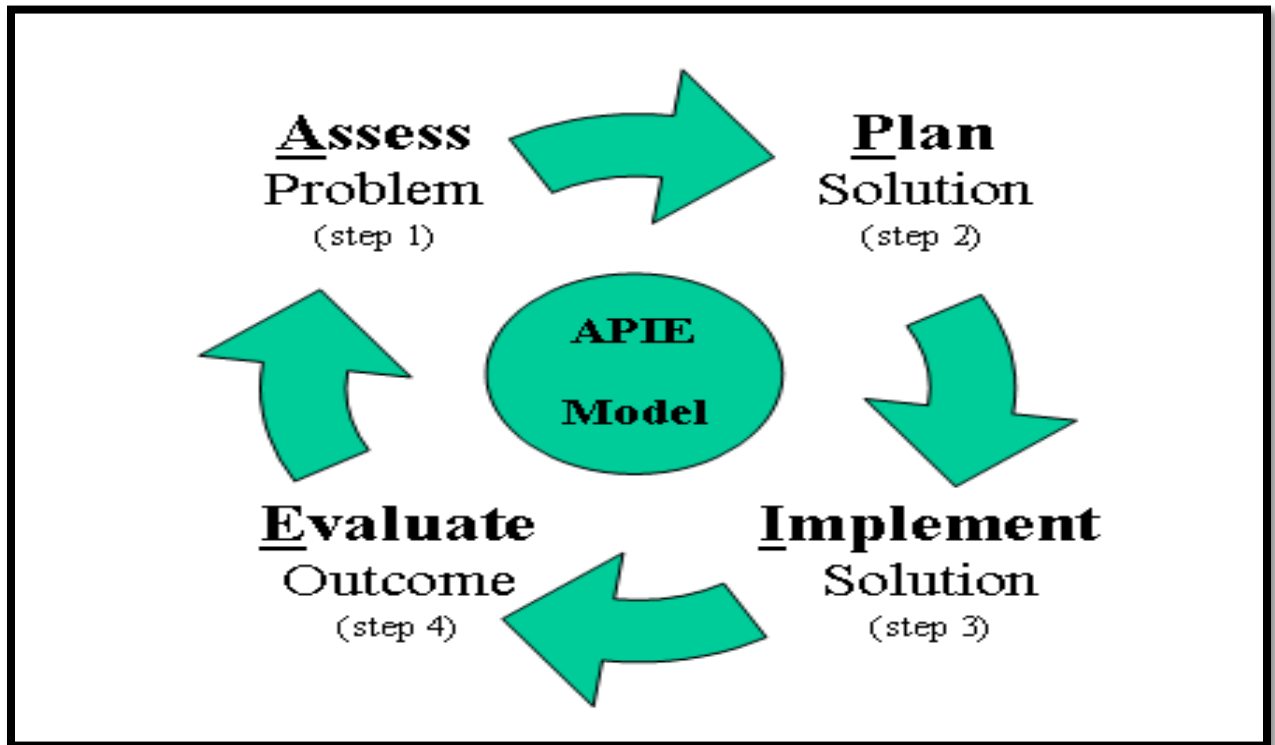
produces the victims and address the problem by determining how we can change or improve the system, as well as the victims, to prevent further problems. System focus is proactive.

2. Reasons System Focus is Overlooked

- a. It is not a quick fix. Prevailing theories blame institutions, offenders, or victims. Intentionally or not, each one may amount much more to “system defending.”
 - 1) The law does not change socialization.
 - 2) Easier to make victim conform. Victims often find themselves re-victimized by the process.
 - 3) Institution blaming focuses on regulatory failures. It pleads for greater resources, efficiency, and power while asking victims to be more cooperative and supportive but not to expect too much against the intractable problem.
 - 4) Offender blaming finds the inherent traits either of all people or in a select group of evil people. It suggests we can be more vigilant in identifying, punishing and isolating the problem. Victims must be constantly on their guard and help root out problems.
- b. Victims desire conformity. Victims often find themselves re-victimized by the process. If the victim thinks they will be re-victimized, perhaps the grievance procedures could be strengthened to protect victims’ rights.
- c. System is a self-perpetuating process. The system tends to maintain the status quo.
 - 1) If the perception of the victim is s/he did something to facilitate the actions taken against him or her or if the reality for the victim is that there will be consequences for taking action then the system will maintain its status quo.
 - 2) The purpose and intention of system focus does not relieve the victim of his or her responsibilities and contribution to the problem.

F. The Method to Prevent Victim Focus

The APIE is used as a method to prevent victimization.



Use the APIE method to identify, process, and prevent victimization. The four steps of the APIE method are:

Step 1 – Assess the symptoms and causes of the problem.

Roots are all the elements and behaviors that collectively characterize an organization. Roots determine how things work in a given organization.

During your assessment, you will find things out about the organization. The task here is to determine where change is needed—where a root may need to be removed, or tweaked, or added. The goal is to determine whether the roots support or hinder the efforts of the organization. Assessment is critical, since it provides the basis for planning change.

Step 2 – Plan solutions to symptoms and causes.

One of the most crucial and difficult steps in the process is identifying the actual problem. While this might seem to be an easy procedure, the key to defining the problem is locating the “real,” not associated symptoms. Problems usually are obscure, disguised, or locked inside some form of emotional distress relating to supervision, poor troop performance, or in other mission requirement.

1. Contrast the current roots with the desired change/outcome.
2. What should we be? The commander/manager driving the root modification is the change agent.
3. Develop a full scale plan for deliberately and definitively bringing about the change.
4. Changes must be direct and straightforward.

Step 3 – Implement Changes

1. Repeatedly articulate new solutions, elements, and behaviors.
2. Create supportive traditions.
3. Create appropriate heroes and heroines.
4. Influence communication networks (formal and informal; i.e. Facebook, etc...)
5. Recruit new root guards.
6. Reward change agents.
7. Change the system

Step 4: Evaluate Changes

1. Evaluate after a reasonable amount of time has passed (e.g., 6 months to a year).
2. Determine success of change.
 - a. Was the real problem identified?
 - b. Was the action taken appropriate?
3. Determine if the change should be terminated. If so, return to planning stage.
4. Reassess the organization.
 - a. Use the same methods as in the original assessment (APIE).
 - b. The main difference in the reassessment is that the focus is on expected outcomes from the planning stage.

APIE (acronym)

Assess the symptoms and causes of the problem.

Plan solutions to symptoms and causes.

Implement changes.

Evaluate changes.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define victim.
- B. Define victim focus.
- C. State the process of blaming the victim.
- D. State the ideological process of blaming the victim.
- E. Describe system focus.
- F. Describe the method to prevent victim focus.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 3350

RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY/ACCOMMODATION



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding religion and its diversity, especially within your unit, will help you assist leaders when they are faced with issues of religious accommodation and discrimination. This course includes one lesson of instruction: Religious Diversity/Accommodation. Within this lesson are topics of content that address the sample behaviors for the course objective. Each topic includes non-graded progress checks to review and reinforce key teaching points.

Recommended Reading

1. DoD Instruction 1300.17- Accommodations of Religious Practices within the Military Services
2. Religious Guidelines in the Federal Workplace

References

1. Department of Defense. (2009). DoDI 1300.17, *Accommodation of religious practices within the military services*. Washington, D.C.
2. Department of Defense. (2012). *Department of Defense Instruction. (DoDI) 1000.29, DoD Civil Liberties Program*.
3. Department of Defense. (2007). DoDI 1300.06, *Conscientious objectors*.
4. Department of Defense. (1997). DoDD 1350.02, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*.
5. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. (2008). *EEOC compliance manual (915.003)*. Washington, D.C.
6. Secretary of the Navy. (2008). SECNAVINST 1730.8B , *Accommodation of religious practices*. Department of the Navy, Office of the Secretary, Washington, D.C.

7. The White House Office of the Press Secretary. (1997). *Guidelines on religious exercise and religious expression in the federal workplace.*
8. U. S. Air Force Instruction. (2010). AFI 36-2706, AFRCSUP1_I, 2005, *Military Equal opportunity (MEO) program.*
9. U. S. Army Regulation. (2010). AR 600-20, *Army command policy.* Headquarters, Department of the Army, Washington, D.C.
10. U. S. Coast Guard Instruction. (1994). COMDTINST M1730.4B , *Religious ministries within the Coast Guard.*
U. S. Department of Transportation, Washington, D.C.
11. Department of Defense (2009). USMEPCOM Regulation 601-23, United States Entrance Processing Command, *Personnel procurement enlistment processing.* Chicago, IL.

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–Religious Diversity
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, know how religious discrimination impact mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define religion as described in DoD Directive 1350.2	K	CRT
B. Describe how DoD addresses religious accommodation requests	K	CRT
C. State how to recognize religious discrimination	K	CRT
D. Identify strategies to combat religious discrimination in the military	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY/ACCOMMODATION**A. Definitions**

1. The Department of Defense places a high value on the rights of members of the Military Services to observe the tenets of their respective religions, or no religion at all.
2. It is DoD policy that states accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on military necessity to include mission accomplishment, military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.
3. DoD Directive 1350.2 defines religion as:
"A personal set or institutionalized system of attitudes, moral or ethical beliefs, and practices that are held with the strength of traditional religious views, characterized by ardor and faith, and generally evidenced through specific religious observances."
4. Derivation (*DoD Religion Definition Origin*)

This definition developed as a result of two Supreme Court cases that dealt with conscientious objectors, *U.S. v. Seeger*, 380 U.S. 163 (1965) and *Welsh v. U.S.*, 398 U.S. 333 (1970). The Court decided it was unconstitutional to confine conscientious objector status only to those who are religious in the traditional theistic sense (e.g., Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, Jewish, Muslim), when those who follow non-theistic religious faiths (e.g., Buddhists). The court also decided that non-religious men and women may also hold passionate and ethically-based objections to serving in combat or in the military. In coming to this conclusion, the Justices broadened the definition of religion to be used by the Court, as well the scope of those protected by that definition.

5. **Functional** Definition of Religion.

It seeks to convey the substance of what religion does, what it looks like in action, rather than telling us what religion is (which would be a **substantive** definition). Because of its functional nature, the definition focuses on the dynamics of belief and the level of commitment one has to a set of beliefs. As a result, the definition embraces individuals and groups. It embraces those who hold individual spiritual views, large groups and organizations that profess theistic beliefs (e.g., the Roman Catholic Church, Sunni and Shi'a Islam, Judaism), and, as noted earlier, protects those who profess atheistic beliefs as well. The following instructions and regulations include the same functional definition:

- ✓ AR 600-20 (*Command Policy*);
- ✓ SECNAVINST 5350.16A (*Equal Opportunity Within the Department of the Navy*); and the
- ✓ AFI 36-2706 (*Military Equal Opportunity Program*).
- ✓ U.S. Marine Corps is guided by SECNAVINST 5350.16A.

6. Faith Groups

- a. The Establishment Clause of the First Amendment of the U. S. Constitution (“*Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof*” or “*abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.*”) has been interpreted to mean, in part, that the Federal Government (including the military) may not decide which religions are legitimate and which are not.
- b. The Internal Revenue Service possesses a list of faith groups, but this list includes only those groups whose members have requested tax-exempt status. Not all faith groups desire or request such status.
- c. Data reflected by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) reflects only what service members voluntarily elect to share and so cannot be considered definitive or exact. This information is collected only at Military Entrance Processing Stations (MEPS) and is not updated, except at the specific request of the service member.
- d. Various DoD instructions (e.g., DoDI 1336.5, E4.A2, DoDI 7730.54, and DoDI 1300.18 [E7.A2]) include lists of faith groups, but these are for software coding purposes only; they are neither definitive nor exclusive.
- e. Chaplain representation reflects only those faith groups who choose to endorse chaplains and have put forward candidates who meet DoD standards regarding education, physical fitness, age, etc
- f. The Veterans Administration (VA) maintains a list of faith group symbols that may be placed on federally-funded grave markers, but this list reflects only those faith groups whose members have applied for inclusion of their symbol(s) on the list. As of 2011, a total of 48 symbols have been approved.

7. Chaplains

- a. Chaplains are one of this nation's first religious accommodations in the military.
- b. Since the American Revolution, chaplains have served in the Armed Forces, seeking to ensure that all men and women in uniform and in the DoD have the opportunity to worship— or not— in accordance with their faith and conscience.
- c. Chaplains are endorsed by their faith group as men and women willing to serve in the religiously pluralistic DoD setting, respecting the religious rights of all.
- d. Chaplains and their assistants are the only people in the DoD with whom military personnel may share confidential information without fear of disclosure, regardless of the content of the conversation.

8. Oaths

- a. All who take an oath of office in the DoD to "support and defend the Constitution of the United States," are taking part in a ceremony that involves two issues of religious—diversity and accommodation.
- b. Some religious people feel constrained to avoid swearing an oath, believing such an utterance violates religious tenets. Thus, all military and DoD civilian personnel are given the option of either swearing or affirming.

9. Conscientious Objector

- a. Conscientious objector status began as a religious accommodation and is most frequently used by men and women of faith.
- b. Military members may seek this status without citing a religious motive or possessing religious beliefs.

10. Clergy-Penitent Privilege

- a. A privileged communication is one made by a service member to a chaplain or chaplain's assistant that will not be disclosed in a court of law without specific permission from the service member.
- b. The parameters are outlined in the Manual for Courts Martial, Part III (Military Rules of Evidence), Section V (Privileges), Rule 503 (p. III-24.), Rule 503, which states that communications between a service member and chaplain, or chaplain's assistant, will not be disclosed in a court of law without specific permission from the service member.
- c. Service members need to be aware that to obtain the protection of the privilege, the communication made to the chaplain or chaplain's assistant must (1) be made to the chaplain or chaplain's assistant in his/her official capacity; (2) be intended to be a private communication; and (3) be made as a matter of conscience or a formal act of religion.
- d. DoD Instruction 1300.06 (Conscientious Objection), paragraph 7.2, specifically disallows privileged status to communications between a chaplain and service member that take place in the course of the mandatory interview during the conscientious objector application process.

11. Worship

- a. Worship services are accommodated except when precluded by military necessity.
- b. If the time required for religious worship falls within normal duty hours or duty rosters, the service member may request exception from those hours and rosters but must be prepared to perform alternative duty or duty hours.
- c. Commanders may grant ordinary leave as an option for a service member's request to observe lengthy holy periods or days.

12. Federally-funded Burial/Headstones

- a. The Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) furnishes, upon request and at no charge to the applicant, a headstone or marker for the grave of any deceased eligible veteran in any cemetery around the world, regardless of their date of death.
- b. For eligible veterans who died on or after Nov. 1, 1990, the VA may also provide a headstone or marker for graves that are already marked with a private headstone or marker. When the grave is already marked, applicants have the option of applying for either a traditional headstone or marker or a new device.
- c. The VA maintains a list of faith group symbols that may be placed (carved or engraved) upon the headstone or marker. Symbols are added to this list as faith groups submit requests.

B. Accommodations

DoDI 1300.17 states that military departments will accommodate individual expressions of sincerely-held beliefs (conscience, moral principles, or religious) of service members unless they have an adverse effect on military readiness, mission accomplishment, unit cohesion, and good order and discipline.

1. All requests for accommodation of religious practices will be assessed on a case-by-case basis.
2. Each request must be considered and based on:
 - a. sincerely-held beliefs of the requester
 - b. its unique facts
 - c. the nature of the requested religious accommodation
 - d. the effect of approval or denial on the service member's exercise of religion

- e. and the effect of approval or denial on mission accomplishment, including unit cohesion

3. Accommodation Procedures:

Military commanders should consider the following factors when determining whether to grant a request:

- a. The importance of military requirements in terms of mission accomplishment, including military readiness, unit cohesion, good order, discipline, health, and safety;
- b. The religious importance of the accommodation to the requester;
- c. The cumulative impact of repeated accommodations of a similar nature;
- d. Alternative means available to meet the requested accommodation;
- e. Previous treatment of the same or similar requests, including treatment of similar requests made for other than religious reasons.

If a waiver of current Service policy is required to approve a request, the decision authority rests with the Secretary concerned.

4. Common Religious Accommodation Request

a. Time Off for Religious Observances, Rituals, Holidays

When considering such requests, military leaders should refer to DoD Instruction 1300.17 for guidance. With regard to civilian requests for time off for religious reasons, military leaders and/or civilian supervisors should refer to the rules outlined in 5 U.S.C. 5550a, Subpart J—Adjustment of Work Schedules for Religious Observances, which states that Federal employees are entitled to time off to observe religious holidays, exercises, and functions. For more information on this Title 5 provision, see the section on "Religious Accommodation of Civilian Federal Employees" on the DEOMI website (www.deomi.org, under Religious Diversity).

b. Religious Apparel

DoDI 1300.17 states that "under Public Law 100-180, section 508 [reference (c)], members of the Armed Forces may wear visible items of religious apparel while in uniform, except under circumstances in which an item is not neat and conservative or its wearing shall interfere with the performance of the member's military duties."

- 1) Individual Service uniform/grooming implementing regulations are the authority per law and DoD policy.

- 2) Members may wear items of religious apparel while in uniform, except when the items would interfere with the performance of military duties or the item is not neat and conservative.
- 3) When evaluating religious accommodation requests regarding grooming (e.g., hair length and styles) and body art, factors to consider include whether approving the accommodation would:
 - a) Impair the safe and effective operation of weapons, military equipment, or machinery;
 - b) Pose a health or safety hazard to the service member wearing the religious apparel and/or others;
 - c) Interfere with the wear or proper function of special or protective clothing or equipment (e.g., helmets, flak jackets, flight suits, camouflaged uniforms, protective masks, wet suits, and crash and rescue equipment);
 - d) Otherwise impair the accomplishment of the military mission.

c. Dietary Requirements

Some faith groups have religious tenets that prohibit eating specific foods or prescribe how food should be prepared. These dietary restrictions are normally prohibitions against specific foods rather than requirements to eat only a few select foods.

d. Medical Requirements

Service members may request accommodation of these beliefs and practices, using the chain of command and, particularly with regard to waivers of immunization, the combined instruction entitled "Immunizations and Chemoprophylaxis." In addition, the SECNAVINST 1730.8B (Accommodation of Religious Practices) addresses the issue of DNA samples.

5. Accommodating Requests

- a. DoD Policy - According to DoDI 1300.17, "Requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline."
- b. Note the wording of DoDI 1300.17: "Requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders. ..." The word *should* is here to emphasize the fact that commanders should first think "yes" in response to such requests, rather than rejecting them without due consideration. Commanders must be able to explain how granting an accommodation may have an adverse impact upon military readiness, safety, or good order and discipline.

- c. Requests for religious accommodation, however, are not guaranteed. Operational needs or safety concerns may dictate that commanders deny such a request. You can play a role in assisting the commander to make a wise decision, especially to the degree that you are familiar with the DoDI 1300.17 and the other regulations and instructions that address religious accommodation.
- d. Civilian Policy—These rules and regulations attempt to apply secular standards to faith issues. The policy is trying to address religion using reason: "Federal law requires an agency to accommodate employees' exercise of their religion unless such accommodation would impose an undue hardship on the conduct of the agency's operations..." (Supreme Court quote) *Guidelines on religious exercise and religious expression in the federal workplace, 14 August 1997.*

6. Uncommon Request

In 1996, Congress passed a law that allowed for ceremonial use of peyote, for sacramental purposes only, by members of the Native American Church. The Federal Government, including the Military Services, was directed to accommodate peyote usage as an element of religious practice under strict conditions. This public law, and all the DoD regulations and instructions regarding it, apply only to peyote. No other hallucinogenic drugs may be used by military members or federal workers for religious purposes. And it is important to remember that peyote may only be used by *bonafide* members of the Native American Church.

7. Decision Making Factors

a. Importance of Military Requirement

For commanders, the military mission is paramount, so s/he will take into consideration such things as unit cohesion, standards, and readiness when considering requests for religious accommodation. At the same time, s/he must remember that the DoDI 1300.17 urges commanders to think "yes" first, rather than "no."

b. Importance to Requester

Determining the importance of the request is subjective, so care must be taken on the part of EOAs and commanders to ensure that this is given due consideration.

c. Cumulative Impact

It is important for EOAs and commanders to consider each request individually and in conjunction with the other factors before making a final decision.

d. Alternatives

What alternatives exist that might meet the requested accommodation? Ask the requester! Chances are this is not the first time he/she has requested the accommodation. Religious

accommodations often must be requested anew at each duty station, or with every new commander.

e. Previous Treatment of Similar Requests

It can be helpful to do some research, talk with other EOAs, talk with chaplains, to see how other accommodation requests have been addressed.

8. White House Guidelines

a. Section 1 - Religious Exercise and Expression in the Federal Workplace

- 1) Religious expression
- 2) Religious discrimination
- 3) Accommodation of religious exercise
- 4) Establishment of religion

b. Section 2 - Guiding Legal Principles

- 1) Religious expression
- 2) Discrimination in terms and conditions
- 3) Coercion of employees' participation or non-participation in religious activities
- 4) Hostile work environment and harassment
- 5) Accommodation of religious exercise
- 6) Establishment of religion

c. Section 3 - General:

These guidelines govern the internal management of the civilian executive branch and are not intended to create any new law or equity by a party against the United States, its agencies, its officers, or any person.

9. Restrictions

Some of the same issues that commanders seek to accommodate must, when mission needs dictate; religion practices must either be postponed or restricted. These include not only worship activities, but might also include, for example, requiring Jewish personnel, who normally wear the yarmulke, to cease doing so if in a position where such headgear might constitute a safety

hazard; requiring those who have waivers of immunization for religious reasons to receive shots against an imminent threat of widespread contagion; requiring those who are normally excused from working or standing duty on their Sabbath to do so; and so on.

C. Discrimination

Religious discrimination is behavior in which a person or group is treated differently because of what they do or do not believe. This behavior can be seen in the following ways:

1. Discounting

This occurs when another person's religious practice or values—dissimilar to one's own— are dismissed, or discounted, as less important. This can translate into denial of that person's opportunity to practice his/her own beliefs, or a tendency to think a person is trying to gain special privileges.

2. Religious Jokes and Slurs

These are similar to racial or ethnic jokes, with a religious theme.

3. Mandating

Overtly or covertly requiring a person to participate in a religious service or public prayer (e.g., at a staff meeting or mandatory formation). Mandating worship, prayer, or any other religious behavior constitutes discrimination against those who do not wish to worship, pray, or engage in religious behavior.

4. Stereotyping

Religion is as much a source of stereotypes as race, gender, and other factors.

5. Exclusion

Refusing to associate with people because of their religious beliefs.

6. Ignoring and Indifference

- a. Ignoring—Failing to recognize and address legitimate religious needs, such as providing alternative services or considering the religious or worship needs of individuals of faith, or the needs of those with no faith.
- b. Indifference —Lack of concern for those with religiously-focused concerns, to include those who wish to be free from religion.

7. Harassment

Religious speech, to include sharing one's faith with others, is as free and protected as any other speech. Where that freedom and protection ends, however, is when evangelizing or proselytizing activities conducted by a service member becomes harassment.

D. Strategies to Combat Religious Discrimination

As an EOA, you have a responsibility to be conversant with religious issues within your unit. A number of strategies exist to ensure you can discuss religious accommodation and/or discrimination issues with your commander and other leaders with intelligence and insight

EOA involvement can prevent or help to resolve religious accommodation and discrimination issues. This will create greater unit cohesion and better morale.

1. Do some research on various faith groups, or get together with a unit member whose faith is new to you and learn and have knowledge on what that person believes and practices.
2. Be aware and capable of advising about religious issues within your unit, or the military as a whole, as well as national trends.
3. Research unit religious demographics and keep commanders aware of issues that pertain to the religious groups within your unit.
4. Research unit religious demographics and keep commanders aware of issues that pertain to the religious groups within your unit.
5. Work with unit chaplain.
6. Stress to commanders and other unit leaders the:
 - a. Importance of religious faith, and the accommodation thereof
 - b. Rights of those who do not profess a religious faith (atheists, agnostics, humanists).
 - c. Importance of understanding DoDI 1300.17 and regulations, policies, and directives as these apply to possible or actual religious discrimination.
7. Ensure all unit members understand the overarching importance of the military mission.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define religion as described in DoD Directive 1350.2.
- B. Describe how DoD addresses religious accommodation requests.
- C. State how to recognize religious discrimination.
- D. Identify strategies to combat religious discrimination in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
July 2015

EOA 3700

SEXUAL ASSAULT PREVENTION AND RESPONSE (SAPR)



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

The lesson is divided into two segments, lecture and scenarios. The lecture will provide information for participants to understand the definitions and differences between sexual assault and sexual harassment, to clarify the EOA's role, and to identify reporting options and requirements. The lesson incorporates a series of scenarios designed to elicit discussion with students (while remaining in the auditorium) to determine the required course of action for their role as EOAs.

Strategy

The two hour lecture begins the lesson by defining key terms associated with sexual assault, the difference between sexual harassment and sexual assault, preventive measures for sexual assault, the negative effects of sexual assault, Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) policies in the DoD, and reporting options and referral agencies. Approximately 30 minutes of the lecture is large group discussion.

Recommended Reading

None

References

1. Herb, M., & Kurta, T. (2013). SEXUAL ASSAULT: A Fleet Readiness Problem. *U.S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, 139(7), 48-52.
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3. Department of Defense. (2014a). *2014-2016 Sexual Assault Prevention Strategy*. Retrieved from http://sapr.mil/public/docs/prevention/DoD_SAPR_Prevention_Strategy_2014-2016.pdf
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5. Department of Defense. (2014c). *Report to the President of the United States on Sexual Assault Prevention and Response*. Washington, D.C.
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8. Department of Defense. (2015c). Department of Defense Directive (DoDD) 6495.01. *Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) Program*. Change 2, January 20, 2015. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/649501p.pdf>
9. Department of Defense. (2015d). *Statistical Data on Sexual Assault FY 2014*. Retrieved from http://sapr.mil/public/docs/reports/FY14_Annual/FY14_Annual_Report_Appendix_A.pdf
10. U.S. Department of Homeland Security. (2012, April). *Commandant Manual M1754.10D Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) Program*. Washington, D.C.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Handout of Service SAPRO links (Embedded in Student Guide)
3. Handout of Sexual Assault Flow Chart (see Student Guide)
4. Handout of DEOCS 4.0 (see Student Guide)

Audiovisual Aids And Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 3700 Sexual Assault Prevention and Response
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, students will know how sexual assault affects military readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objective (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recognize the difference between sexual harassment and sexual assault.	K	CRT
B. Identify the myths and misconceptions associated with sexual assault.	K	CRT
C. Describe effects of sexual assault on military readiness.	K	CRT
D. Recognize DoD policies and strategies to prevent sexual assault.	K	CRT
E. Recognize reporting and referral options for sexual assault victims.	K	CRT

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE**A. RECOGNIZE THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND SEXUAL ASSAULT**

1. Sexual assault and sexual harassment are not the same, although there are connections.

Sexual assault is a violent crime and is defined as, “Intentional sexual contact characterized by the use of force, threats, intimidation, or abuse of authority or when the victim does not or cannot consent.” The term “sexual assault” includes a broad category of sexual offenses consisting of the following specific UCMJ offenses:

Rape, sexual assault, aggravated sexual contact, abusive sexual contact, forcible sodomy (forced oral or anal sex), or attempts to commit these acts. Sexual assault can occur without regard to gender, spousal relationship, or age of the victim. The UCMJ lists a number of crimes under sexual assault (Department of Defense, 2015c).

You may recall that Sexual Harassment is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, request for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Refer back to the Sexual Harassment lesson if you’d like to solidify your understanding of that content.

- a. Examples of Sexual Harassment

- 1) Verbal comments
- 2) Obscene or sexually explicit media
- 3) Nonverbal actions
- 4) Physical touching
- 5) Unwanted requests to perform sexual acts or sexual favors

- b. Examples of Sexual Assault

- 1) Grabbing without permission
- 2) Making someone give or receive oral sex
- 3) Touching a person while incapacitated
- 4) Threatening or coercing someone to have sex
- 5) Touching with an object without consent

- 6) Having sex with someone without consent
2. Consent is a critical concept regarding sexual assault. If Service members and civilians understand the meaning of consent, they can help prevent SA.

A freely-given agreement to the conduct at issue by a competent person.

NO CONSENT

- a. An expression of lack of consent through words or conduct means there is no consent.
 - b. Lack of verbal or physical resistance or submission resulting from the use of force, threat of force, or placing another person in fear does not constitute consent.
 - c. A current or previous dating or social or sexual relationship by itself, or the manner of dress of the person involved with the accused in the sexual conduct at issue, shall not constitute consent.
 - d. A sleeping, unconscious, or incompetent person cannot consent (Department of Defense, 2015c).
3. Role of Alcohol

While many sexual assaults occur without the involvement of alcohol, alcohol adversely affects decision-making and impulse control. Alcohol degrades one's ability to identify and counter threats in the environment, which may impair the response of those bystanders who could assist an intended victim or deter a potential offender. Effective prevention also requires an understanding of the role alcohol plays in the perpetration of sexual violence. In addition, alcohol may be used by the alleged offender as a weapon to reduce a victim's resistance or fully incapacitate a victim (Department of Defense, 2014a).

4. Continuum of Harm

The Continuum of Harm represents the environment and potential for harm where people live, work, and spend their lives. As illustrated in the figure, on the left side of the continuum is a healthy environment. As one moves to the right, behaviors and misconduct that detract from a healthy environment increase in severity, and range from such problems as sexism, objectification, and sexual harassment, to inappropriate touching and sexual violence.

The bottom of the continuum illustrates the capabilities that DoD has in place to prevent, correct, and respond to harmful behaviors.

The behaviors that fall within the domain of EOA response capabilities are instances of Sexual Harassment, such as:

- a. Gender focused jokes, sexual comments and jodies, and vulgar pictures

- b. Seductive behavior and inappropriate advances
- c. Threats, blackmail, and sexual bribery

Instances of Sexual Assault are referred to the SARC and/or MCIO and JA offices (Department of Defense, 2014c).

B. IDENTIFY THE MYTHS AND MISCONCEPTIONS ASSOCIATED WITH SEXUAL ASSAULT

There are numerous myths and misconceptions regarding sexual assault. Most sexual assault myths shift blame from the perpetrator to the victim; as a result, victims are less likely to report assaults or receive adequate care. Here are some common myths about Sexual Assault.

Myth: The primary victims of sexual assault in the military are women.

Fact: While rates of unwanted sexual contact are higher for women than men, recent surveys estimate that thousands of men are victimized every year; in the DoD, sexual assault is a gender neutral crime.

Myth: Most sexual assault allegations are false.

Fact: The best, scientifically-sound, civilian research shows that between 2% to 8% of sexual assault allegations turn out to be false – meaning no sexual assault was attempted or completed. This means that there is a 92% to 98% chance that a victim is telling the truth.

Myth: Most sexual assaults leave the victim visibly battered and bruised.

Fact: The vast majority of sexual assaults do not leave visible injury on the victim. Injuries that do occur often heal quite rapidly— especially injuries occurring to the genitalia. Psychological trauma is more likely to occur during a sexual assault. This “invisible” injury may only be detectable weeks later in the victim’s behavior, as he or she attempts to cope with lasting life changes caused by the incident.

Myth: Prosecution is the best means of sexual assault prevention.

Fact: Research shows many sex offenders choose to believe that their behavior is not criminal or punishable. Consequently, many offenders are not deterred by the prospect of punishment. Prevention is more likely to be achieved when prosecution and punishment are combined with interventions that interfere with an offender’s ability to complete a criminal act. The DoD uses bystander intervention to give Servicemembers the knowledge and skills necessary to recognize situations at risk for sexual assault and to safely take action to prevent the crime (Department of Defense, 2014c)

C. DESCRIBE EFFECTS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT ON MILITARY READINESS

1. Sexual assault is a personal and destructive crime. Its effects can be psychological, emotional, and/or physical. While there is not one “normal” reaction to sexual assault, here are some common effects at the individual level:
 - a. Depression
 - b. Eating Disorders
 - c. PTSD
 - d. Self Harm
 - e. Sleep Disturbance
 - f. Substance Abuse
 - g. Suicide (DoD Safe Helpline, 2015)
2. A unit’s military readiness is highly dependent on the quality and quantity of its personnel. Sexual assault directly and indirectly diminishes readiness. Sexual assault creates a unit environment where the following problems manifest:
 - a. Unsafe conditions – A safe work environment cannot exist when men and women are at risk to sexual assault
 - b. Inability to focus - Current readiness is degraded because service members cannot concentrate solely on the unit mission if they must focus on ensuring their personal safety. Commanders and leadership spend increasing amounts of time educating and training the force on these issues. Senior leadership is consumed with the legal and public investigations of sexual assault allegations.
 - c. Recruiting and retentions issues – Servicemen and women will lose motivation to join or stay in organizations with an environment where sexual assault is prevalent (Herb, 2013).

The stakes are high, so prevention is critical. Everyone has a responsibility to prevent sexual assault including EO professionals.

D. RECOGNIZE DOD POLICIES AND STRATEGIES TO PREVENT SEXUAL ASSAULT

1. Oversight of the Department’s Sexual Assault Prevention and Response programs is the responsibility of the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office, or SAPRO. As an EO professional it is important to know these policies because you may be required to advise command elements on SAPR policies and refer victims to their Service SAPRO.

The DoD Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office (SAPRO):

- a. Develops policy and programs to improve prevention efforts,
- b. Sets training standards and assesses whether those standards have been met,
- c. Enhances treatment and response to victims, and ensures system accountability,
- d. Collaborates closely with services and numerous outside organizations to fully implement those policies and programs.

The DoD SAPR mission is to prevent and respond to the crime of sexual assault in order to enable the military readiness and reduce—with a goal to eliminate—sexual assault from the military

2. In an effort to establish shared understandings of prevention, DoD adopted the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) definition of prevention as it applies to sexual violence. The CDC identifies three levels of prevention based on when the prevention efforts occur:
 - a. Primary Prevention: Approaches that take place before sexual violence has occurred to prevent initial perpetration
 - b. Secondary Prevention: Immediate responses after sexual violence has occurred to address the early identification of victims and the short-term consequences of violence
 - c. Tertiary Prevention: Long-term responses after sexual violence has occurred to address the lasting consequences of violence and sex offender treatment interventions.

DoD places primary prevention at the core of its focus in developing prevention-related tasks and initiatives that seek to reduce, with the goal to eliminate, the factors leading to, or associated with, sexual violence, thereby stopping the crime before it occurs. Hence, prevention programs **will not** rely solely on training and education of individuals considered to be at risk and/or harm reduction activities (formerly risk reduction). Primary prevention involves empowered and competent individuals interacting in an environment that has been sustained to promote the best possible outcomes (Department of Defense, 2014a).

3. The DoD's sexual assault prevention is more than risk management. It takes a broad community approach encompassing all personnel at every level to end sexual assault throughout the DOD with a focus on these goals and end states:
 - a. Prevention— Cultural imperatives of mutual respect and trust, professional values, and team commitment are reinforced to create an environment where sexual assault is not condoned, tolerated, or ignored

- b. Investigation—Investigative resources yield timely and accurate results
 - c. Accountability—Perpetrators are held appropriately accountable
 - d. Advocacy/Victim Assistance—DoD provides high quality services and support to instill confidence and trust, strengthen resilience, and inspire victims
 - e. Assessment—DoD incorporates responsive, meaningful, and accurate systems of measurement and evaluation into every aspect of the SAPR program (Department of Defense, 2014a)
4. Sexual assault does not just happen. It grows out of an environment where the perpetrator thinks his actions, attitudes, and behaviors are being condoned. The DoD has launched a serious effort to get its people to engage in active bystander intervention to prevent sexual assault.
- a. Active bystanders take the initiative to help someone who may be targeted for a sexual assault by a predator
 - b. Active bystanders also take the initiative to help friends who aren't thinking clearly from becoming perpetrators of a crime
 - c. Intervention doesn't mean that you only step in to stop a crime in progress; rather, these steps are early intervention, before the crime began.

To shut down potential perpetrators, all equal opportunity professionals need to show by example that even small behaviors or attitudes that could build a negative climate of sexual violence are absolutely unacceptable. Equal opportunity professionals can exert considerable influence by:

- Keeping commanders aware of their organization's climate through ongoing assessments and assisting them in formulating action plans for resolution.
- Helping them foster an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust, and teamwork.
- Being a change agent by dispelling sexual assault myths and misconceptions.

In addition equal opportunity professionals provide expertise to commanders so they can create an environment intolerant to sexual assault. An EO professional may assist a commander to:

- Monitor the organization's SAPR climate and respond with appropriate action toward any negative trends that may emerge,
- Identify and remedy environmental factors specific to the location that may facilitate the commission of sexual assaults (e.g., insufficient lighting),

- Emphasize sexual assault prevention training for all assigned personnel, and

Establish prevention training that focuses on identifying the behavior of potential offenders.

F. RECOGNIZE REPORTING AND REFERRAL OPTIONS FOR SEXUAL ASSAULT VICTIMS

Servicemembers and military dependents 18 years and older who have been sexually assaulted have two reporting options: unrestricted reporting or restricted reporting.

1. Unrestricted Report:

- a. Command and law enforcement are notified
- b. An investigation is initiated
- c. Legal proceeding usually follows if there is sufficient evidence
- d. A SARC shall be notified, respond or direct a SAPR VA to respond; assign a SAPR VA
- e. Victim is offered healthcare treatment and a SAFE

If a victim elects this reporting option, a victim may not change from an Unrestricted Report to a Restricted Report. Unrestricted reporting of sexual assault is favored by the DoD. However, the DoD recognizes a fundamental need to provide a confidential disclosure vehicle via the restricted reporting option.

For victims of sexual assault who wish to confidentially disclose the crime to specifically identified individuals without triggering the official investigative process. Victims who desire restricted reporting under this policy must use one of the following reporting avenues: SARC, SAPR VA, or healthcare personnel. If a victim elects this reporting option, a victim can change from a Restricted Report to an Unrestricted Report at any time.

2. Restricted Report:

Victims receive healthcare treatment and the assignments of a SARC and a SAPR VA.

A victim's communication with another person (e.g., roommate, friend, family member) does not necessarily prevent the victim from later electing to make a Restricted Report. Restricted Reporting is confidential, not anonymous reporting. However if the person to whom the victim confided the information (e.g., roommate, friend, family member) is in the victim's officer and noncommissioned officer chain of command or DoD law enforcement, there can be no Restricted Report (Department of Defense, 2014b).

3. SAPR Services

- a. All Servicemembers, including victims prior to enlistment or commissioning (unrestricted and restricted reporting) except for cases that fall under FAP (e.g. dependents 17/below, or when perpetrated by a family member, or domestic/intimate partner.) Note: DoD policy currently does not cover retirees
 - b. Adult military dependents (unrestricted and restricted reporting) except for cases that fall under FAP (e.g. dependents 17/below, or when perpetrated by a family member, or domestic/intimate partner.)
 - c. Non-military individuals (unrestricted reporting only): DoD civilians and their adult family members, and DoD contractors stationed OCONUS and eligible for treatment in the MHS
 - d. In situations where the victim is not eligible for SAPR services, SAPR personnel can make referrals to local agencies, e.g. Rape Crisis Centers, etc.
4. In FY 2014, the Military Services received a total of 6,131 reports of sexual assault involving Servicemembers as either victims or subjects which represents an 11% increase from the reports made in FY 2013. Female victims made the majority of reports (79% women; 20% men; 1% data not available).

The Military Services received 4,660 Unrestricted Reports involving Service members as either victims or subjects (Figure 2), a 10% increase from FY 2013. Of the 4,660 Unrestricted Reports, 135 (3%) were made for incidents that occurred before the victim entered military service.

The Military Services initially received 1,840 Restricted Reports involving Servicemembers as either victims or subjects, a 23% increase from FY 2013. Three hundred sixty-nine (20%) of the initial Restricted Reports later converted to Unrestricted Reports. These converted Restricted Reports are now counted with the Unrestricted Reports. There were 1,471 reports remaining Restricted at the end of FY 2014 (Figure 2). Of these reports remaining Restricted, 381 (26%) were made for incidents that occurred before the victim entered military service. Per the victim's request, the reports remaining Restricted were confidential and were not investigated. The identities of the subjects are not recorded with Restricted Reports.

Instructor Note: Show each slide depicting the DoD's SA Annual Reporting Data to give students a visual of the progress of the SAPR program since its inception to the present Department of Defense, 2015d).

Of the 4,660 Unrestricted Reports made to DoD in FY 2014, the majority of offenses alleged were in three categories: rape; aggravated sexual assault/sexual assault; and abusive sexual contact. MCIOs categorize Unrestricted Reports by the most serious offense *alleged* in the report, which may not ultimately be the same offense for which evidence supports a misconduct charge, if any. Figure 9 shows the proportions of offenses as originally alleged in Unrestricted Reports in FY 2014 (Department of Defense, 2015d).

In FY 2014, there were 4,768 Servicemember victims who made an Unrestricted or Restricted Report of sexual assault for an incident that occurred during military Service, a 16% increase from FY 2013. Based on estimated past-year prevalence rates of USC and other factors, DoD attributes this increase to more victims coming forward to report a crime, and not due to an overall increase in crime. In fact, FY 2014 results of the prevalence survey show that estimated past-year prevalence of sexual assault decreased for women and stayed about the same for men, compared to FY 2012 rates.

Despite this year's overall increase in reporting, reporting behavior differs by gender:

- **Women: Of those women who indicate experiencing an incident of unwanted sexual contact, about 43% are accounted for in Unrestricted or Restricted Reports to DoD***
- **Men: Of those men who indicate experiencing an incident of unwanted sexual contact, about 10% are accounted for in Unrestricted or Restricted Reports to DoD***

Underreporting poses a serious challenge to military readiness as the potential costs and consequences of sexual assault are extremely high. (Department of Defense, 2015b).

5. As an Equal Opportunity professional, you can refer a victim of sexual assault to:
 - a. Sexual Assault Response Coordinator/ Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Victim Advocate
 - b. Military Criminal Investigative Organization as applicable

Each service has their own website dedicated to assist in referring victims of sexual assault.

- 1) Army SHARP <http://www.sexualassault.army.mil/>
- 2) Navy SAPR http://www.npc.navy.mil/bupers-npc/support/21st_century_sailor/sapr/Pages/default2.aspx
- 3) Marine Corps Community Services https://www.manpower.usmc.mil/portal/page/portal/M_RA_HOME/MF/Sexual%20Assault%20Prevention
- 4) Air Force SAPR <http://www.sexualassaultpreventionresponse.af.mil/>
- 5) National Guard SAPR <http://www.jointservicesupport.org/sapr/default.aspx>
- 6) Coast Guard SAPR (State Laws) <http://www.sapr.mil> or

http://www.uscg.mil/worklife/rape_sexual_assault.asp

7) United States Department of Defense <http://sapr.mil>

6. Safe Helpline

The Department of Defense (DoD) Safe Helpline is a groundbreaking crisis support service for members of the DoD community affected by sexual assault. Safe Helpline provides live, one-on-one support and information to the worldwide DoD community. The service is confidential, anonymous, secure, and available worldwide, 24/7 by click, call or text—providing victims with the help they need anytime, anywhere. <https://safehelpline.org/>

The first goal of Safe Helpline is to provide additional channels for adult Service members of the DoD community to seek one-on-one sexual assault assistance and crisis support securely and anonymously. The second goal is to increase victim reporting. Research indicates when sexual assault victims receive care, system confidence builds, which increases the likelihood of victims reporting to law enforcement (Department of Defense, 2015*b*).

SUMMARY

- A. Recognize the difference between sexual harassment and sexual assault
- B. Identify the myths and misconceptions associated with sexual assault
- C. Describe effects of sexual assault on military readiness
- D. Recognize DoD policies and strategies to prevent sexual assault
- E. Recognize reporting and referral options for sexual assault victims

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 4000

CULTURAL AWARENESS



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Lesson Overview

This lesson provides an introduction into race, ethnicity, and culture in America. The Cultural Awareness lesson introduces the student to the race and ethnic groups designated by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB). This lesson also introduces the student to the concept of culture and how people adapt to cultural differences. The lesson explores the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity which explains six levels of how people react to different cultures. The lesson then introduces the 3C concept, Cross-Cultural Competency, and uses the 3C bulls-eye to describe the levels of cultural competence. This lesson is an introductory lesson to the race and ethnic studies portion of the EOAC.

Recommended Reading

Office of Management and Budget (OMB), *Federal Register*, October 30, 1997.

References

1. Bennett, M. J.(1998). *Basic Concepts of Intercultural Communication*, London: Intercultural Press.
2. Department of Defense 3C Cross Cultural Competence. (2014). Retrieved from <http://www.defenseculture.org/>
3. Farley, J (1995). *Majority-Minority Relations*, Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
4. Parrillo, V. (2003). *Strangers to These Shores, Seventh Edition*, Pearson Education Inc.
5. U.S. Army and Marine Corps Counterinsurgency Field Manual. (2007).
6. U.S. Office of Management and Budget. (1995). Standards for the Classification of Federal Data on Race and Ethnicity; *Federal Register*.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. EOA Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–Cultural Awareness
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objectives

Given a lecture, study guide, and experiential learning activities, comprehend how culture can impact the workplace with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define race and ethnicity.	K	Q
B. List the OMB race and ethnic groups.	K	CRT
C. Describe the concept of culture.	C	CRT
D. Describe the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS).	C	CRT
E. Describe Cross-Cultural Competency (3C).	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test Q = Question & Answer SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

CULTURAL AWARENESS**A. Race and Ethnicity**

1. Race

a. Anthropological perspective.

"A division of human beings identified by the possession of traits that are transmissible by descent and that are sufficient to characterize persons possessing these traits as a distinctive human *genotype*." DoD Directive 1350.2 (2003, p. 19)

b. "... a group of people who are generally considered to be physically distinct in some way (e.g., skin color, hair texture, or facial features such as size and shape of the head, eyes, ears, lips, nose, color of eyes) from other groups and are generally considered by themselves and/or others to be a distinct group (Farley, 1995).

c. Race as a social construct.

When demographic information is collected, the racial categories represent a social-political construct for respondents to consider themselves to be and "generally reflect a social definition of race recognized in this country."

2. Ethnicity

a. *Ethnicity*, as noted by Parrillo, is a cultural concept in which a large number of people who share learned or acquired traits and close social interaction regard themselves and are regarded by others as constituting a single group on that basis.

b. Ethnicity differs from race in that members within a racial category may identify with one or more ethnic groups based on cultural or national origin characteristics (e.g., customs, traditions, language) either retrained or passed on through generations.

c. Ethnic groups sometimes live within the same communities and maintain many of their traditional cultural features.

B. OMB Race and Ethnic Groups

1. Race/Ethnic Groups and OMB

a. The Office of Management and Budget (OMB) developed the five race and two ethnic groups to provide a common language to promote uniformity and comparability of data collected for research.

b. OMB defines the concept of race as outlined for the U.S. Census as not "scientific or anthropological" and takes into account "social and cultural characteristics as well as

ancestry", using "appropriate scientific methodologies" that are not "primarily biological or genetic in reference."

c. Five race groups

- 1) American Indian or Alaska Native
- 2) Asian
- 3) Black or African American
- 4) Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- 5) White

d. Two ethnic groups

- 6) Hispanic or Latino
- 7) Not Hispanic or Latino

C. Concept of Culture

1. Culture

- a. According to Parrillo in his book, *Strangers to These Shores*, culture is: Physical or material objects as well as the nonmaterial attitudes, beliefs, customs, lifestyle, and values shared by members of a society and transmitted to the next generation.
- b. According to the U.S. Army and Marine Corps Counterinsurgency Field Manual, culture is: A “web of meaning” shared by members of a particular society or group within a society.

2. Attributes of Culture

- a. A system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and artifacts that members of a society use to cope with their world and with one another
- b. Learned, through a process called enculturation
- c. Shared by members of a society; there is no “culture of one”
- d. Patterned, meaning that people in a society live and think in ways forming definite, repeating patterns

- e. Changeable, through social interactions between people and groups
 - f. Internalized, in the sense that it is habitual, taken for granted, and perceived as “natural” by people within the society.
3. Cultural adaptation describes how people adapt to other cultures.
- a. Assimilation. The process of re-socialization that seeks to replace one’s original world view with that of the host culture.
 - b. Adaptation. The process whereby one’s world view is expanded to include behavior and values appropriate to the host culture.

D. Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)

1. Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)
- a. Ethnocentric. Defined as using one’s own set of standards and customs to judge all people, often unconsciously.
 - b. Ethno-relative. Refers to being comfortable with many standards and customs and to having an ability to adapt behavior and judgments to a variety of interpersonal settings.
2. Ethno-centric Stages
- a. Denial. At this stage people are unable to construe cultural differences in complex ways.
 - b. Defense. People at this stage have more ability to construe cultural difference, but they attach negative evaluations to it.
 - c. Minimization. People at this stage bury cultural differences within already-familiar categories of physical and philosophical similarity.
3. Ethno-relative Stages
- a. Acceptance. People at this stage enjoy recognizing and exploring cultural differences.
 - b. Adaptation. At this stage, people use knowledge about their own and others’ cultures to intentionally shift into a different cultural frame of reference. They can empathize or take another person’s perspective.
 - c. Integration. People at this stage attempt to reconcile the sometimes conflicting cultural frames that they have internalized.

E. Cross-Cultural Competency(3C)

1. Cross-Cultural Competency (3C)

- a. 3C is a set of culture-general knowledge, skills, abilities, and attributes (KSAAAs) developed through education, training, and experience that provide the ability to operate effectively within a culturally complex environment. 3C is further augmented through the acquisition of cultural, linguistic, and regional proficiency, and by their application in cross-cultural contexts. (Draft DoD Policy)
- b. 3C is a set of knowledge, skills, and attributes that enables leaders and soldiers to adapt and act effectively in a cross-cultural environment. (Training and Doctrine Command, TRADOC)
- c. 3C is the ability to quickly and accurately comprehend, then appropriately and effectively act, in a culturally complex environment to achieve the desired effect. (Air Force Culture and Language Center, AFCLC)
- d. Navigating cultural differences can present operational, strategic, and tactical challenges to our forces.
- e. Effective leaders and operators must be able to adapt across these cultural lines and differences daily.

2. 3C Model



- a. Self. It is important to understand your own beliefs, and personal and cultural values as one way of appreciating multicultural identities.
- b. Unit / Joint Agency. In order to communicate, cooperate, or lead such teams, one must have the cross-cultural competence to work with and lead individuals who are different from themselves

- c. Coalition / Host Nation. Effective coordination and integration of these commands depends upon understanding and addressing differences effectively to create a truly integrated team.
- d. Adversary. Lack of cultural knowledge about the adversary can have grave consequences for military war fighters, civilians, and our nation as a whole.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define race and ethnicity.
- B. List OMB race and ethnic groups.
- C. Describe the concept of culture.
- D. Describe the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS).
- E. Describe Cross-Cultural Competency (3C).

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6000

GENERAL EOA DUTIES



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding your role and responsibilities as an EOA is extremely important to the success of the EO Program. This lesson covers the major roles of the Equal Opportunity Advisor and factors that contribute to a successful Equal Opportunity Program.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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7. United States Marine Corps. (2002). *Equal Opportunity Advisor*. Marine Corps Order 5354.3B. Department of the Navy.

Student Instructional Materials

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–General EO Duties
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture and a study guide, know how Equal Opportunity Advisor duties impact the military environment with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOS)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the EO Program	K	CRT
B. Identify the Roles and Responsibilities of the EO program	K	CRT
C. Identify the elements that contribute to a successful EO program	K	CRT
D. Identify KSAOs associated with EO duties	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

GENERAL EOA DUTIES

A. EO Program Description

The EO program is designed to promote an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible.

The commanding officer is responsible for implementing an EO program in accordance with the DoD and Service directives. With the EO program, the commanding officer formulates, directs, and sustains a comprehensive effort to maximize human potential and to ensure fair treatment of all unit members based on merit, fitness, and capability to support mission accomplishment.

A strong EO environment creates an environment where unit members can interact with a strong sense of equal opportunity and awareness of others leads to an environment where unit members are more productive, team-oriented, and better able to understand and accomplish their mission.

The goal of the EO program is to ensure that all of organization's members are able to work as a team to support mission accomplishment, cohesion, and readiness

B. Roles and Responsibilities

1. **Advisor:** An EOA provides advice to commanders on the EO program, its policies, procedures, and issues that affect the EO climate of a unit. In addition, the EOA provides guidance and assistance to commanders, unit leaders, service members, subordinate commands and civilian employees.
2. **Trainer and Educator:** An EOA trains and educates commanders, leaders, and service members on the EO program, policies, procedures, and issues that impact the EO climate and unit readiness.
3. **Assessor:** An EOA assists commanders and other leaders on assessing the EO climate of a unit or organization including determining whether the climate is healthy and positive. The EOA will also provide recommended action to improve unhealthy or negative climates.
4. **Change Agent:** An EOA is the commander's change agent for implementing changes to the EO program and other related areas that affect the command climate of the organization.

C. Elements For a Successful EO Program

1. Commanders and leaders are responsible for unit EO
2. Commanders and leaders must promote harmony
3. Commanders and leaders must support individual and cultural diversity

4. Commanders and leaders must ensure that discipline is maintained
5. Commanders and leaders must provide fair and equal treatment of unit members and employees

D. Identify KSAOs

1. An EOA must be knowledgeable of the following areas:
 - a. Mission and unit
 - b. Policies, procedures, and regulations
 - c. Organizational and socialization systems
 - d. Problem-solving methodology and organizational assessment
 - e. Background on topics relating to human relations (past and present)
 - f. Self and others
2. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following skills:
 - a. Communication
 - b. Observation
 - c. Instructions and persuasion
 - d. Team building and teamwork
 - e. Assessing, planning, implementing and evaluating (APIE)
 - f. Problem Solving
3. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following abilities:
 - a. Flexibility
 - b. Expression, both written and oral
 - c. Problem sensitivity
 - d. Concentration

4. An EOA must demonstrate proficiency in the following other characteristics or work styles:
 - a. Professionalism
 - b. Objectivity
 - c. Maturity
 - d. Open-mindedness

SUMMARY

- A. Describe the EO program
- B. Identify the Roles and Responsibilities
- C. Identify the Elements that contribute to a Successful EO Program
- D. Identify KSAOs associated with EO duties

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6050

BYSTANDER INTERVENTION



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

In the Armed Forces and society, it is important to realize and value of unspoken, spoken, and observed behaviors. Frequently these behaviors solidify desirable and undesirable responses. This lesson will inform personnel on human relations matters critical to an effective workforce and mission readiness. Specifically, this lesson will enlighten students on key terms associated with bystander intervention, actions associated with passive vs. active bystanders; and bystander intervention strategies. Active bystander intervention strategies and efforts are fundamental to the Department of Defense (DoD) and available at:
<http://myduty.mil/index.php/prevention/active-bystander>.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation—EOA 6050 Bystander Intervention
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture and a study guide, know the basis of bystander intervention and its impact on mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define key terms associated with bystander intervention.	K	CRT
B. Recall behaviors associated with passive and active bystanders.	K	CRT
C. Identify bystander intervention strategies.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

BYSTANDER INTERVENTION

A. Key Terms

1. Bystander

- a. Not only do active bystanders take action to prevent unlawful discrimination, sexual harassment, and sexual assault, they also take the initiative to help friends who aren't thinking clearly from becoming perpetrators.
 - 1) Bystanders can highlight positive acts that might otherwise be invisible or overlooked. They can redirect or de-escalate negative acts that might be problematic. Bystanders might be peers or teammates. They might be subordinate or senior to the person whose comment or behavior warrants reaction.

Bystander – A witness to an event (Webster II New College Dictionary, 2001)

- 2) Intervention doesn't mean that you only step in to stop a crime in progress; rather, early intervention occurs before the crime or discriminatory act begins.
- b. A bystander could be anyone who sees or otherwise becomes aware of behavior that appears worthy of comment or action.

2. Bystander Intervention

- a. Bystander intervention is assessing a situation to determine what kind of intervention, if any, might be appropriate.
- b. An active bystander will often intervene if another person is in need of help; they will often do this for complete strangers, sometimes even at great personal risk.
- c. Bystander intervention can also mean stepping in, acknowledging, and recognizing positive behaviors (Levine & Crowther, 2008).
 - 1) Recognition of socially desirable behavior – In order to foster productive and inclusive behavior, it is important to encourage and commend good teamwork, excellent performance, and productive human interactions within the workplace.
 - 2) All groups can benefit from the practice of micro-affirmations, which are defined as: “apparently small acts, which are often ephemeral and hard-to-see, events that are public and private, often unconscious but very effective, which occur wherever people wish to help others to succeed.”
 - 3) Recognition of unacceptable behavior – By the same token everyone in the workplace or community is important in discouraging and dealing with unethical, bullying, and discriminatory behavior. A bystander may be able to pivot a situation—from one

where there is awkward silence, exclusion, or hurt—to one where there is support, both for individuals, and for an organization or community's values of inclusivity.

3. The ABCs of Bystander Intervention

There are three components to active bystander intervention (associated with sexual assault) and they are referred to as the ABCs:

- a. Assess for safety. Ensure that all parties are safe and assess whether the situation requires calling authorities. When deciding to intervene, your personal safety should be the number one priority. When in doubt, call for help.
- b. Be with others. If safe to intervene, you're likely to have a greater influence on the parties involved when you work together with someone or several people. Your safety is increased when you stay with a group of friends who you know well.
- c. Care for the victim. Ask if the victim of the unwanted sexual advance, attention, or behavior is okay.
 - 1) Does he or she need medical care?
 - 2) Does he or she want to talk to a Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC) to see about reporting the matter?
 - 3) Ask if someone he or she trusts can help him or her get safely home.

4. Bystander Effect

The bystander effect (also known as bystander apathy) is a psychological phenomenon where persons are less likely to intervene in a situation when others are present than when they are alone (Levine, M. & Crowther, S., 2008).

5. Diffusion of Responsibility

- a. Closely related to bystander effect is diffusion of responsibility.

This is a social phenomenon that tends to occur in groups of people above a certain critical size when responsibility is not explicitly assigned.

- b. The more people that are present, the less accountable any of those people feel for their actions (or inaction; Levine & Crowther, 2008).

B. Passive vs. Active Bystander Intervention

1. Passive Bystander

- a. Passive means not active.
- b. For the context of this training, a passive bystander refers to an individual or group who should be doing something, but is not (Levine & Crowther, 2008).

2. Active Bystander

- a. The willingness to safely take action and help someone in time of need (Department of Defense, 2014).
- b. Learn how to recognize indications and always be aware of what is going on around you. Look out for situations that could require some intervention. As a bystander, it is much easier to recognize and encourage positive social behavior. It takes some practice and courage to intervene and discourage or stop unacceptable behavior.
- c. Take the initiative in a situation that is uncomfortable. People may rationalize and dismiss the situation as not being a problem. You might tell yourself the other person will be fine or that he or she or is able to defend him or herself. However, this is not a solution! The person may need your help more than you think.

3. Passive vs. Active Bystanders

Many people do not intervene when they encounter discriminatory behavior or in a potentially dangerous situation because they are looking to others for cues on how to act or they believe someone else will intervene. But as a professional or a member of the community, you should intervene responsibly.

- a. In 1968, researchers Darley and Latane conducted an experiment in which a student pretended to have a seizure and they recorded how often others stopped to help.
- b. When only one bystander was watching the scene, the student was helped 85 percent of the time.
- c. However, if there were five bystanders, the student was only helped 31 percent of the time (Latane & Darley, 1969).

4. Why Bystanders Don't Act

- a. In emergency situations, many things prohibit bystanders from intervening:
 - 1) If no one else is acting; it is hard to go against the crowd.
 - 2) People may feel that they are risking embarrassment (e.g., What if I'm wrong and they don't need help?).

- 3) They may think there is someone else in the group who is more qualified to help.
- 4) They may think that the situation does not call for help since no one else is doing anything.

b. Bystanders often hesitate to act because:

- 1) They fear loss of relationships with the problem person or with others who may disapprove of action.
- 2) They fear retaliation, especially if the problem person is powerful.
- 3) They fear embarrassment, especially if they may not be believed or they may be viewed as troublemakers, or viewed as violating other community norms.
- 4) They feel a lack of competence or uncertainty about what action would be best.
- 5) They believe someone else will take action (perhaps someone else with more authority or expertise; Rowe, M., Wilcox, L., & Gadlin, H.)

With each person taking cues from people around them, a common result is that no action is taken. What can be done about this problem? As professionals and members of the community, we all have a responsibility to help each other.

5. Bystander Situations

- a. Rude, inconsiderate, unprofessional behavior (comments and jokes)
- b. Inappropriate or offensive humor (tasteless jokes and innuendos)
- c. Meanness or bullying (based on appearance or size)
- d. Violation of ethical standards (questionable behavior)
- e. Harassment (based on race, gender, and sexual orientation)
- f. Unfair or discriminatory behavior (actions based on race color, religion, sex, disability, age, and national origin)
- g. Inappropriate advances (sexual harassment or assault)
- h. Threats of violence (domestic issues and intimidation)
- i. Dangerous behavior (excessive drinking and self-harm)
- j. Escalating or destructive conflict (sexual assault, suicide, and physical altercations)

C. Bystander Intervention Strategies

Avoid being a passive bystander! Intervene regardless of what others are doing and do not worry about being wrong. It is better to be wrong than to have done nothing at all.

Be on the lookout for situations that may require some intervention. Learn how to recognize indications and always be aware of what is going on around you

As a bystander, it is much easier to recognize and encourage positive social behavior. It takes some practice and courage to intervene and discourage or stop unacceptable behavior (e.g., discriminatory behavior).

There are many strategies associated with active bystander intervention:

1. Direct Action

- a. Talk to a friend to ensure he or she is doing okay.
- b. Make up an excuse to help the friend get away from someone.
- c. Call the police.
- d. Recommend to a bartender or party host that someone has had too much to drink.
- e. Point out someone's disrespectful behavior in a safe and respectful manner that tends to de-escalate the situation.
- f. Remove a friend from a risky situation quickly.

2. Safety First

- a. Despite the fact that most of you wear a uniform, no one is asking you to take the part of law enforcement. Your personal safety is important.
- b. Before you act, you should think about the following:
 - 1) How can you keep yourself safe in this situation?
 - 2) What are all the options available to you?
 - 3) Who else might be able to assist you in this situation?
 - 4) What are the pros and cons of acting?
 - 5) Decide how to help.

- 6) Be friendly.
 - 7) Be firm.
 - 8) Avoid violence.
- c. When in doubt, trust your gut. Instincts are there for a reason.
 - d. When a situation makes us feel uncomfortable, it is generally a good indicator that something is not right
 - e. It is better to be wrong about the situation than do nothing. Many people feel reluctant to intervene in a situation because they are afraid of making a scene or feel as though a person would ask for help if it were needed.
3. Don't Second-Guess Yourself
- a. Concerning discriminatory acts or the possibility of sexual assault, you have the responsibility to intervene. Avoid the following thoughts:
 - 1) "No one else is helping; it must not be a problem."
 - 2) "Someone else will recognize this behavior."
 - 3) "People who are sober don't think this is a problem, maybe I'm wrong?"
 - 4) "Someone else is really responsible and they are not intervening...why should I?"
 - b. Many people do not intervene in a potential situation because they are looking to others for cues on how to act or they believe someone else will intervene.
4. Situational Awareness
- a. Know how and when to intervene in a potential situation takes practice and courage.
 - b. The most effective time to act might be later, not on the spot, and you may want to get advice before taking steps.
 - c. You should not choose a course of action that puts you or anyone else at risk of harm. Know your own limits and comfort zone, and use common sense.
5. Here are some "after the act" strategies you can use:

- a. Privately support an upset person – Help someone who has been hurt or offended, and/or prevent further injury or offense. Listen supportively. Provide information about resources available to the aggrieved person.
- b. Talk privately with the inappropriate person – Give clear feedback and express your opinion in a way that allows the inappropriate actor to save face.
- c. Report the incident, with or without names – Get help for someone better placed to intervene. Make sure leaders and responders are aware of what is going on.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define key terms associated with bystander intervention.
- B. Recall behaviors associated with passive and active bystanders.
- C. Identify bystander intervention strategies.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6100

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT



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Lesson Overview

Workforce diversity and inclusion are critical components of a 21st century workforce. Inclusion and diversity training is one tactical component of a diversity strategy. Diversity Management training provides the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and tools to assist Service Members in the professional behaviors needed in a diverse and inclusive working environment. This is important for creating and sustaining change that fosters a more creative, inclusive, respectful, and productive workforce and workplace.

Required Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 6100 Diversity Management
2. “Who’s On Your Team” Video
3. Computer and monitor

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide comprehend how diversity management can enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define diversity management.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management.	C	CRT
C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace.	C	CRT
D. Identify the barriers to diversity management.	C	CRT
E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

A. Diversity Management

1. Definition of diversity management according to Military Leadership and Diversity Commission (MLDC)

Definition of Diversity Management: The creation of an equitable and inclusive environment that enhances the contribution of all members to fulfill the organization's mission; where differences are recognized, understood, and valued; and is accomplished through communication, education, policies, programs, selection, retention, mentoring, leadership, and individual accountability. (MLDC, 2013)

2. Definition of diversity management according to DoDD 1020.02E

The plans made and programs undertaken to identify in the aggregate the diversity within the Department of Defense to enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness (Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (P&R), 2009).

3. USAF Diversity Policy

The Air Force will develop and maintain comprehensive diversity initiatives to enhance the all-volunteer Total Force, to include active duty, Guard, Reserve, and civilians. The initiatives will:

- a. Ensure all qualified personnel are welcome in America's Air Force.
- b. Educate and train all personnel on the importance of diversity, including mutual respect, thus promoting an Air Force culture that values inclusion of all personnel in the Total Force and views diversity and inclusion throughout the workforce as a force multiplier in accomplishing the mission of the Air Force.
- c. Ensure that all personnel in the Total Force understand they are valued and have the opportunity to achieve their full potential while contributing to the mission of the Air Force.
- d. Establish effective diversity training, mentoring, and professional development that provide the tools for personnel to navigate career progression.
- e. Provide cultural awareness training to enhance organizational capabilities.
- f. Assess and report progress on these initiatives.

4. Army Diversity Policy

The Army's future plans are reflected in a vision to become the national leader in embracing the strengths of diverse people in an inclusive environment by investing and managing talent, valuing individuals, and developing culturally astute Soldiers and civilians who enhance our communities. The Army will pursue an aggressive, but comprehensive strategy that assures:

- a. Leader commitment.
- b. Managed talent across our diversity.
- c. The best available diversity training and education.
- d. Inclusive environments sustained by informed leaders.

5. USN Diversity Policy

The Department of the Navy Diversity Policy Statement released in August, 2007:

“We value our people. Our commitment is the foundation for building and maintaining a high quality workforce. We fully expect our leaders to demonstrate this commitment by aggressively eliminating barriers to success for all our people and seeking new ways to diversify talent pool. In our continuous pursuit of excellence, all personnel will share responsibility ensuring that the talents and capabilities of each member are recognized, valued, and used in a manner that contributes to mission accomplishment. In an era when our flexibility, adaptability, critical thinking are paramount to our readiness, a well-managed, highly diverse workforce is imperative to achieving operational excellence.”

6. USMC Diversity Policy

The Commandant of the Marine Corps released the following diversity policy:

“Our leaders must ensure that all Marines, Sailors, and civilians are provided equal opportunity to develop their skills, advance, and contribute to the overall effectiveness of our Corps. By encouraging everyone who is part of our Marine Corps team to reach his or her full potential, we allow our Corps to capitalize on the wide variety of talents and ideas available.”

7. USCG Diversity

The U.S. Coast Guard Diversity Strategic Plan Executive Summary states:

“This Diversity Strategic Plan challenges Coast Guard men and women, active duty, reserve, civilian and Auxiliary, to join in changing the face of our Service to better reflects the diverse fabric of American society. Our recent record of excellence across our mission set, combined with a strong legacy of superior service, has resulted in the Coast Guard achieving

unprecedented relevance in the minds of the American people. To ensure that we remain a premier organization, it is imperative that we continue to progress toward the strategic goal of constructing a workforce that is reflective of our Nation's diverse composition. Our people are our greatest strength and we must capitalize on that fact by establishing an inclusive environment that respects and values the perspective of diverse individuals, acculturating those influences, and combining them with our proven core values to build our workforce of the future. In this way, we can achieve our goal of organizational excellence and continue to be the nation's front line maritime safety and security agency. By including representation, ensuring equal access, and providing opportunity to all facets of our society, we will continue to achieve relevance in the minds of the American public whom we so ably serve."

B. Recognize the Difference between Affirmative Action, EO (MEO), EEO, and Diversity Management

1. Affirmative Action

Affirmative Action focuses on prevention and/or correcting discriminatory practices concerned with numbers of minorities and women. It is an attempt to rectify past discrimination against certain groups of people. It requires that organizations affirmatively seek them out; however, it does not set goals or require that individuals be hired.

2. Military Equal Opportunity (MEO)

Equal Opportunity in the military is based upon policy. The DoD MEO Program shall:

- a. Promote an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. In this environment, Service members shall be evaluated only on individual merit, fitness, and capability. Unlawful discrimination against individuals or groups based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, or sexual orientation, is contrary to good order and discipline and counterproductive to combat readiness and mission accomplishment, and shall not be condoned.
- b. Use the chain of command as the primary and preferred channel to identify and correct unlawful discriminatory practices; process and resolve complaints of unlawful discrimination, including sexual harassment; and ensure that human relations and MEO matters are taken seriously and acted upon as necessary.
- c. Identify and resolve MEO problems through formulating, maintaining, and reviewing MEO action plans with established objectives and milestones, including a process for accountability in personnel management.
- d. Provide periodic, mandatory education and training in human relations and MEO at installation and operational unit commands, during pre-commissioning programs and

initial entry training, and throughout professional military education systems as part of the overall effort to achieve MEO within the Department of Defense.

Ensure that all on-base activities and all off-base activities are available to all military members and their families regardless of race, color, religion, age, disability, sex, national origin, and sexual orientation as permitted by law and DoD policy.

3. Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO)

Equal Employment Opportunity is based upon law. Unlike affirmative action, EEO laws are used as deterrents to future wrongs and as corrective action if a wrong is committed. The DoD Civilian EEO Program shall:

- a. Maintained within the Department of Defense as an essential element of readiness vital to the accomplishment of the DoD national security mission.
- b. Develop and implement programs to promote diversity and ensure EEO in the DoD civilian workforce at all grade levels, in every occupational series, and in every major organizational element, in accordance with EEOC and OPM guidance and consistent with law, specific circumstances, and the needs of the Department of Defense.
- c. Ensure civilian EEO program activities for the DoD workforce are integrated fully into the civilian personnel management and data systems.
- d. Prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on race, sex, color, national origin, age, religion, disability, or reprisal for previous EEO activity through the establishment of a discrimination complaint processing and resolution system in accordance with EEOC guidance; and prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on marital status, sexual orientation, status as a parent, genetic information, limited English proficiency, political affiliation, or other prohibited non-merit factors through other separate discrimination complaint processing and resolution systems when required by applicable laws and regulations.
- e. Identify and eliminate barriers and practices that impede EEO for all employees and applicants for employment, including sexual and nonsexual harassment in the workforce.
- f. Identify and eliminate barriers at work sites, including architectural, transportation, and other barriers affecting people with disabilities.

4. Diversity Management Policy

- a. In August of 2011 Executive Order 13583 was signed into order by the President of the United States in order to promote the Federal workplace as a model of equal opportunity, diversity, and inclusion. Previous steps were taken to promote a diverse federal workforce, for example:

- 1) Executive Order 13171, October 2000 ordered to promote Hispanic employment in the Federal workforce
- 2) Executive Order 13518, November 2009 ordered to promote Veterans employment in the federal workforce
- 3) Executive Order 13078, March 1998 ordered to promote individuals with disabilities in the federal workforce

b. Managing Diversity is different from Affirmative Action

- 1) Managing diversity focuses on maximizing the ability of all employees to contribute to organizational goals. Affirmative action focuses on specific groups because of historical discrimination, such as people of color and women.
- 2) Affirmative action emphasizes legal necessity and social responsibility; managing diversity emphasizes business necessity.
- 3) In short, while managing diversity is also concerned with underrepresentation of women and people of color in the workforce, it is much more inclusive and acknowledges that diversity must work for everyone.
- 4) The U.S. Federal Government has stated, "To realize more fully the goal of using the talents of all segments of society, the Federal Government must continue to challenge itself to enhance its ability to recruit, hire, promote, and retain a more diverse workforce."

C. Benefits of Diversity in the Workplace

1. Workplace Benefits

- a. Increases management skills to meet rapidly changing market conditions, reduce turnover, increase productivity, and improve image, reputation and brand.
- b. Strengthens advocacy competence and confidence for addressing issues.
- c. Builds trust with all team members.
- d. Sharpens skills to inform, inspire and initiate conversations to involve all team members in the inclusion process.
- e. Fosters team work innovation by advancing, refining and implementing creative ideas.

2. Technology Benefits

- a. Advances in technology and the advent of a global economy are bringing the people of the world closer together than ever before. As a result, businesses, educational systems and other entities are investigating ways to better interact with everyone. This includes being able to attract and retain the best and most qualified workers.
- b. Technology can increase diversity in the workforce through global connections. These connections can increase the participation of underrepresented groups in all organizational settings.
- c. Networking technologies have made both asynchronous and real-time communications between different regions and countries feasible, and have created new forms of work and collaboration.

D. Barriers to Diversity Management

1. Poor Communication

As the DoD maintains its global initiatives, the workforce becomes more linguistically and culturally diverse. You may find yourself working with individuals whose native language is not English. In order to avoid confusion and a lack of teamwork, which can cause low morale; organizations need to implement openness, so every federal employee can discuss ideas, challenges, and strategies to overcome this barrier.

2. Stagnate Service Culture (Organizational Culture)

Organizations, such as the Department of Defense, with its long history and established cultures may not recognize the need for diversity in their organization. Senior leaders may not understand the need for diversity, especially if the organization is already excelling in its mission. To overcome these smokescreens, everyone; especially senior leaders, must recognize the benefits of a diverse workforce and develop strategies to increase diversity in the workplace.

3. Inadequate Skill Development

Skill preparation and career planning can also be barriers to diversity. Different cultures, societies, and countries do not necessarily prepare their workforce in the same manner. Individuals from different cultures have vastly different values, including working values, which can cause conflict within the organization (University of California at Berkley's National Center for Research in Vocational Education). Proper assessment of all incoming workers and additional training can combat this barrier to diversity in the workplace.

4. Inaccurate Perceptions

- a. Threat – In today’s environment, people may be embarrassed to show ignorance about other cultures, may not want to invest time and energy in learning about those cultures, or may perceive diversity initiatives as a threat to job security (Barak, 2005).
- b. Failure – The thought or belief that you cannot succeed because others like you have not succeeded.

5. Prejudice and Discrimination

The main barriers have to do with managers’ and employees’ attitudes and behavior. Specifically, prejudice (i.e., biased views) and discrimination (i.e., biased behaviors), either overt or covert, or are at the core of the barriers for implementing inclusive policies in the workplace.

E. Strategies for Implementing Diversity Management

1. Diversity Management Strategies

- a. Commitment to Change – “Perhaps the single most important element of successful management improvement initiatives is the demonstrated commitment of top leaders to change” (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- b. Leadership Responsibility – Leaders and managers within organizations are primarily responsible for the success of diversity management (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- c. Resources – They must provide the visibility and commit the time and necessary resources (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- d. Communication – Communicate the organization’s support for diversity in newsletters, policy statements, speeches, meetings, and websites (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para. 2).

2. Top Diversity Management Practices (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 8)

- a. Top leadership commitment: A vision of diversity demonstrated and communicated throughout an organization by top-level management.
 - 1) Implement a policy on EEO and diversity management, which states the organization “must offer opportunities for all persons to develop to their full potential in the pursuit and support of science with diversity management integrated into all facets of the” organization (National Institute of Health; NIH).
 - 2) Leads by example.

- 3) Discusses the importance of diversity in public meetings and to the employees.
- 4) Writes an article on diversity for the organization's newsletter.
- 5) Provide leadership and a working environment that enable all to reach their full potential (U.S. Coast Guard; USCG).

b. Strategic Plan

Diversity needs to be part of an organization's strategic plan. Have a diversity strategy and plan that are developed and aligned with the organization's strategic plan (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 9).

- 1) Enabling goal stating, "To recruit, develop, and retain a competent, committed, and diverse workforce that provides a high quality service..." (Department of Veterans Affairs; VA).
- 2) Enabling goal stating, "Will recruit, support, and retain a knowledgeable, diverse, engaged, and continuously learning workforce." (VA)
- 3) Objective goal stating, "Ensure a high quality, diverse and motivated workforce" (Federal Drug Administration; FDA).
- 4) Strategic Action Plan stating three strategic goals:
 - a) Eradicate discrimination in the workplace by enforcing federal EEO laws, regulations, and policies;
 - b) promote inclusion and diversity in all levels of the workforce; and
 - c) empower individuals so that they may participate and contribute to their fullest potential."

c. Diversity Linked to Performance

The understanding that a more diverse and inclusive work environment can yield greater productivity and help improve individual and organization performance (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 10).

d. Measurement

A set of quantitative and qualitative measures of the impact of various aspects of an overall diversity program (GAO, 2005, pp. 4, 10, and 11).

- 1) Quantitative workforce data can evaluate the effectiveness of the organization's diversity management efforts and progress it is making in those efforts.

- 2) Qualitative data can be derived from interviews, focus groups, and surveys for identifying employee perceptions (i.e., questions on climate, organization commitment, promotions, job satisfaction, supervision, and etc.).
- 3) Measure progress in the diversity strategy by reviewing sick leave, complaints, grievances, accessions, and attrition (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration; NOAA).
- 4) Identify successes and areas that need improvement, and develop a process for action planning (NOAA).
- 5) If an issue cannot be resolved, elevate it to the next management level to see if it can be resolved there (NOAA).

e. Accountability

The means to ensure that leaders are responsible for diversity by linking their performance assessment and compensation to the progress of diversity initiatives. (GAO 2005, pp. 4 and 15)

- 1) Leadership submits narrative descriptions of accomplishments for the year, including a narrative for a critical element that promotes EEO and workforce diversity programs (NIH).
- 2) Executives write a narrative describing action they had taken in relation to complying with relevant EEO laws, regulations, and organizational policies as well as monitoring a subordinate manager's EEO and diversity management programs (NIH).

f. Succession Planning

An ongoing, strategic process for identifying and developing a diverse pool of talent for an organization's potential future leaders (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 17).

- 1) Implement a Web-based individual development plan system for individuals who are already in management positions to identify their skills, training, areas of expertise, and areas of development focus. This system ensures that all potential candidates for higher level or more specialized jobs are following a plan to enable them to fill vacant positions and lead the organization into the future. (U.S. Postal Service)
- 2) Forecast the need for potential future leaders. Develop a process for identifying high-performing nonsupervisory employees and provide those employees with a formal mentoring program, experiential leadership opportunities, and exposure to all facets of the organization's operations. (VA)

g. Recruitment

The process of attracting a supply of qualified, diverse applicants for employment (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 19).

- 1) Develop a recruitment tool kit to include various recruitment sources for minorities and diverse populations by state, with a list of minority-serving institutions, and professional minority organizations. (Federal Aviation Administration; FAA)
- 2) Develop a Web-based recruitment source that provides multicultural recruitment advertising and exposure in promoting employment opportunities nationwide. (FAA)

h. Employment Involvement

The contribution of employees in driving diversity throughout an organization (GAO, 2005, pp. 4, 20, 21, and 23).

- 1) Develop a Diversity Advisory Board (DAB) with an advisory council that focuses on people. The strategic plan has four objectives (National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)).
 - a) Increased awareness of diversity values and sensitivities by the senior management, managers, and staff.
 - b) Retention of existing diversity and work-life enhancement.
 - c) Active promotion of outreach and creation of a visible network of connections or routes to the organization.
 - d) Recruitment and workforce planning for enhanced diversity.
- 2) Have a mentoring program for new or young employees and especially for retaining minorities and that the mentoring program is consciously trying to foster relationships. (NIH)
- 3) Create a community outreach program initiatives by educating the community about the agency and the functions it performs. (NIST)
 - a) Actively reach out to local schools through mentoring and tutoring programs that help students with their class work, raise their awareness of scientific careers, and increase community involvement.
 - b) A student Volunteer Program which provides high school and college students a learning experience and exposure to career opportunities by volunteering in your organization

i. Diversity Training to Inform and Educate Management and Staff

- 1) Set up interactive training modules on EEO and diversity management available online to all.
- 2) Conduct diversity refresher training each year.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define diversity management.
- B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management.
- C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace.
- D. Identify the barriers to diversity management.
- E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management.

END OF LESSON

EOA 6150

SPECIAL OBSERVANCES



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to provide the learner with an introduction to what is involved in conducting a Special Observance function.

Recommended Reading/Viewing

DEOMI Organizing Observances video available on the DEOMI intranet at: www.deomi.org

References

1. Guide for Organizing Observances available for download from http://www.deomi.org/downloadableFiles/guide_for_observe.pdf
2. Planning Observances for Military Audiences from <http://www.ushmm.org/remembrance/dor/military>
3. Jewish Virtual Library: Holocaust Memorial Day from <http://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/Judaism/yomhashoah.html>
4. History of National Women's History Month from <http://www.nwhp.org/whm/history.php>
5. About Asian Pacific Heritage Month from <http://asianpacificheritage.gov/about.html>
6. About Hispanic Heritage Month from http://www.biography.com/hispanic-heritage/hh_about.jsp
7. What is National Disability Employment Awareness Month? from <http://www.dol.gov/odep/topics/ndeam/>
8. The Creation of National American Indian and Alaska Native Heritage Month from <http://www.bia.gov/DocumentLibrary/HeritageMonth/>
9. DEOMI special observances www.deomi.org

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI Student Study Guide
2. “How to Conduct a Special Observance,” a 16-minute, continuous-play video available for viewing on the DEOMI intranet at: \\deomi-2\Public\Broadcasts\Special_Observances.

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6150 Special Observances
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture and a study guide, know how to prepare for Special Observances recognized by the DoD by scoring no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify Special Observance events.	K	CRT
B. Identify how to prepare for Special Observance event.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SPECIAL OBSERVANCES

A. Special Observance Events

The following Special Observances are identified by month:

1. Martin Luther King, Jr. Birthday

- a. To honor the civil rights leader, Martin Luther King, Jr., and to allow Americans to reflect on racial equality and democratic principles
- b. Month: January
- c. Dates: Third Monday of the month

Note: Martin Luther King's birthday is on the 15th of January, but in keeping with Federal guidance, it is celebrated on the third Monday in Jan.

- d. Observance: Martin Luther King, Jr. Birthday
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 98-144, November, 1983 (Federal Holiday)
- f. Rationale: Since the first King Holiday on January 20, 1986, the observance has been an occasion for people to remember Dr. King's life and dedicate themselves anew to implementing his dreams.

2. African American/Black History Month

- a. Observed entire month of February
- b. Month: February
- c. Dates: February 1st–28th or the 29th
- d. Observance: African American/Black History Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 99-244, Feb 1986
- f. Rationale: In 1926 African American scholar Carter Godwin Woodson organized the first Negro History Week; focused attention on Black experience in the United States. In 1986, Congress officially designated February as National Black (Afro-American) History Month.

3. Women's History Month

- a. Observed entire month of March.
- b. Month: March
- c. Dates: March 1st–31st
- d. Observance: Women's History Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 100-9, March, 1987
- f. Rationale: The Education Task Force of the Sonoma County (California) Commission on the Status of Women initiated a "Women's History Week" celebration in 1978. President Ronald Reagan proclaimed the week beginning March 7, 1982 of that year to be Women's History Week. Since 1987, Congress expanded the observance, requesting the President to proclaim March of each year as Women's History Month.

4. Days of Remembrance

- a. Recognizes victims of the Holocaust.
- b. Month: April/May
- c. Dates: Sunday to Sunday for the week incorporating Yom Hashoah
- d. Observance: "Days of Remembrance" for victims of the Holocaust
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 96-388, October, 1980
- f. Rationale: To learn, reflect, and never forget what happened to the millions silenced during the Holocaust.

5. Asian American and Pacific Islander Heritage Month

- a. Observed entire month of May.
- b. Month: May
- c. Dates: May 1st–31st
- d. Observance: Asian American and Pacific Heritage Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 101-283, May 1990; Public Law 102-450, October, 1992

- f. Rationale: Commemorates the immigration of the first Japanese to the United States on May 7, 1843 and to mark the anniversary of the completion of the transcontinental railroad on May 10, 1869.
6. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Pride Month (LGBT Pride Month)
 - a. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Pride Month (LGBT Pride Month) is currently celebrated each year in the month of June to honor the 1969 Stonewall riots in Manhattan. The Stonewall riots were a tipping point for the Gay Liberation Movement in the United States.
 - b. Month: June
 - c. Dates: June 1st–30th
 - d. Observance: LGBT Pride Month
 - e. Authority/comment: Executive order 11246 (June, 2014) and Office of Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity (ODMEO) memorandum (May, 2013)
 - f. Rationale: In the United States the last Sunday in June was initially celebrated as “Gay Pride Day,” but the actual day was flexible. In major cities across the nation the “day” soon grew to encompass a month-long series of events. Today, celebrations include pride parades, picnics, parties, workshops, symposia and concerts, and LGBT Pride Month events attract millions of participants around the world. Memorials are held during this month for those members of the community who have been lost to hate crimes or HIV/AIDS. The purpose of the commemorative month is to recognize the impact that lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender individuals have had on history locally, nationally, and internationally.
 7. Women’s Equality Day
 - a. Celebrated on August 26th.
 - b. Month: August
 - c. Dates: August 26th
 - d. Observance: Women’s Equality Day
 - e. Authority/comment: Joint Resolution of Congress, 1971
 - f. Rationale: Commemorates August 26, 1920 passage of the 19th Amendment granting women right to vote, and the Women’s Strike for Equality, a strike/protest held on August 26, 1970.

8. Hispanic Heritage Month

- a. Observed every year between September 15th and October 15th
- b. Month: September/October
- c. Dates: September 15th–October 15th
- d. Observance: National Hispanic Heritage Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 100-402, August, 1988
- f. Rationale: Celebrates culture and traditions of U.S. residents who trace their roots to Spain, Mexico, and the Spanish-speaking nations of Central America, South America, and the Caribbean.

9. National Disability Awareness Month

- a. Observed entire month of October.
- b. Month: October
- c. Dates: October 1st–31st
- d. Observance: National Disability Employment Awareness Month
- e. Authority/comment: U.S. Code 121 as of January 26, 1988
- f. Rationale: Conceived in 1945 as National Employ the Physically Handicapped Week; scope has been expanded. Currently increases public's awareness of contributions and skills of American workers with disabilities and highlights specific employment barriers that still need to be removed.

10. National American Indian Heritage Month

- a. Observed entire month of November.
- b. Month: November
- c. Dates: November 1st–30th
- d. Observance: National American Indian Heritage Month
- e. Authority/comment: Public Law 102-188, March, 1992

- f. Rationale: Educates public about the heritage, history, art, and traditions of the American Indian and Alaska Native people.

B. Preparing For A Special Observance Event

1. Budgetary Requirements

- a. Prepare a budget for each observance.
- b. “Funding should be reviewed by the organization’s legal office to ensure compliance with Service-Specific, DoD, and Joint Ethics Regulations and Federal laws. This includes fund raisers by Special Observance committees and/or Special Observance private organizations **PRIOR** to conducting on a military establishment.”
- c. Budget is an essential element in the success of the programs.
- d. Upon approval, phase funds into the event’s fiscal quarter.

Note: Not all EO offices control a budget. Check with the command budget/resource officer for guidance on funding.

2. Materials for Planning a Special Observance

- a. The most important elements are planning and coordinating.
- b. Try to make use of locally available resources (e.g., staff, library personnel, local community).

3. Duties and Responsibilities of Organizing Personnel and Committees

- a. Project Officer – Oversees overall planning, coordination, and execution. May be the EOA. Use coordination checklist and Guidance for Organizing Observances.
- b. Observance Scheduling Committee – Suggests timeline and prepares a schedule.
- c. Planning Committee – Develops proposed agenda of events and activities including estimated costs.
- d. Finance Committee – Determines funding available from the Resource Management office.
- e. Publicity Committee – Plans, develops, and implements publicity programs to increase awareness.
- f. Education Committee – Plans, develops, and implements educational programs to increase awareness of historical and cultural accomplishments and achievements.

- g. Luncheon/Banquet Subcommittee – Coordinates dates and obtains reservations.
- h. Protocol – Responsible for guest speaker(s).

4. Planning and Coordination

The following information is based upon extensive experience in the planning and conduct of commemorative observances and is not necessarily accomplished sequentially:

- a. Calendar of Events: Contact appropriate installation/local organizations (e.g., Public Affairs; Morale, Welfare and Recreation; command section; and etc.) to compare calendar of events for installation/command activities.
- b. Determine availability of suitable facilities.
- c. Verbally brief your commander, chief of staff, or appropriate supervisor of the general plan.
- d. Compose rough drafts
 - 1) Publicity release
 - 2) Observance program outline
 - 3) List of guest speakers
 - 4) Description of event
 - 5) Structure of planning committee(s)
 - 6) Funding requirements
 - 7) Prepare an introductory message from the commander.
 - 8) Draft a letter to proposed keynote speaker.
 - 9) Send a memo to commander summarizing the plan.
 - 10) Present the proposal to the commander.
 - 11) Proceed with the program after commander approval.
 - 12) Ensure planning committee members cover all aspects of the observance.
 - 13) Secure an advance copy of speaker's presentation, if applicable.

- 14) Send copy of the complete package to the commander and others.
5. After the Observance
 - a. Obtain copies of publicity coverage.
 - b. Compile an After Action Report.
 6. Video

“How to Conduct a Special Observance”

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify Special Observance events.
- B. Identify how to prepare for a Special Observance events.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6200

COMPLAINT PROCESSING



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will build upon knowledge of interview skills. It will provide the necessary framework for students to conduct an intake interview and identify the roles and responsibilities of the EOA. The lesson will briefly describe the general guidelines for processing military equal opportunity/equal employment (EO/EEO) complaints.

Recommended Reading

1. Department of Defense Directive 1350.2 *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*, Chapters 4 and 5. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/135002p.pdf>
2. Air Force Military Equal Opportunity *Intake Interview Guide*

References

1. Department of Defense. (2003, November 21). *Department of Defense Directive 1350.2, Department of Defense military equal opportunity (MEO) program*, Chapters 4 and 5. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/135002p.pdf>
2. Department of Defense. (25 April, 2013). *Department of Defense Instruction 4000.19, support agreements*. Retrieved from <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/400019p.pdf>
3. Air Force Military Equal Opportunity *Intake Interview Guide*
4. Department of Defense. (2015 June 15). *Department of Defense Directive 1020.02E, Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the DoD*.

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI Student Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 6200 Complaint Processing
2. Computer
3. *Complaint Processing* video

Terminal Learning Objective

Given the equal opportunity (EO) complaint process, the learner will know how the major components of the EO complaint process impact mission effectiveness with a minimum score of 70% on a criterion-referenced test.

Enabling Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the roles and responsibilities of the EOA in the EO complaint process.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the major components of the EO complaint process.	K	CRT
C. Describe the major components of the EO complaint intake interview.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

COMPAINTS PROCESSING

A. Roles and Responsibilities

1. Service/Agency References Governing the Complaint Process Include
 - a. Department of Defense (DoD)
 - (1) DoD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*
 - (2) DoD 4000.19, *Department of Defense Instruction Support Agreements* (2013).
 - (3) DoDD 1020.02E, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the DoD*.
 - b. United States (U.S.) Army
 - (1) AR 600-20, *Army Command Policy*
 - (2) TC 26-6, *Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook*
 - c. U.S. Air Force
AFI 36-2706, *Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*
 - d. U.S. Navy
OPNAVINST 5354.1, *Navy Equal Opportunity Policy*
 - e. U.S. Marine Corps
MCO P5354.1D, *Marine Corps Equal Opportunity Manual*
 - f. U.S. Coast Guard COMDTINST M 5350.4C, *U.S. Coast Civil Rights Manual*
2. Definitions
 - a. EO Complaint – An allegation of unlawful discrimination based upon the five protected categories made either orally or in writing. The five protected categories are:
 - 1) Race
 - 2) Sex
 - 3) Religion
 - 4) National Origin

- 5) Color
- 6) Sexual Orientation
- b. EO Complainant:
 - 1) DoDD 1350.2 defines Service members as complainants
 - 2) Depending on the Service, EO complainants may include:
 - a) Active duty, Reserve, or Guard members
 - b) Retired Service members
 - c) Family members
3. Avenues to Address Complaints
 - a. Informal – An allegation of unlawful discrimination or sexual harassment, made either orally or in writing, which is not addressed through formal channels.
 - b. Formal – An allegation of unlawful discrimination or sexual harassment that is submitted in writing to the authority designated for receipt of such complaints in Service implementing regulations.
 - c. Non-EO Complaints – Other complaints the EOA must be familiar with besides EO complaints (e.g., abuse of authority).
4. Referral Agencies for non-EO complaints
 - a. Chaplain
 - b. Inspector General (IG)
 - c. Housing Referral Office
 - d. Provost marshal
 - e. Legal services
 - f. Appropriate contracting or vendors office
 - g. Armed Forces Disciplinary Control Board
 - h. Community liaison

- i. Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC)
5. EEO Complaints
- a. Employment-based
 - b. Derived from Federal Statutes (e.g., laws)
 - c. Uses the appellate system for resolution
 - d. Can be filed by Government employees, former employees, and job applicants

B. EO Complaint Process Components

1. The Intake Interview Contains the Following Four Elements:
 - a. Greeting
 - b. Body
 - c. Closing
 - d. Follow-up
2. Processing the Complaint
 - a. Each Service's specific reporting requirements are unique; all require complaints, formal and informal, to be reported.
 - b. EOAs will perform the following tasks in order to process the report:
 - 1) Initial reporting/notification
 - 2) Interim reporting
 - 3) Monitoring
 - a) Timelines
 - b) Administrative procedures
 - c) Victim focus and reprisal
 - c. Victim Focus and Reprisal Definitions

1) Victim Focus

- a) The tendency to see the complainant as the problem instead of searching for the root cause of the issue.
- b) Victim focus is reactive and concentrates on the symptoms of the problem, not the root cause.

2) Reprisal

- a) Taking or threatening to take an unfavorable personnel action or withholding or threatening to withhold a favorable personnel action.
- b) Any other act of retaliation, against a member for making or preparing a protected communication.

3. Outcome of the Complaint

- a. One of the following outcomes will result:

- 1) Substantiated
- 2) Unsubstantiated

- b. Appeal Process

4. Following-up on the Complaint

When following-up, the EOA will perform (depending upon Service):

- a. Interviews
- b. Observations
 - 1) Look for reprisal
 - 2) Look for effectiveness of corrective measures
- c. Documentation
- d. Final report
- e. Archiving the complaint
 - 1) Formal vs. informal

2) Hard copy filing

- f. Data entry

C. Intake Interview

1. Open the Interview

Greet the interviewee promptly and cordially by:

- a. Establish a rapport with the interviewee.
- b. Establish procedures of the interview.
- c. Explain the limits of anonymity/confidentiality.
- d. Acknowledge the time limitations.
- e. Explain the purpose of note taking.
- f. Explain resolution avenues, if applicable.

2. Body

During the body of the interview you should do the following:

- a. Allow the interviewee to tell his/her story.
- b. Ask open-ended questions.
- c. Maintain control of the interview.
- d. Maintain strict impartiality.
- e. Maintain appropriate eye contact.
- f. Paraphrase the interviewee at times.
- g. Listen attentively.
- h. Accept/acknowledge interviewee's feelings.
- i. Use selective and flexible techniques.
- j. Maintain positive non-verbal communications.

3. Closing the Interview

When closing the interview you should do the following:

- a. Summarize the information gathered.
- b. Ask if interviewee has anything to add.
- c. Explain the procedures of the complaint process.
- d. Discuss reprisal.
- e. Discuss future follow-up.
- f. Extend appreciation to interviewee.

4. Follow-up on the Interview

Follow-up on the interview only if needed (i.e., witnesses, supervisors). However, it is considered best practice to follow-up with the complainant.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the roles and responsibilities of the EOA in the EO complaint process.
- B. Recognize the major components of the EO complaint process.
- C. Describe the major components of the EO complaint intake interview.

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250
INTRODUCTION TO
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)



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DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an organizational assessment to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The organizational assessment allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with understanding the human relations climate, and it must be taught toward the end of the course. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment, the process associated with an organizational assessment, identify the planning and preparation strategies associated with an organizational assessment and the different organizational assessment tools, as well as, analyze and interpret organizational assessment data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Required Reading:

1. National Defense Authorization Act. (FY2014). Command Climate Entries. Under Secretary of Defense Memorandum. (2013, July). Command Climate Assessments. Department of Defense

References

1. Secretary of the Air Force. (2011, October). *Air Force Instruction 36-2706, equal opportunity program military and civilian*, Chapter 12. Washington, DC: Department of the Air Force.
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3. CNET 9210, Command Assessment Team Indoctrination Course

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14. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Outbrief Checklist

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, handouts, and a study guide, comprehend the foundation of an organizational assessment program with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define organizational assessment.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the purpose of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
C. Recall factors of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
D. Identify the basis to conduct an organizational assessment.	C	CRT
E. Identify the types of organizational assessments.	C	CRT
F. Recall the organizational assessment process.	K	CRT
G. Identify the planning associated with an organizational assessment.	C	CRT
H. Recall all aspects of the commander's in-brief.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATION ASSESSMENT (OA)

A. Define Organizational Assessment

1. Organizational Assessment

- a. An *Organizational Assessment* is a *systematic* procedure to gather data about an organization. It provides insight as to how the organization is functioning to meet its mission. (*Commander Handbook, Chap 4*)
- b. The perception of one's work environment is the concept of organizational climate (Zhang & Liu, 2010). This is the foundational tenet of an organizational assessment.
- c. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- d. Organizational Assessment is based on process and procedures used by commanders to obtain a "snapshot" of an organization (unit). It presents information on the perceptions members have in areas such as, organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR.

B. Purpose of an Organizational Assessment

The main purpose of conducting an organizational assessment is to gather information on an organization to assist managers (commanders, etc.) in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members that may affect mission readiness. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization's climate.

C. Factors of an Organizational Assessment

1. Climate factors

Organizational assessment within the DoD measure climate factors associated with:

- a. Organizational effectiveness
- b. EO/EEO Fair Treatment
- c. Perceptions of sexual harassment/discrimination
- d. Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR)

These factors or topic areas break down into more specific areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

2. Command's climate factors

a. Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you don't know where you are, a map won't be much help. An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

b. Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

3. Control Factors

Consideration should also be given to some controlling factors that help define the OA process.

a. Time

b. Space

c. Personnel

1) Military members

2) Civilian members

3) Host nation employees

d. Current OPTEMPO—Availability of personnel

e. Unit Location—Accessibility

f. Automation capabilities

Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version

g. Survey team size

The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.

h. Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)

- 1) EOA's experience and/or training
- 2) Commander/leadership commitment
- 3) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program

2. Positive Climate Factors

An organizational assessment identifies climate factors that affect mission readiness.

An organization's health encompasses a set of measurable factors residing in the work environment, based on the collective perceptions of the people who work in the environment.

Some measurable factors include:

- a. Staff morale (positive)
- b. Training and professional development
- c. Work force demographics (inclusive)
- d. Reenlistments

3. Negative Climate Factors

Among other things, an OA can identify climate factors that diminish mission readiness.

There are indications that a command climate is not healthy in ways that could impact the mission.

- a. Prevalence of sexual or racial jokes
- b. Polarization of groups
- c. Poor personal appearance
- d. Poor military comportment (behavior/attitude)
- e. Increased number of unauthorized absences
- f. Low morale
- g. Low trust in leadership

D. Basis to Conduct an Organizational Assessment

There are many reasons (basis) to conduct an "Organizational Assessment" they are:

1. Directed by higher authority
 - a. National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA)
 - b. USD Memo (25 July 2013)
2. Commander-requested
3. Following regulatory requirements:
 - a. Army – AR 600-20 Chapter 6 (30 days after assuming command, six month point, annually thereafter)
 - b. Navy – OPNAVINST 5354.1F (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - c. Air Force – AFI 36-2706 (120 days after assuming command,, annually thereafter)
 - d. Marines – MCOP 5354.1D (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - e. Coast Guard – COMDTINST M5350.4 within 120 days after change of command and annually thereafter.
4. An OA *is not* used:
 - a. In place of a complaint/incident clarification/investigation
 - b. To determine the competency level of an individual
 - c. As a mechanism to terminate employment

E. Identify the Types Of Organizational Assessment

There are various assessment options in the scope of an OA.

1. Informal

An OA can be based on an informal process such as an:

- a. Out-and-about
- b. Daily observations

2. Formal

A more formal process, which uses pre-prepared assessment tools and follows strict guidelines, include surveys (DEOCS).

F. Recall the Organizational Assessment Process

The organizational assessment process begins with activities to determine the health of the organization.

As an EOA, it is your job to assess the organization to fully understand its climate. This assessment can be conducted in many ways including document review, organizational sensing, focus groups, interviewing, and/or surveying.

The OA process normally includes tasks such as:

1. Planning and Preparation (Assessment Strategy)
2. Data Gathering (to include, not inclusive)
 - a. Observation of individuals/groups
 - b. Surveying individuals
 - c. Interviewing individuals/groups
 - d. Reviewing records and reports
3. Analyzing and interpreting information and data

This is where all the data is processed and interpreted to identify validated concerns for the commander.

4. Creating Organizational Assessment reports

After all data have been analyzed, the results are conveyed to the commander in an understandable and useful manner.

All findings and recommendations must be presented in a way that maintains confidentiality of individuals participating in the assessment.

5. Follow-up

After changes or recommendations are implemented, a follow-up assessment should be conducted to determine their effectiveness, as well as, identify any modifications needed. This may also include another climate assessment.

G. Planning Associated with an Organizational Assessment

Working and communicating with leaders and managers is critical in the OA process.

1. Planning strategies.

- a. EOAs must be aware of OA guidance and have some idea of what leaders seek to learn.
- b. Having a clear picture of the desired outcome will help define the processes and resources necessary to conduct the assessment.
- c. During the planning phase, the commander and EOA should adopt specific strategies and sequence to follow during the assessment process.

These strategies should not be established as hard and fast rules, but should serve more as a guide throughout the assessment process.

2. Planning Considerations

There are many variables and elements that can impact the OA planning and preparation process. These are the factors that can affect the OA process. They include the OA team, commander's goals, resources available, etc.

a. The OA Team

The OA team may consist of a single individual or can include a team consisting of several members. The number of team members will vary according to local mission, priorities, and staffing.

b. Assessment domain (scope) of the OA.

- 1) Sample population (people)
- 2) Intangible factors
- 3) Organization (mission/goals)
- 4) Technology
- 5) Commander's goals
- 6) Environment
- 7) Resources

3. Planning Details

When developing your OA, there are certain areas that require specific and sometimes detailed attention:

a. Leadership

The assessment must include all levels of the organization; most important is leadership influence and impact on the organization.

b. Focus

Keep the assessment focused on the organization.

c. Method(s)

Use more than one method to gather information:

- 1) Surveys (DEOCS)
- 2) Interviews
- 3) Observations
- 4) Records & Reports

H. Aspects of the Commander's In-Brief

A well prepared in-brief will include the following:

1. Purpose of the In-brief

The purpose of the in-brief is to identify the commander's expectations, guidance, and intent beyond Service requirements.

2. Reason for the assessment

- a. Requested
- b. Directed by higher headquarter
- c. Regulatory guidance

3. Established timelines (beginning to end)

A well prepared in-brief will include established timelines to begin and complete the organizational assessment.

4. Additional points to cover with the commander
 - a. Advise commander on assessment tools and the strengths/limitations of the assessment.
 - b. Provide commander with a copy of the survey instrument for review. Identify what additional questions will be included in the survey.
 - c. Describe how the survey will be distributed and collected.
 - d. Request appointment of liaison officer or senior commissioned officer to serve as a point of contact.
 - e. Establish the specifics for the out-brief. Getting this information up-front will make preparing and providing the assessment findings at the out-brief easier.
 - 1) Date and time
 - 2) Location
 - 3) Equipment needed for out-brief
 - 4) Commander's preference- formal briefing vs. desk side
 - 5) Attendees- who from the command will attend the out-brief

SUMMARY

The following topics were covered in this lesson:

- A. Define organizational assessment.
- B. Recognize the purpose of an organizational assessment.
- C. Recall factors of an organizational assessment.
- D. Identify the basis to conduct an organizational assessment.
- E. Identify the types of organizational assessment.
- F. Recall the organizational assessment process.
- G. Identify the planning associated with an organizational assessment.
- H. Recall all aspects of a commander's in-brief.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250-1

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT

DEOMI ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE SURVEY (DEOCS)



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an "Organizational Assessment" to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The DEOCS is a commander's management tool that allows EOAs to proactively assess critical organizational climate dimensions that can impact the organization's mission. Additionally, it allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the process associated with understanding the complete administration and analysis of the DEOCS. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of the DEOCS; the process associated with ordering and administering the survey, the on-line survey itself, as well as, analyzing and interpreting survey data.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. Air Force Instruction 36-2706, October 2011, Equal Opportunity Program Military & Civilian, Chapter 12
2. CNET 9210, Command Assessment Team Indoctrination Course
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19. NAVEDTRA 7542, Command Assessment Team Information Guide
20. OPNAVINST 5354.1 Series Navy Equal Opportunity (EO) Policy
21. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses Steps and Process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation–EOA 6250-1 OA DEOCS
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, students will analyze DEOCS data to discern and impact unit readiness and mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT). Students are also required to score a “GO” on the criterion check sheet.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment survey.	K	CRT
B. Identify the planning, preparation, and administration associated with the DEOCS.	C	CRT
C. Recall factors and items associated with the DEOCS.	K	CRT
D. Identify the key aspect of the DEOCS report.	C	CRT
E. Analyze and interpret the DEOCS report.	AN	CC
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (DEOCS)

A. Foundational Objectives of an Organizational Assessment Survey

To better understand the nuances of an organizational assessment, we must first look at its objectives (purpose and topic areas). First, a description of an *Organizational Assessment*.

1. Organizational Assessment

Determining the “health” and functioning effectiveness of an organization by examining such factors as morale, teamwork, and communication. This is accomplished through some or all of the following: group and/or individual interviews, observations, surveys or questionnaires, and reviews of records and reports. (DoDD 1350.2, August 18, 1995)

- a. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- b. An organizational assessment not only fulfills the DoD and NDAA requirements, it helps provide Commanders a “snapshot” of an organization (unit) during a specific period of time. It presents information on the feelings, perceptions, and thoughts of unit members in areas like; organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR.

2. Purpose of the DEOCS

- a. The main purpose of conducting a DEOCS is to gather information on an organization to assist Commanders, in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization’s climate
- b. The DEOCS will:
 - 1) Assist commanders at all levels in assessing the command’s EO climate.
 - 2) Provide commanders insight into other personnel issues that may impact unit effectiveness.
 - 3) Identify positive and negative factors that may affect mission readiness.

3. Topic Areas Associated with a DEOCS

The DEOCS is voluntary survey designed to assess the “shared perceptions” of respondents about formal or informal policies and practices. It measure climate factors associated with (1) Organizational Effectiveness, (2) EO/EEO/ Fair Treatment, (3) Perceptions of Sexual Harassment/Discrimination, and (4) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR).

These topic areas are broken down into more specific (factor) areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

Command’s Climate factors align with:

a. Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you do not know where you are, a map will not be much help! An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

b. Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

B. Planning, Preparation, and Administration

1. Planning Control Factors

When a request or requirement for a DEOCS is presented, some considerations must be thought out to ensure the assessment is successful or participation is maximized.

a. Time

b. Personnel

- 1) Military members
- 2) Civilian members
- 3) Host nation employees

c. Current OPTEMPO

Availability of personnel

d. Unit Location

Accessibility

e. Automation capabilities

Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version

f. Survey team size

The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.

g. Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)

- 1) EOA's experience and/or training
- 2) Commander/leadership commitment
- 3) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program

2. Preparing for the DEOCS

a. DEOCS are requested by a variety of personnel: EOAs, CMEOs, EOLs, EORs, and etc. If you are responsible for the administration of a DEOCS and/or are going to serve as the survey administrator, there is some key information you must determine prior to making your request:

- 1) What will be the survey dates?
 - a) Start/End dates
 - b) Extend survey option
- 2) How does the Commander want the unit broken up, if needed?
 - a) Single DEOCS
 - b) Sub-breakouts
- 3) What kind of password option should we use?
 - a) Email Password
 - b) Print Passwords
- 4) Does the Commander want LDQs/SAQs?

- a) LDQs
- b) SAQs
- 5) Paper Survey option
 - a) Start/End Dates
 - b) Written Comments
- b. Additionally, the below information is required to actually make your request:
- c. A minimum of 16 assigned personnel are required to conduct a DEOCS assessment, requests with fewer than 16 completed surveys will not be processed.
- d. Information required in processing a DEOCS assessment:
 - 1) Unit Identification Code (UIC; **USN, USMC, and USA Only**)
 - 2) Personal Accounting Symbol (PAS; **USAF Only**)
 - 3) Operational Facilities (OPFAC; **USCG Only**)
 - 4) Mailing address for organization
 - 5) Branch of service
 - 6) Service component
 - 7) Name/rank/grade of Survey Administrator
 - 8) E-mail of Survey Administrator
 - 9) DSN phone number of Survey Administrator
 - 10) Commercial phone number of Survey Administrator
 - 11) Name/rank/grade of Commander/Director
 - 12) E-mail of Commander/Director
 - 13) Name/rank/grade of Commander's Supervisor
 - 14) E-mail of Commander's Supervisor

15) Number and type of Passwords required to take online survey

16) Ten Locally Developed Questions (LDQ; **OPTIONAL**)

17) Five Short Answer Questions (SAQ; **OPTIONAL**)

3. Making the DEOCS request and Administration

- a. Once all administrative information is gathered, go to www.deocs.net and make your request by filling in all needed data fields.
- b. Upon submission of your request, the DEOCS Support Team reviews and either contact the Administrator for corrections or to approve the request. This will happen within 72 hours.
- c. Administration of the DEOCS has several key steps. Ensure the requesting Commander is aware of the process and updated throughout the assessment.
- d. SAAS Account
 - 1) Purpose
 - a) Account login info
 - b) SAAS Account/Report Closer
 - 2) Functionality of SAAS
 - a) Passwords
 - b) Completion Rates
 - c) Request Report

C. DEOCS Factors and Survey Items

1. DEOCS Main Topic Areas

The survey focuses on four primary areas: Military Equal Opportunity (EO), Civilian Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), Organizational Effectiveness (OE), Perceptions of Discrimination/Sexual Harassment, and Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR).

The survey is then separated into 23 climate factors that pose questions that survey takers respond to using a four-point scale (i.e., strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree).

The core survey contains 95 items/questions. Each factor has anywhere from three to four items each.

- a. DEOCS Climate Factors
 - 1) Organizational Effectiveness (OE)
 - a) Organizational Commitment
 - b) Trust in Leadership
 - c) Organizational Performance
 - d) Organizational Cohesion
 - e) Leadership Cohesion
 - f) Job Satisfaction
 - g) Diversity Management
 - h) Organizational Processes
 - i) Help Seeking Behaviors
 - j) Exhaustion/Burnout
 - 2) EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - a) Hazing
 - b) Demeaning Behaviors
 - c) Favoritism
 - d) Racial Discrimination
 - e) Sex Discrimination
 - f) Religious Discrimination
 - g) Sexual harassment
 - h) Racist Behavior
 - i) Sexist Behaviors

- j) Age Discrimination (Civilian only)
 - k) Disability Discrimination (Civilian only)
 - 3) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR)
 - 4) Perceptions of Discrimination & Sexual Harassment
- b. Taking the Survey
- 1) Individuals will login to the DEOCS using a password provided by the survey administrator. The survey can be accessed from any computer or device that has Internet capability.
 - 2) Survey must be completed in one sitting. (There is no save and return capability). Additionally, there is no count down timer; however, the survey will disconnect after 1.5 hours.
- c. The demographics section will be the first area respondents will encounter.
- 1) Sex (Male/Female)
 - 2) Hispanic Declaration
 - 3) Race
 - 4) Reside (On/Off Base)
 - 5) Deployed
 - 6) Employment Status (Mil/Civ/Other)
- d. DEOCS Anonymity
- 1) Respondent's anonymity is very important. Individuals can enter the survey with minimal identification by selecting "Decline to Respond" (Hispanic and Race) and "Other" in the employment status. The only demographic item that must be answered is "sex."
 - 2) The survey will not display group data any time fewer than five members of that demographic completes the survey.
 - 3) Respondents' anonymity is protected when completing the online survey by using a computer-generated, untraceable password. In addition, no personally identifying information (PPI) is collected.

e. Survey Structure

After the demographics section, the respondent then enters the actual factor areas.

- 1) Organizational Effectiveness
 - a) 37 total items
 - b) Display on one page
 - c) Once completed with OE items respondents can enter written comments
- 2) EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - a) 30 total items
 - b) Display on one page
 - c) Civilian only items
 - d) Once complete with EO items, respondents can enter written comments
- 3) SAPR
 - a) 9 total items
 - b) 20 Sub items/questions
- 4) Perceptions of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment
 - a) 1 item
 - b) 3 to 6 sub-items/questions
- 5) After the SAPR and Discrimination section, respondents can enter written comments. They are also presented the opportunity to enter any additional comments.
- 6) The final section provides locally developed and short answer questions that were selected by the requesting unit. If there are no LDQs or SAQs, the survey terminates after the additional comments area.
- 7) LDQ and SAQ areas
 - a) Up to 10 LDQs

- b) Up to 5 SAQs

D. Key Aspects of the DEOCS Report

1. The DEOCS Report

The DEOCS is one of the tools EOAs use to collect data from commands to help provide the Commander with essential information regarding their command climate. The DEOCS is typically the first step in the data gathering process. The responses that are provided within the DEOCS, both standard scale responses, as well as written comments, provide a picture of the climate and help determine what focus groups questions and groupings may be needed to validate DEOCS results. Below is a breakdown the DEOCS report:

a. Demographics display (Section II)

1) Minority/Majority

For the majority/minority subgroup categories, the majority category includes all respondents who listed their race as “White,” and their ethnicity as “not Hispanic.” All other respondents are included in the minority subgroup.

2) Race

- a) American Indian
- b) Asian
- c) Black
- d) Native Hawaiian
- e) White
- f) Two or More
- g) Declined

Note: The race-ethnic classification system used on DEOCS is consistent with current Office of Management and Budget (OMB) guidelines.

3) Ethnicity

- a) Not Hispanic
- b) Hispanic

- c) Declined
- 4) Gender
 - Men/Women
- 5) Category (rank/Grade)
 - a) Junior Enlisted (E-1–E-6)
 - b) Senior Enlisted (E-7–E-9)
 - c) Junior Officer (O-1–O-3)
 - d) Senior Officer (O-4 and above)
 - e) Junior Civilian (Grades 1–8)
 - f) Senior Civilian (Grades 9–SES)
- b. Perceptions of Discrimination (Section III)

This section addresses whether members of the organization experienced discrimination and sexual harassment, directed from members of the organization, during the last 12 months; whether they reported the incident; and their satisfaction with how the reported incident was resolved.

Question:

Within the past 12 months, I have personally experienced an incident of discrimination or sexual harassment within my current organization.

(Mark all that apply) Response Scale:

- 1) Racial/national origin/color
- 2) Sexual Harassment
- 3) Gender (sex)
- 4) Religion
- 5) Age
- 6) Disability

- 7) Equal pay
- 8) Genetic information
- 9) Pregnancy
- 10) Retaliation
- 11) NO, did not experience discrimination

If a respondent answers “Yes” to any of the categories, then this section has additional breakdowns:

- 1) Experienced discrimination based on race/national origin/color
Majority/Minority
- 2) Experienced discrimination based on gender (sex)
Men/Women
- 3) Actions taken following incident of discrimination:
 - a) Filed formal complaint
 - b) Reported incident to EO/EEO
 - c) Reported to supervisor
 - d) Confronted individual
 - e) Did not report
- 4) How satisfied are you with how your issue was or is being resolved?
Very satisfied; very dissatisfied scale
- 5) If you did not report the incident to anyone in your chain of command, please indicate your personal reasons why.
 - a) The incident would not be taken seriously
 - b) The incident would not be believed
 - c) Lack of privacy/confidentiality

- d) Fear of reprisal
 - e) Lack of support from chain of command
 - f) Other
 - g) N/A
- c. Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR, Section IV)

This section addresses members' perceptions of the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) climate within your organization. Specifically, this section includes members' perceptions of the following topic areas:

- 1) Perceptions of Safety.
- 2) Chain of Command Support
- 3) Publicity of SAPR Information
- 4) Unit Reporting Climate
- 5) Perceived Barriers to Reporting Sexual Assault
- 6) Unit Prevention Climate
- 7) Restricted Reporting Knowledge

This part of the report begins by displaying the overall “Unit Summary” information pertaining to the seven SAPR climate factors within an organization, compared to the DEOMI database for their Service.

The “Unit Summary” is located in both section IV and VI of the DEOCS report. These two areas only differ by the factors that are being displayed.

- 1) Results display above average, average, and below average using a green, blue, and red coding scheme, respectively. Above average indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly more favorable than the perceptions commonly held across your Service. Average indicates that the perceptions of your members are similar to that of the perceptions commonly held across your Service. Below average indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly less favorable than those held across your Service.

The organization’s average is displayed along with its respective Service branch average.

- 2) The display is a simple horizontal bar chart with the averages located to the right of the bar. Simply put, the longer the line, the better the unit's average (positive).

It is important to note the "Range of "Near Service Average" is located under each factor. This range displays how close or far your unit is from the next color coding.

- 3) We determined the Near Service Average cut scores for each Service based on a distribution of climate factor averages from all units in each Service branch (Army, Navy, Air Force, and etc.) that completed the DEOCS during a specific timeframe. These scores are updates semiannually so that they track any data trends.
- 4) The "Unit Summary" area within SAPR gives you a quick snapshot of how the command is doing in relations to their Service. This information is then followed up with addition (specific) information about each SAPR factor in the order the factors are listed in the unit summary area.

Specific data or responses associated with the SAPR factor are then displayed on individual tables and figures throughout the SAPR section. These tables and figures have detailed information that is explained prior to and after each graphic.

d. Climate Factor Subgroup Comparisons

The climate factor subgroup comparison provides a demographic summary chart of the **SAPR, OE, and EO/EEO Climate variables**. Results display *above average*, *average*, and *below average* using a green, blue, and red coding scheme, respectively. *Above average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly more favorable than the perceptions commonly held across your Service. *Average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are similar to that of the perceptions commonly held across your Service. *Below average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly less favorable than those held across your Service.

- 1) These three charts provide the organization with a snapshot of their results by all DEOCS factors and demographic category.
- 2) The averages displayed within the color coding boxes, represent the "Range of "Near Service" Average" that is located in the Unit Summary area.
- 3) This display allows you to determine what factor is trending below average, average, or above average by demographic group.
- 4) Knowing this information is important to understanding how personnel perceive their command climate. It also provides a starting point for you to determine the positive and negative trends. Once you can see what factors are scoring low and by what demographic, you can then go to the Section VII, DEOCS Summary of Survey Item

Results and determine what specific questions have a high unfavorable score. This will assist you in determining potential focus group/interview questions.

e. Survey Item Results

Section VII of the DEOCS report shows responses to the individual climate factor questions. It turns the four-point response scale into a two-point favorable/ unfavorable scale and displays the results using a percentage. Additionally, it provides the overall factor results using a percentage as well.

One key difference between this section and section V is climate factor subgroup comparison. The comparison area determines a color code and average and presents that against your Service. Section VII is only the results of your organization responses—no comparison, just actual results.

f. LDS/SAQ/Written Comments

1) Locally Developed Questions

- a) Worded in a positive manner
- b) Worded as a comment
- c) Strongly agree/disagree scale
- d) Up to 10 LDQs on any one DEOCS
- e) Sub breakouts will all use the same LDQs

2) Short Answer Questions

- a) Open ended question to elicit a comment
- b) Use up to 1,000 characters
- c) Responses are provided verbatim to Commander
- d) No PII

3) Written Comments

- a) Provided after each topic area
- b) Use up to 1,000 characters
- c) Responses are provided verbatim to Commander

- d) No PII

E. Analyze and Interpret the DEOCS

The proper analysis of the DEOCS is critical in helping leadership understand their command climate.

The key to moving forward with the assessment is identifying both the positive and negative findings within the main subject areas.

1. Purpose for analyzing data – Identify organizational strengths and areas that need improvement
 - a. Strengths – Data that suggests a strong majority of unit members express favorable views about an issue or organizational practices or policies.
 - b. Areas of improvement – Data that suggests a sizeable minority (i.e., 20% or more) of the unit members harbor unfavorable views about an issue or organizational policies or practices.
2. Analyzing and Interpreting the DEOCS
 - a. As already discussed, a command climate assessment is not just surveying an organization. Commanders need a clear understanding of their unit members' perceptions, and different methods are needed to accomplish this.
 - b. It is the EOAs job to identify the positive and negative factors that affect that climate and, by extension, mission. **In almost every case, EOAs will start the assessment process by administering the DEOCS.**
 - c. Compare the sample of DEOCS respondents to the population of the unit. Are some groups underrepresented? Are some groups overrepresented?
 - d. Beginning with the demographic data, you can see how many members of your organization completed the DEOCS. Moreover, you can see who in your organization completed the DEOCS, in terms of group membership. This can be important, not just because it shows who completed the DEOCS, but also who didn't.

If only a small percentage of the organization participated in the DEOCS, your confidence in the results will be lower than if you had a large majority of the organization complete the DEOCS.

- e. Review section III Perceptions of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment. This shows perceptions of these incidents in the workplace during the past 12 months, actions taken to address them, and members' satisfaction with issue resolution.
 - 1) Remember, these are just perceptions, not official formal complaints. Members determine what constitutes an "incident." This could be a simple comment all the way to a discriminatory action.
 - 2) The goal here is to identify that these perception exists, what type of discrimination, and the pervasiveness.
 - 3) Additionally, the series of questions in this area allows you to provide a clearer picture to the commander. You are not just telling them that members perceive discrimination, you are able to provide further clarification: actions taken to address them or any barriers to not addressing, and members' satisfaction with issue resolution.
 - 4) Finally, review the comments areas to validate or find examples of discrimination that can help explain perceptions.
- f. The SAPR section (section IV) displays a tremendous amount of information. Start by reviewing the unit summary of all seven factors. This will give you a snapshot of how each factor is trending. After the unit summary data, the section takes each factor one at a time and displays specific data regarding that factor and the questions associated with them. This breakdown will be shown graphically, through a table or figure. Analyzing this section will simply take the EOA to read the presented data in that section and make note of any inconsistencies or trends.
- g. Section V, Climate Factor Subgroup Comparison (SAPR, OE, EO). This area displays color coding broken down by factor and demographic grouping. Identifying scoring in this area is very easy; however, the EOA has to be able to explain scoring. Caution must be given to this section as many people will simple look at the three displays and assume everything is told on these three pages. EOAs must be able to connect section V, VI, and VII to gain a clear picture or view of the respondents' perceptions.
- h. Section VI, Overall Unit Summary will show you how the unit surveyed compares to their Service. This again will help you validate the previous section by showing whether the organization as a whole garnered an average rating for any factors. Average scores are displayed to the right of the bar chart. The actual cut-scores are viewable underneath each factor display. The Service average is the mean within the "Near Service Average." This display allows commanders to see how close or far away they are from the next level (average).
- i. Section VII, Response to Survey Items displays a favorable/unfavorable breakout for each question by factor. Additionally, it allows you to assign an overall percentage to

each question and factor. Age and Disability Discrimination only display federal civilian responses.

- j. Analyzing all data is crucial to understanding the unit's perceptions. Once the data portion of the report has been analyzed, you have to turn your focus to the LDQs, SAQs, and written comments.
- k. The final areas within the report to review include the LDQs, SAQs, and additional comments. While reviewing the latter two sections, you want to look for comments that help explain climate factor findings (e.g., below average scores and above average scores). This way, when you inform or brief the commander on positive and negative finds revealed by the survey, you can provide specific comments associated with those areas. This will also assist you with developing interview/focus group questions.
- l. Your comment analysis should focus on clarifying survey results to allow for a better understanding of responses. Additionally, survey and comment analysis helps you to determine what focus group/interview questions are needed to validate survey findings. Finally, when presenting your findings to the commander, it is much easier to lump your comment analysis into themes. Meaning, you take the top 2-3 most common responses.
- m. Comments are provided verbatim and cannot be modified. There will be occasions when comments reveal UCMJ violations. These comments should be brought to the commands attention for action.

3. Final Analysis

The final analysis consists of consolidating data from all assessment tools. The DEOCS survey will always be the primary means of gathering information and determining the unit's positive and negative perceptions.

Results and findings are now pulled together to provide leadership with a means to address any negative concerns that impact the mission or continue the positive trends.

- a. DEOCS – Identified concern areas through survey responses and comments
- b. Observations – Observed behaviors or spoke to unit members
- c. Focus Group/Interviews – Clarified or validated survey, observation, and/or Commander's concern areas
- d. Records and Reports – clarified or validated survey/observation concerns

How results are reported or briefed depends on your Service-specific requirements. This will be explained during the Service Specific portion of the course.

Commander out-briefs and/or reports should provide information that was obtained or observed during your assessment. Your brief or report should speak to the totality of all four assessment areas, and how each area either validates or invalidates the survey results, comments, interviews, or the unit commander's initial perceptions.

Showing a complete picture and providing both positive and negative findings will display your objectivity, competency, and skill as an EOA.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment survey.
- B. Identify the planning, preparation and administration associated with the DEOCS.
- C. Recall factors and items associated with the DEOCS.
- D. Identify the key aspect of the DEOCS report.
- E. Analyze and interpret the DEOCS report.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250-2

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)

RECORDS AND REPORTS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skills in reviewing records and reports when conducting an organizational assessment. Reviewing records and reports allows EOAs to provide commanders with an insight into the command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with reviewing records and reports. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of reviewing records and reports, the process associated with records and reports, as well as, analyze and interpret records and reports data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook. 2008. Washington, D.C._ Chapter 4
2. Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S. E., & Slocum, J. W. (2005). *Management: A competency-based approach*. Mason, Ohio: Thomson/South-Western.
3. Lusthaus, C.; Adrien, M (Editor); & Anderson, G. (Editor). (2002). *Organizational Assessment: A Framework for Improving Performance*. Ottawa, ON, CAN: IDRC Books
4. Triola, Mario F. (2002). *Essentials of Statistics*. Shortened version of Elementary Statistics (8th ed.). Addison-Wesley Publishing.
5. Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1984). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
6. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Capstone activity
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses Steps and Process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

3. Videos: Ordering a DEOCS

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, handouts, a study guide and a small group activity; know how records and reports play a role in an organizational assessment with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT). Students are also required to obtain a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the purpose of records and reports.	K	CRT
B. Recall advantages of records and reports.	K	CRT
C. Recall disadvantages of records and reports.	K	CRT
D. Identify the sample use of records and reports.	K	CRT
E. Recall records and reports data analysis and interpretation.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
<p>Capstone Activity</p> <p>A. Analyze and interpret organizational assessment data.</p> <p>B. Develop an in-brief (homework.)</p> <p>C. Conduct an in-brief.</p> <p>D. Conduct Analysis/Translate data (OA data provided).</p> <p>E. Create report (Executive Summary with findings, recommendations, issues, concerns, action plan, etc...).</p> <p>F. Prepare an out-brief (homework).</p> <p>G. Conduct an out-brief.</p>	<p>Provide knowledge and skills associated with DEOCS analysis and organizational assessment strategies.</p>	

OA RECORDS AND REPORTS

A. Recall the Purpose of Records and Reports Assessment

Records and reports are used to identify “hard” or unchangeable data about the command. This data is used to prove or disprove, support or non-support, or quantify perceptions from other data sources.

Some data will be qualitative (e.g., unit logs, policy, regulations, and etc.), while others are numerically based (e.g., awards, discipline, promotions, and etc.)

Significant information is filed in a variety of formats. During the OA records review, the EOA may look at different areas, not limited to:

1. Retention rates
2. Discipline rates
3. Equal Opportunity complaints (formal and informal)
4. Awards and decorations
5. Local promotions
6. Policy letters (qualitative data)
7. Training records
8. Key duty positions (will vary by Service)

B. Recall the Advantages of Records and Reports

Advantages of records and reports:

1. Unchangeable (if available)
2. Easily expressed for comparison (ratio, percentage, etc.)
3. Easily accessible
4. Easily interpreted and compared with other data sources

C. Recall Disadvantages of Records and Reports

Disadvantages of records and reports:

1. Might not be available
2. Might not be accurate
3. Might require extensive search of records to obtain needed data.

D. Recall the Sample Use of Records and Reports

Depending on the type of record and report used in the OA process, the analysis may be simple or time consuming.

Records might require data to be consolidated and synthesized, proportions or rates per thousand computed, and/or compared over time to same or similar data.

For numerically-based data, there are various methods for computing the statistics: percentages and rates per thousand.

Percentage differences do not determine causes or imply any intent to discriminate.

1. Percentage

- a. This method is useful to depict changes in what happens to individuals as a result of normal functions of the system. It can be used to identify and provide valuable insights of institutional practices, which are operating to the disadvantage of a particular group of people.
- b. To compute a percentage, take the population you are reviewing, divide it by the total population and multiply it by 100.

$$\left[\frac{\# \text{ of population in review}}{\# \text{ of total population}} \right] 100$$

2. Rate per thousand

- a. This method allows the EOA to better compare specific groups, to compare data during a timeframe or fluctuating unit populations, or helpful when comparing data within large unit population.
- b. To compute rate per thousand, take the population you are reviewing, divide it by the total population of that group, and multiply it by 1,000.

$$\left(\frac{\text{\# of occurrences in review}}{\text{\# of population in that group}} \right) 1000$$

E. Recall Records and Reports Data Analysis and Interpretation

It is important that the EOA look at various levels within the data when comparing it. The EOA may find, or fail to find, the indicators necessary to support, fail to support, or refute the other data sources if the appropriate level of data are not analyzed.

After the data is processed, interpret and translate it into meaningful terms. Put the data into words that identifies where the findings suggest a concern/issue.

SUMMARY

After processing all the activities, the student should have a better comprehension and fuller understanding on how to apply their knowledge as they prepare to perform their duties.

Students should now be able to:

- A. Recall the purpose of records and reports assessment.
- B. Recall advantages of records and reports.
- C. Recall disadvantages of records and reports.
- D. Recall the sample use of records and reports.
- E. Recall records and reports data analysis and Interpretation.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250-3

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)

INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in conducting interviews and observations in order to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. Interviews and observations allow EOAs to provide commanders with an insight into the command climate from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the skills and steps associated with conducting interviews and observations. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives, the process, as well as identify the planning and preparation strategies.

Recommended Reading

None

References

1. Air Force Instruction 36-2706, October 2011, Equal Opportunity Program Military & Civilian, Chapter 12
2. Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook. 2008. Washington, D.C. Chapter 4
3. Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstein, A. C. (2004). *Educational administration: Concepts and practice*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.
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5. Shipley, Kenneth G. & Julie M. Wood (1996). The Elements of Interviewing. San Diego, California: Singular Publishing Group, Inc., (pp. 1-96.) <BF637.I5 S45>
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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Student Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment:

1. Slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture a study guide, and small group activity, analyze interview and observation data processes used to facilitate an organizational climate with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the purpose of an interview.	K	CRT
B. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the individual interview.	K	CRT
C. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the group interview.	K	CRT
D. Recall logistical considerations of conducting interview.	K	CRT
E. Recall how to determine the number of interviews.	K	CRT
F. Recall determining the sample element.	K	CRT
G. Recall the types of interview questions.	K	CRT
H. Recognize interview error and bias.	C	CRT
I. Recall the purpose of using observations.	K	CRT
J. Recall advantages and disadvantages of using observations.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

OA INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS

A. Recall the Purpose of an Interview

Interviews – a conversation designed to gather information for a specific purpose (Shiplely 1996, p. 1).

1. Purpose of conducting an interview
 - a. Collect data for diagnosis – Interview data supplements and expands data gathered by surveys, reports, and observations.
 - b. Clarify data generated – Interviews assist the EOA in checking his/her understanding sources of perceptions held by the members of the organization being assessed.
 - c. Increase personal ownership of the diagnosis – Because individuals are personally involved in the diagnosis through the face-to-face interview, they have the tendency to develop a feeling that what they have to say counts in the diagnosis.
 - d. Examine situations – Examine a specific problem, conflict, or issue concerning the interviewee and explore various possible resolutions.
2. There are two types of interviews: the *individual* interview and the *group* interview (focus group).

B. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of the Individual Interview

An individual interview is carried out in a private face-to-face, one-on-one situation between the interviewer and the interviewee

1. Advantages of an *individual* interview:
 - a. Flexibility – A skilled interviewer can search out relevant issues that appear or develop as the interview progresses. This may yield valuable information.
 - b. Involvement – One-on-one interviews may produce a greater sense of involvement and commitment among interviewees and lead to more direct and honest answers.
 - c. Clarity – Since the interviewer takes an active role in helping the respondent understand questions, there is less chance the questions will be misunderstood.
 - d. Intimacy – One-on-one interviews are intimate; therefore, they may lead to more direct and honest answers.

2. Disadvantages of an *individual* interview:

- a. Time – Individual interviews that involve a large number of interviewees can take a great deal of time.
- b. Sample size – As pointed out before, time limitations make it difficult to interview a large number of people. This may limit the final sample size (or representation of the group) and the breadth of information obtained. The process of drawing conclusions from limited samples may then be difficult; thus, affecting the validity of the interviews.
- c. Validity – Such things as the interviewer's lack of experience, improperly used techniques, questionable interpretation, and small sample sizes may invalidate the data. Also, responses from interviewees may not be honest, and different individuals may directly contradict each other.
- d. Training – It is far easier to teach a person to administer a survey than to be an effective one-on-one interviewer.

C. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of the Group Interview

A group interview (focus group) is an informal discussion carried out with a selected group of people using one or more interviewers, in order to address specific topics relevant to the situation at hand. Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members.

1. Advantages of a group interview:

- a. Time – Because more than one person is being interviewed, more information may be gathered using the same amount of time devoted to an individual interview.
- b. Determine commonality of perception – If numerous people share the same perception, this may help validate the perception. At the same time, commonly-held perceptions may be the product of organizational folklore, and not possess any basis in fact (i.e., group think).
- c. Sharing of information – The group interaction will often provide elaborated responses and encourage the sharing of ideas, including proposed solutions. One comment may serve as a lead-in to other comments or information critical to the assessment.
- d. Formal communication check – The group interview can provide a check on the information channels and patterns in a unit, by revealing how well or poorly information gets passed.

2. Disadvantages of Group interviews may include
 - a. Trust – If there is no trust between the group and the interviewer, among the group members themselves, or within the organization, the interview will not likely produce valuable information.
 - b. Expectations – Some members of the group may see the interview as an opportunity to expose others for policy violations. Such conversations are categorically off limits, and any such comments require the facilitator to stop the interview, remove the individual, and contact leadership about the allegations.
 - c. Threat – A senior member may perceive a group interview as a threat to his/her position or program.
 - d. Limited interviewer skills – The success of a group interviewer depends on the interviewer's skills in handling group situations, behaviors, and dynamics. The interview team must maintain respect/rapport and engage in effective listening, while accurately capturing the predominant perceptions and concerns expressed by the group

D. Recall Logistical Considerations of Conducting an Interview

The setting provides the atmosphere and sets the tone to facilitate participants' comfort and willingness to disclose information. The following factors should be considered:

1. Room size
2. Room condition
3. Room setup/seating arrangement – Pick a room where you have a reasonable expectation of privacy and a lack of interruptions.
4. Group interview seating arrangement – Seating arrangements are dictated by the number of participants and room size. It is all about being flexible.
5. Individual interview seating arrangement – Dictated by the interview location.
6. Location – The setting is more than just the physical room. It should provide for a reasonably intimate and comfortable environment. The interview should run without interruptions. Arrangements should be made so phones or people not participating do not interrupt the interview.

E. Recall How to Determine the Number of Interviews

1. How many *group* interviews need to be conducted?

The exact number of group interviews that are needed to adequately address the key issues within the command may be difficult to determine. However, that determination is made based upon the need to collect more data to help clarify issues or concerns.

2. How many *individual* interviews need to be conducted?

The number of personal interviews depends on the size of the command. With very large commands, it becomes progressively difficult to conduct a large number of interviews.

F. Recall Determining the Sample Element

1. Developing a sample

This helps ensure the results are valid, which enhances the assessment's value to leadership.

- a. **Step 1** – Determine interview type and purpose.

- b. **Step 2** – Conduct random sampling.

Ideally, a randomly selected sampling provides a representative sample of the unit's population. However, in small units, there may be a very limited number of members representing a specific group, and a random sampling may fail to adequately include individuals in that demographic group. When this is the case, it may be necessary to consciously select members of these groups, to ensure their input is secured.

- c. **Step 3** – Confirm sampled group is demographically representative; adjust as needed.

2. Determine number of interview participants

There should be an adequate number of interviews to properly reflect the range of participants who need to be interviewed, based on survey findings, in order to characterize the issues.

- a. Group interview

The optimum number for a group is 8–15. The group needs to be large enough so that individuals are less likely to monopolize the session. At the same time, the group needs to be small enough so that everyone has the opportunity to discuss issues they feel are important, within the established session time limit.

b. Individual interview

An individual interview involves a single interviewee.

3. Determining demographics

The EOA needs to randomly select candidates, so that a properly represented group (i.e., with adequate numbers of minorities, women, junior enlisted, and etc.) is created.

G. Recall the Types of Interview Questions

Questions play a major role in facilitating. Questions invite participation and get people to think about issues from different perspectives. The skill of questioning techniques is not as simple as it seems. The interview should allow for the development of questions tailored for specific needs.

There are several different types of questions.

1. Direct questions

Ask explicitly for a reply on a specified topic. Use the who, what, when, where, why strategy. This is more likely to be directed at a specific individual.

2. Open-ended questions

Elicits a more complete response and more effective participation. It requires more than a “yes” or “no” answer. The majority of your lead-off questions should be open-ended questions to stimulate as many responses as possible.

3. Narrow questions

The interviewer selects the subject matter to discuss.

4. Paraphrased questions

The interviewer repeats the other person’s last response in his/her own words and then follows with a question seeking additional, related information.

5. Leading questions

These are statements followed by a suggestion of what the answer should be.

6. Yes/No questions

Yes/no questions are similar to leading questions. They look for a specific answer/response to a particular area of interest.

7. Loaded questions

A loaded question encourages a specific response taking the respondent in a direction the facilitator wants to go.

8. Closed questions

They require a direct answer and can be used at the end of the interview too. Usually begins with “is, can, will, could, should, did, does, do, and etc.

9. Polling questions

An uninvolved focus group member (e.g., participant that is quiet or displaying body language that signals a lack of interest or an unwillingness to participate) is a challenge. To encourage quiet or withdrawn group members, it is helpful to use a polling technique in order to elicit each participant’s feelings about a particular issue. Avoid serial questioning (e.g., asking each participant to comment in the same order on every issue).

H. Recognize Interview Error and Bias

In personal interviews there are many ways in which errors can be made by both the respondent and the interviewer, and this can lead to 'bias' in the results. The objective of the interviewer should be to minimize the likelihood of such bias arising.

1. Interviewee induced bias

a. Faulty memory

Some respondents may answer a question incorrectly simply because they have a poor memory.

b. Exaggeration and dishonesty

There can be a tendency on the part of some respondents to exaggerate claims about their conditions and problems if they think it will further their cause and lead to improvement in their well-being.

c. Courtesy bias

In interview situations it is quite possible that one will come across the problem of courtesy bias, (i.e., the tendency for respondents to give answers that they think the interviewer wants to hear, rather than what they really feel). The respondents may not

wish to be impolite or to offend the interviewer, and may therefore endeavor to give polite answers.

It is also possible for the interviewer him or herself to introduce bias into an interview, and this must be avoided at all costs.

2. Interviewer induced Bias

a. Desire to help the respondent

The interviewer may become too sympathetic to the problems and conditions of the respondent, and this can affect the conduct of, and results obtained from, the interview.

b. Reactions to responses

1) When respondents give answers, the interviewer must be careful not to react.

2) There are many potential opportunities for bias to creep into the results of group discussions.

3. Specific group potential biases

a. Some participants may feel they cannot give their true opinions due to the psychological pressure on them arising from their concern as to what other members of the group may think. Some may feel tempted to give opinions that they feel will be respected by the group.

b. The presence of one or two 'dominant' participants may repress the opinions of others. Some may not feel confident about expressing an opinion.

I. Recall the Purpose of Using Observations

Observation is the act of recognizing and noting a fact or occurrence often involving measurement with instruments (Webster, p. 802).

Purpose of observation in organizational assessment:

1. A means to observe a unit during its usual daily activities in real time.
2. Observation can be directed at hypotheses testing (e.g., to determine if specific behaviors occur in the workplace), hypothesis formulation (e.g., to identify why certain sentiments were expressed in the survey), or evaluating unit climate (e.g., whether the workplace environment is cooperative, competitive, hostile, etc.). Observations can be adapted to realize any of these ends by making a different set of choices concerning recording methods.

J. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Observations

1. Advantages of using observation as a data collection method
 - a. Provides data about behavior itself, rather than reports of behavior. Observation data has relatively high face validity. While people in the organization may doubt the validity of questionnaire responses and may attempt to deny the validity of interview data by arguing that people did not answer truthfully, well-documented observational data can accurately identify workplace behaviors that indicate interpersonal dynamics and practices that can impact morale, productivity, and retention.
 - b. It is a real-time data collecting device rather than a retrospective collection device. Self-reports mostly describe behavior that has occurred in the past. Because people tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later, their reports of those events can become distorted. Observation deals with behavior that is occurring now. People tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later.
 - c. It's a flexible method. In all but the most structured observation schemes, the observer can modify what he or she is observing, as the situation requires. While structure is helpful for producing measurable data, it introduces the danger of selective observation. The respondent enjoys behavioral flexibility, but you really don't. In observation, you can change your collection methods if the dynamics of the arena change. Observation, therefore, enables one to discover existing patterns of behavior previously unknown to the people in the organization.
 - d. It removes the temptation for the respondent to provide biased answers. It does not depend on the willingness of the respondent to honestly complete the questionnaire or contribute during an interview.
 - e. It reduces selective learning. The observer is able to make an objective analysis of the behaviors occurring in the organization that was not previously known by leadership.
2. Disadvantages of using observation
 - a. Interpretation/coding are required to use data. As observations move away from the more structured formats, interpretations and coding must be used in order to compile the data. This process is time-consuming and requires some skill. If you hire an expert or outside consultant, it can become expensive. Thus, as with interviews, coding and interpretation can be expensive, requires time, and can be a source of bias.
 - b. Observer bias – Less structured observation also has a tremendous potential for observer bias. Observers must be adequately trained so that different observers will see the same things when viewing an event. There are several techniques that can be used to avoid observer bias. One of the less formal ways is by making several observations of a particular group activity over a period of time and seeing if the inferences about that

activity are the same across different periods of time. This will provide a little insight into what is being written and what is being assumed, thereby exposing observer bias.

- c. Expense – When all these factors are added up (e.g., training, sampling, coding, and etc.), effective observation becomes a potentially expensive proposition. However, many times there is simply no substitute for having a trained observer on the scene.
- d. Lack of privacy – This disadvantage primarily affects those individuals being observed.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recall the purpose of an interview.
- B. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the individual interview.
- C. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the group interview.
- D. Recall logistical considerations of conducting an interview.
- E. Recall how to determine the number of interviews.
- F. Recall determining the sample element.
- G. Recall the types of interview questions.
- H. Recognize interview error and bias.
- I. Recall the purpose of using observations.
- J. Recall advantages and disadvantages of using observations.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
April 2015

EOA 6250-4

ASSESSMENT TO SOLUTIONS



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in finalizing an "Organizational Assessment" by introducing recommendations and Assessment to Solutions. Once a DEOCS and/or organizational assessment has been conducted, EOAs are often tasked to out-brief the assessment data to that command. EOAs frequently include recommendations, solutions, and action planning as part of their briefing (depending on the type of assessment and the results). The lesson will provide the student selected recommendations within the DEOCS report and introduce them to the DEOMI.org "Assessment to Solutions" Web page.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. DEOMI.org Assessment to Solution ,
<http://www.deomi.org/DRN/AssessToSolutions/index.html>

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. Slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, handouts, a study guide, and small group activity, apply the knowledge and skills needed to conduct an out-brief using all Organizational Assessment data to leverage assessment to solutions. Each student must obtain a minimum passing score of 70% on a criterion referenced test, as well as, score a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify recommendations within the DEOCS report.	K	CC
B. Recall key aspects of the DEOMI.org “Assessment to Solutions” Web page.	K	CC
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ASSESSMENT TO SOLUTIONS**A. Identify Recommendations**

If you remember back to the beginning of the OA lesson, you were informed that an organizational assessment is used to:

1. Organizational Assessment

Determining the “health” and functioning effectiveness of an organization by examining such factors as morale, teamwork, and communication. This is accomplished through some or all of the following: group and/or individual interviews, observations, surveys, or questionnaires, and reviews of records and reports. (DoDD 1350.2, August 18, 1995)

- a. A complete organizational assessment usually consists of a comprehensive organizational review using all or a combination of the four distinct assessment methods.
- b. EOAs will typically be required to provide an out-brief of the information and in that brief provide recommendations and/or an action plan.

2. DEOCS SAPR Recommendations

Recommendations in the DEOCS report are located in Section IV (SAPR) and in Section VIII (Recommendations).

The SAPR area has recommendations strategically placed after each sub-factor area that speaks to that specific factor and in some instances display additional resources to assist you.

- a. Perceptions of Safety (p. 24)
- b. Chain of Command Support (p. 27)
- c. Publicity of SAPR (p. 31)
- d. Unit Reporting Climate (p. 36)
- e. Perceived Barriers (p. 41)
- f. Unit Prevention (p. 46)
- g. Restricted Reporting (p. 49)

3. DEOCS Recommendations

The Recommendation Section within the DEOCS is located in section VIII (p. 79.) This section will provide you with generic recommendation that apply to most organizations that are conducting an assessment. The section addresses two main areas:

“Above Average/Average” and “Below Average”

- a. Average scores are displayed in the Unit Summary (SAPR, OE, and EO) and in the Subgroup Comparison area (SAPR, OE, and EO). These scores are displayed with a green, blue, red color scheme.
- b. Above Average/Average scores represent a positive or organizational strength. This means that the organization typically wants to reinforce-those practices and programs currently in place or improve upon them.
 - 1) Reinforce policy or practice.
 - 2) Continue open communication to ensure all members understand their role and responsibilities.
 - 3) Share results with unit members.
 - 4) Utilize training aids as needed.
- c. Below Average scores represent a possible organizational concern. Organizations generally want to attempt to improve the views or perceptions regarding that factor.
 - 1) Review comments and data to determine concern areas.
 - 2) Review comments to look for possible corrective actions.
 - 3) Conduct focus groups or interviews can help determine the source and extent of specific perceptions.
 - 4) Contact referral agencies as needed to assist

B. Assessment to Solutions

1. Assessment to Solutions

- a. Assessment to Solution is designed to support leaders and equal opportunity professionals by providing tools and products designed to address the mission-impacting issues that were identified during the climate assessment process.

- b. Assessment to Solutions has products and training material to help organizations overcome negative perceptions; these can also aid in the development of an action plan.
- c. The Assessment to Solutions area is separated into the main assessment areas of the DEOCS, each area is further separated by factors and a host of products are provided to assist in overcoming negative perceptions at an organization.
- d. The site separates DEOCS topic areas (OE, EO, and SAPR) and allows you to select each factor under that area. Once you select a factor, it provides a factor description, additional information, and various products that will assist your organization in developing effective solutions.
- e. The final area provides “Operational Support.” The DEOCS Support team delivers a range of support services, and can provide consultation and analytical services to assist commanders, directors, and survey administrators through all phases of the command climate assessment process.
 - 1) Consultation Services
 - 2) Analytical/Research Services
 - 3) Senior Consultation

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify recommendations within the DEOCS report.
- B. Recall key aspects of the DEOMI.org “Assessment to Solutions” Web page.

END OF LESSON

CLASS 15CD

**EQUAL OPPORTUNITY ADVISOR
RESERVE COMPONENT COURSE**

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE



Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute
Patrick AFB, FL
July 2015

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This study guide will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor. The content is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this study guide should not be taken out of context.

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NOTE: Materials found within this document are FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY. They are not authorized for use in local training programs.

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How to Use This Student Guide

This guide is to be used during classroom instruction and as a study tool to prepare for test sessions. It contains instructional objectives and materials for each of the topical areas.

Each lesson provides a lesson emphasis, instructional objectives, and reference materials that will guide your study. The guides are organized to generally follow the lesson/course outline. However, the instructor may on occasion vary the order of the presentation during the lesson or present the material not included in the guide.

Each student, therefore, should take thorough notes of the lecture content throughout the course, but not rely solely upon graphic reproductions for the course content.

Effective Habits for Studying

Try to develop and appreciate the following habits:

1. Take responsibility for yourself.
2. Responsibility is recognition that in order to succeed you can make decisions about your priorities, your time, and your resources.
3. Center yourself around your values and principles.
4. Do not let friends and acquaintances dictate what you consider important.
5. Put first things first.
6. Follow up on the priorities you have set for yourself, and do not let others or other interests, distract you from your goals.
7. Discover your key productivity periods and places.
8. Choose the morning, afternoon, evening, and study spaces where you can be the most focused and productive. Prioritize these for your most difficult study challenges.
9. Consider yourself in a win-win situation—you win by doing your best and contributing your best to a class, whether for yourself, your fellow students, and even for your teachers and instructors. If you are content with your performance, a grade becomes an external check on your performance, which may not coincide with your internally arrived at benefits.
10. First, understand others and then attempt to be understood.
11. When you have an issue with an instructor (e.g., a questionable grade, an assignment deadline extension), put yourself in the instructor's place. Now ask yourself how you can best make your argument given his/her situation.
12. Look for better solutions to problems. For example, if you do not understand the course material, do not just reread the material, try something else! Consult with your trainer, a tutor, an academic advisor, a classmate, or a study group.
13. Look to continually challenge yourself.

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 2200

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an equal opportunity advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to pick up where presentation skills left off and to help the students understand how they will prepare for and present their Race and Ethnic Studies guided discussion. The lesson will present to students the instructional skills needed to be an effective EOA. The lesson is taught from a military training perspective. It is an introduction to a skill that is improved by practice and experience. Students will leave with a basic understanding and practical experience of instructional skills required of an EOA.

Recommended Reading

None

References

1. Beebe, S. A., Mottet, T. P., Roach, K. D. (2004). *Training and development: Enhancing communication and leadership skills*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
2. Davie, I. K. (1991). *Instructional technique*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
3. United States Air Force. (2003, November 12). AFMAN 36-2236, *Guidebook for Air Force instructors*.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 2200 Training Development and Delivery
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a study guide, small-group instructions, preparation time, and collaboration with a partner, students will develop and facilitate a 60-minute guided discussion, scoring a “GO” on the criterion checklist. Each student will also be required to score a minimum of 70% on a Criterion Referenced Test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the teaching lecture.	K	CRT
B. Describe the guided discussion.	K	CRT
C. Describe how to prepare for a training session.	K	CRT
D. Describe how to deliver a training session.	K	CRT
E. Prepare a teaching plan.	A	CC
F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion.	A	CC
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY

A. Teaching Lecture

1. Definition: A teaching lecture is a formal or informal presentation of information, concepts or principles given by a single individual (United States Air Force, 2003).
2. Types of teaching lectures: Formal and Informal
 - a. The formal lecture is usually conducted from behind a lectern and there is no verbal interaction between the instructor and the students.
 - 1) The instructor simply tells the students the information without giving the students a chance to intervene and ask questions.
 - 2) The communication is one-way. Usually a formal lecture is used with large groups (i.e., 50 people or more).
 - b. The informal lecture is conducted with verbal interaction between the instructor and students.
 - 1) The students and the teacher ask questions and provide comments to enhance the lesson.
 - 2) It is usually held in groups smaller than 50 people. If the instructor is experienced and able to handle larger groups, they may do an informal lecture with groups larger than 50 people.
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of the Teaching Lecture
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Ideal for introducing a subject and teaching facts
 - 2) Presents information to a large group of students at one time
 - 3) Allows for note taking and reference to other material
 - 4) Effective way of motivating students to learn by a person who has experience
 - 5) Supplement to other methods
 - 6) Prepares students for discussion
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Limits student participation

- 2) Unable to use lecture to teach skills
- 3) Difficult to evaluate learning
- 4) Difficult to maintain students' attention

B. Guided Discussion

1. Definition: Instructor controlled group process in which students share information and experiences to achieve a learning objective.
 - a. A method of teaching using questions to encourage participation
 - b. The learning situation involves exchanging ideas, opinions and experiences
 - c. During guided discussions, facilitators ask questions, pose problems, and direct student participation.
2. Basic Characteristics of a Guided Discussion
 - a. Tied to a standard of performance (measureable)
 - b. Self-contained unit of work
 - c. Adapted to the needs of the learner
 - d. Has a definite structure
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Guided Discussion
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Allows everyone to participate in the learning situation
 - 2) Pools knowledge and experience of all participants
 - 3) Stimulates and motivates participants when well organized
 - 4) More closely simulates real-world situations through discussions
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Can be very time-consuming

- 2) Limits the number of participants
- 3) Can degenerate quickly if not skillfully controlled
- 4) Some members may feel intimidated or reluctant to participate

C. Preparing the Training Session

There are many ways to prepare a training session. The following are simple guidelines:

1. Develop training objectives

Training objectives – a concise statement that describes what one should be able to do upon completion of training.

- a. Emphasis should be placed on what the trainee can do, rather than what they know or how they feel.
- b. Objectives describe learning in terms of student outcomes.
- c. Measurement of success is based on comparing student performance to the objective.

2. Conduct your research – read, review, and research up-to-date information

- a. Internal sources – personal experience and knowledge you already possess
- b. Internet sources – Search engine (Google, Yahoo, Bing, etc.) will result in numerous hits. Evaluate each site for validity:
 - 1) Accountability – who owns the website?
 - 2) Accuracy – is the information on the site accurate and reliable (closely related to accountability)?
 - 3) Objectivity – is the information biased or objective?
 - 4) Date – Is the information recent?
 - 5) Usability – Is the information presented in a way that is easy to use and understand?
- c. Library sources – can the information be accessed at the DEOMI library, online through Web OPAC, or other library search engines
 - 1) Books

- 2) Periodicals
 - 3) Full-text databases
 - 4) Newspapers
 - 5) Government documents
- d. Expert resources – educators, professionals, and organizations
3. Organize your lesson (Develop a teaching plan)
- a. Develop training content – training content is the information, definitions, descriptions, concepts, and skills that you present
 - b. Build an outline
 - c. Select your teaching pattern or strategy
 - 1) Chronological or sequential – arranging the content in the time order or in the order in things occurred
 - 2) Cause-effect – one set of conditions is presented as the cause of another set
 - 3) Problem-solution – “disease-remedy” pattern. Presents a problem and proposes a solution
 - 4) Pro-con – usually equally covers two sides to an issue
 - 5) Topical – categorizing the main points by topic
 - d. Prepare your introduction – A teaching lecture and guided discussion are introduced in the same way with attention, motivation, and overview steps
 - 1) Attention – the primary purpose is to gain the audience’s attention and focus them on the topic.
 - 2) Motivation – Describe the specific reason why the students need to participate in this lesson
 - 3) Overview
 - e. Develop your questions

During a guided discussion, the content for each lesson objective is discovered through question and answer rather than the instructor telling students as they would in a teaching lecture.

While some of your questions during the guided discussion are spontaneous, you need to develop your lead-off questions (LOQ) and follow-up questions (FUQ) as you develop your teaching plan.

1) LOQ – opens areas for discussion

You should have an LOQ for each main point in the discussion. A LOQ is used to initiate (spark) discussion and to get students thinking about the first main point you presented in the overview.

2) FUQ – solicits specific responses to cover lesson content

3) Spontaneous questions – used to extract more information and keep the discussion moving

f. Determine training time frames

1) Total time of training event

2) Time within each main point

3) Time within introduction and conclusion

g. Select training materials

1) Develop participant's guide or other handouts

2) Develop training tools (e.g., PowerPoint® visuals, chart paper, markers, videos, etc.)

D. Delivering the Training Session

1. Personalizing your lesson plan

a. Purpose – Personalization is the act of adding individual subject matter knowledge to the instructional process.

b. Examples of personalization

1) Subject- matter detail

2) Instructional techniques

- 3) Personal experiences
 - 4) Examples and analogies
 - 5) Introduction, transitions, and conclusion
2. Characteristics common to good instructors
- a. Effective instructors are knowledgeable
 - 1) Become the subject-matter expert
 - 2) Know more about the subject than your students
 - b. Effective instructors possess ability
 - 1) Leadership
 - a) Planning and organizational skills
 - b) Flexibility
 - c) Make best use of resources
 - d) Monitor progress and results
 - e) Discipline and reward
 - f) Skill to influence or persuade others
 - g) Maintain self-control
 - h) Lead by example
 - 2) Instructional skills
 - a) Know principles, methods, and techniques of instruction
 - b) How and when to apply them
 - c) Know the strategy and lesson content
 - c. Personality traits effective instructors possess
 - 1) Sincere

- 2) Nonjudgmental
 - 3) Patient
 - 4) Integrity
 - 5) Understanding
- d. Effective instructors are good communicators
- 1) Students understand why the information needs to be learned
 - 2) Inspire, encourage, persuade, and motivate
- e. Effective instructors have an intrinsic desire to teach
- f. Effective instructors have the respect of students

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Describe the teaching lecture.
- B. Describe the guided discussion.
- C. Describe how to prepare for a training session.
- D. Describe how to deliver a training session.

The following topics will be conducted and evaluated for the Guided Discussion Activity:

- E. Prepare a teaching plan.
- F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion.

END OF LESSON

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366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 3000

POWER AND PRIVILEGE



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will demonstrate that power and its associated privilege can sometimes create exclusive work environments at the expense of others. Power and privilege can also make it possible for certain groups to obtain and maintain control over those who have limited power and privilege, which can lead to discriminatory practices. It is the intent of this lesson to point out facts showing relationship between the powerful and the privileged. In this lesson, students will discover how ingrained and taken for granted power and privilege are and how they impact society. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional, you must understand that privilege and power are human relation issues that affect unit cohesion and mission accomplishment.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Star Power activity

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 3000 Power and Privilege
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, comprehend how power and privilege impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define power.	K	CRT
B. Identify the types of power.	K	CRT
C. Identify the misuse (abuse) of power.	C	CRT
D. Define privilege.	K	CRT
E. Identify the types of privilege.	C	CRT
F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).	K	CRT
G. Recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

As part of cognitive development, each student must also develop their interpersonal skills by participating in activities while in-resident. It is important to note that activities are designed to elicit discussion which may enter the Affective Domain of learning. In these cases the objective is for each student to actively participate in various group activities and to “respond with interest” to material presented (i.e., express opinions, beliefs, and etc.). To measure the Cognitive and Affective behaviors expected of the students during activities, the Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation (ISDE) form is used and each student must obtain a minimum passing score of 70%. Students are expected to demonstrate professionalism as they control their intrapersonal and interpersonal skills.

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure	Time
Star Power	Recognize effects of power among individuals	ISDE	3.5 Hours

POWER AND PRIVILEGE

A. Definition of Power

Merriam-Webster (2013) defines power as “the ability or official capacity to exercise control over others; a person, group, or nation having great influence or control over others.”

B. Identify the Types of Power

1. Types of power (Cartwright & Zander, 1968)

a. Political power

In the official capacity, political power is held by the political leader of a state, such as a president, prime minister, or monarch. Political powers are not limited to heads of states, however, the extent to which a person or group holds such power is related to the amount of societal influence they can wield, formally or informally.

b. Physical Power:

The energy or motive force by which a physical system or machine is operated (e.g. turbines turned by steam power; a sailing ship driven by wind power; the human body digesting food and water).

c. Social power:

The potential influence of one person over another.

2. Bases of Social Power (Hershey & Blanchard, 2012)

a. Legitimate power

Based on a person in a higher position having control over people in a lower position in an organization.

b. Coercive power

Based on a person that leads by threat, real or imagined force. Fear of being hurt, poorly treated, or dismissed allows the wielders of this power to rule over the fearful. It is unlikely to win respect and loyalty of employees for long.

c. Reward power

Based on the person that motivates others by offering raises, recognition, promotions, awards, money, or goods to follow.

d. Expert power

Based on the person who sets the perception that one possesses superior skills, talent or knowledge.

e. Referent power

Based on the person who has the ability to convey a sense of personal acceptance or approval. It is held by people with charisma, integrity, and other positive qualities. It is the most valuable type of power.

f. Information power

Based on a person who possesses needed or necessary information for the successful functioning of the organization or mission. This is a short-term power that doesn't necessarily influence or build credibility.

g. Connection power

Based on a person who attains influence by gaining favor or simply acquaintance with a powerful person. This power is more commonly referred to as "networking" these days.

3. Categories of Power (French and Raven)

a. Formal (*Positional*) Power:

- 1) Formal power is conferred on a person; it is not necessarily earned. In other words, formal power is a function of position not necessarily ability.
- 2) It is a function of position, rank, or status.
- 3) Authority is given to a person who holds a certain position in the organization and is supported by the organization.
- 4) It may include the ability to reward and punish.

b. Informal (*Personal*) Power:

- 1) Informal power comes from forms of leverage; these types of power must be earned and maintained. Unlike formal power bases, they cannot be conferred.
- 2) It is mostly a function of ability, personality, or association.
- 3) It may be based on knowledge and skills.

- 4) Power based on expertise can only be exercised if others recognize the ability and have a use for it.
- 5) May be based on trust developed through friendship or personality characteristics.
- 6) Trust as a power base builds on common goals, fosters good relationships, and can overcome authority relationship viewed as negative.
- 7) May be based on association with a group or another person perceived to have power.

C. Identify the Misuse (Abuse) of Power

1. Definition:

“Abuse of Power- Improper use of authority by someone who has a position of power in an abusive way” (West’s Encyclopedia of American Law, 2nd ed.)

Abuse of power can take many forms, such as:

- a. Taking advantage of someone,
- b. Gaining access to information that shouldn’t be accessible to the public, or
- c. Manipulating someone with the ability to punish them if they don’t comply (Cuming, 1981).

2. Types of Abuse (Supervisory/Position)

In recent times, reports of power and its use have come to the forefront when analyzing unit readiness in the U.S. Armed Forces (Inspector General’s Office). Supervisors, those who retain “formal power” (positional power), can abuse their power in many ways.

- a. Speech: Supervisors can abuse their power through their speech, including making criticisms about employees’ physical appearance, work skills, and intellect.
- b. Tone: The tone of a supervisor’s voice for example. A supervisor raising her voice at an employee or using foul language can constitute emotional abuse.
- c. Ignoring/threatening: Ignoring and threatening employees with paycheck reductions or loss of a promotion are abusive.
- d. Physical: Touching, hitting, and slapping are all indications of the misuse of power.

3. Abuse of Power and its Effects

As an EOA, you may see the effects associated with the abuse of power within an organization. Using the climate assessment survey, otherwise known as the DEOCS, you might see issues and concerns that need to be addressed.

EOAs need to address these issues with their commands to minimize negative effects, such as stress, low self-esteem, and distress.

- a. The U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey conducted by the *Workplace Bullying and Trauma Institute* in September 2007 found that employees who suffered from abuse experienced a significant amount of stress at work and the stress lasted longer than a year, which impacted employee health.
- b. Moreover, employees reported feeling mentally distressed, which affected their focus at work.
- c. Other studies by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES), associated with the U.S. Department of Education (Counseling Outfitters) showed that employees dealing with workplace abuse suffer from lack of self-esteem and decreased productivity.

4. The Consequences of Abuse of Power

Supervisors who abuse their authority at work can face serious consequences.

- a. Lawsuits and fines
- b. UCMJ action
- c. Other non-judicial punishment

5. Resources

- a. Chain of Command
- b. Inspector General (IG)
- c. Labor relations agencies
- d. State and federal agencies that handle abuse and harassment in the workplace.

Note: If the abuse becomes physical, employees should contact law enforcement or other legal authorities.

D. Definition of Privilege

1. Privilege Defined

- a. A special advantage, immunity, permission, right, or benefit granted to or enjoyed by an individual, class, or caste. (Merriam-Webster Online, 2013)
- b. An advantage, immunity, or right held as a prerogative of status or rank, and exercised to the exclusion or detriment of others.

2. Privilege can be Earned or Unearned

- a. “Earned Privilege” is acquired as a result of effort or action.
- b. “Unearned Privilege” is an advantage based on social group membership (in-group) that simultaneously disadvantages members outside that social group (out-group).

Furthermore, members of advantaged social groups typically are unaware of their privileges, whereas members of disadvantaged social groups typically are sensitized to the disadvantages of not having the privilege (McIntosh, 1988; Wildman, et.al. 1996).

E. Types of Privilege

Privilege can also be linked to various forms of identity such as:

- Race/Ethnic privilege
- Socioeconomic privilege
- Sexual orientation privilege
- Sex (Biological) privilege
- Religious privilege (University of Vermont; Media Smarts, 2014)

1. Race/Ethnicity

Privileges associated with an individual’s race/ethnicity is considered unearned. Historically, racial privilege was based upon the dominant culture. However, all races and ethnicities have some form of privilege; though, some have more than others (Parillo, 2007)

2. Socioeconomic Privilege

- a. Socioeconomic privilege includes individual attitudes, behaviors, and systems of policies and practices that are set up to benefit the upper classes at the expense of the lower classes.

- b. Socioeconomic privilege, also known as classism or elitism, is grounded in a hierarchy belief system that ranks people according to socioeconomic status, family lineage, and other class related divisions. (Parillo, 2007)

3. Sexual Orientation Privilege

- a. Sexual orientation privilege is associated with the marginalization of non-heterosexual lifestyles and the view that heterosexuality is the normal sexual orientation. Instances of this include the idea that people fall into two distinct and complementary categories (male and female), that sexual and marital relations are normal only when between people of different sexes, and that each sex has certain natural roles in life.
- b. Department of Defense Directive 1020.02, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the Department of Defense* (2009) establishes policy, assigns responsibilities, and provides an overarching framework for DoD diversity, military EO, and civilian equal employment opportunity (EEO) programs and plans to prevent unlawful discrimination.
- c. In July 2014, President Obama signed an Executive Order banning Federal contractors from discriminating against employees on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity (CNN Politics, 2014).
- d. All Service members, regardless of sexual orientation, are entitled to an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. Harassment or abuse based on sexual orientation is unacceptable and will be dealt with through command or IG channels.
- e. However, perceived privileges associated with sexual orientation are evident in today's society.
- f. Historically, a heterosexual orientation came with certain privileges, such as:
 - 1) Public recognition and support for an intimate relationship
 - 2) Kissing, hugging, and being affectionate in public without threat or punishment
- g. As an EOA, it is important to note that sexual orientation **will not** be considered with race, color, religion, sex, and national origin as a class under the Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) program and will not be handled through the MEO complaint process.
- h. Executive Order 11478, section 1 prohibits discrimination in employment based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, handicap, or age, and to promote the full realization of equal employment opportunity through a continuing affirmative program in each executive department and agency. This policy of equal opportunity applies to and must be an integral part of every aspect of personnel policy and practice in the employment,

development, advancement, and treatment of civilian employees of the Federal Government.

4. Sex (Biological)

- a. Sex privilege is a term used to describe the perceived freedoms granted to a person (normally heterosexual) based upon their biological sex (e.g. public displays of affection, etc.).
- b. Transsexual, transgender, and sometimes homosexual populations, are denied the freedom enjoyed by heterosexual couples.

5. Religion

- a. Religious privilege is seen in a society that provides its dominant religion special status. The favoring of religious beliefs and religious figures is predominating within a society.
- b. Many societies privilege religions by providing official sanction and support for their holy days. Religious holy days have become official state holidays.

The U.S. Constitution proscribes Congress from enacting any law prohibiting the free exercise of religion.

c. Religious Accommodation in the DoD

As described in DoDI 1300.17, *Accommodation of Religious Practices Within the Military Services*, the DoD places a high value on the rights of members of the military services to observe the tenets of their respective religions. It is DoD policy that requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on mission accomplishment, military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.

Note: Federal government employees can file claims of discrimination under the Part 1614 EEO process on any of the bases covered under the laws EEOC enforces, and/or may also utilize additional complaint procedures described in EEO law.

F. Recall Social Dominance Theory (Dominate Group Privilege)

In your role as an EOA, specifically when assessing the organizational climate or even processing a complaint, you should be aware of some potential privileges associated with dominant groups. These privileges cause concern when they influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The theory behind social dominance in our society will help shed light on some issues and concerns seen by an EOA.

1. Social Dominance Theory

- a. According to social dominance theory, societies are organized into group-based hierarchies with inequitable distributions of limited resources favoring dominant groups at the expense of subordinates (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- b. Social dominance theory proposes that societies contain ideologies that either promote or attenuate intergroup hierarchies (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).
- c. The acceptance of ideologies that legitimize inequality and its associated behavior is partly determined by people's general desire for group-based dominance, which is captured by a construct associated with dominant group privilege. This allows the dominant group to maintain control and their privileges.

2. Privilege and Discrimination

- a. Within social dominance theory, individual and structural distinctions are made among groups based on gender and—arbitrary-set distinctions such as race, ethnicity, class, nationality, or religion (Sidanius et al., 2004, p. 861).
- b. Dominant groups derive psychological and material rewards from the privileges, esteem, and power they receive in the traditional status of hierarchy (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- c. Social dominance theory indicates that constant group-based oppression can influence systematic institutional and individual discrimination (Levin, 2004).
- d. Many social institutions, such as organizations, and powerful individuals disproportionately allocate (control) desired goods, such as selection for employment, power, and prestige, to members of dominant and privileged groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).
- e. Institutional discrimination can be accounted for in terms of consensual discrimination based upon specific societal norms embodied in the institution, which prescribe the nature and extent of this discrimination (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).

3. Dominant Group Demographics

The dominant group is the group with more power and privilege over minority groups. According to the 2012 statistics from the U.S. Census Bureau, the dominant groups within the United States are:

- Race: White alone, not Hispanic or Latino = 63%
 - Gender: Females = 50.8%
- a. From a statistical perspective, White females are narrowly identified as the dominant group. However, when identifying the dominant group (the group with the power and

perceived privilege) within a society, we sometimes have to look beyond the statistics and focus on who has the power and privilege.

- b. Understanding this concept can help an EOA understand the social dynamic of an organization during climate assessments and any possible discriminatory practices or behaviors associated with privilege.

G. Recognize and Address the Negative Effects of Power and Privilege

The following strategies will help the EOA recognize and address, as required, the negative effects of power and privilege.

1. Be aware of your surroundings. See if you can identify inequality, based upon power and privilege, while at work, watching television, listening to the news, or playing video games.

In day-to-day operations, keep in mind that privilege exists and it is real. However, it may not be overt.

2. Point out instances in which members of groups other than your own are being hampered by their exclusion from privilege.
3. Consider making a statement, write a letter, post a blog, or generate discussions/dialogue on instances of privilege that create inequality.
4. Acknowledge your privilege when it is pointed out to you and take that opportunity to learn something new about privilege.
5. Privilege will never go away until the systems in our society that cause discrimination go away.

In your own daily life, work to make those inequitable systems visible and call them into question when you can so that someday we all enjoy the benefits of being on equal footing with each other.

6. Address privilege philosophies that can influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The following can be associated behavior of an individual or group of people who may have a privileged identity as described by Sherry K. Watt (2001) in her paper "Difficult Dialogues, Privilege and Social Justice: Uses of the Privileged Identity Exploration (PIE) Model," in *The College Student Affairs Journal*:

- a. Denial
Persons displaying denial may acknowledge the injustice, but make contradictory statements that indicate that they are having difficulty accepting it as a reality.

b. Minimization

To represent as having at a least degree of importance or value.

Today some dominant group members might talk about race and gender issues and minimize racism and sexism by saying, “Personal achievement mostly depends on personal ability. Racism or sexism isn’t prevalent anymore.”

c. Deflection

A person employing a Deflection defense may make a comment that avoids coming to terms with the realities of racism or heterosexism by deflecting the focus toward a less threatening target such as another individual or institution.

d. Rationalization

This defense can be identified by behavior in which an individual supplies a logical response regarding why atrocities happen in the realm of racism, sexism, heterosexism, and ableism.

An individual might present an alternative reason that does not require him or her to explore the roots of injustice in more depth.

e. Intellectualization

An Intellectualization defense can be identified when a person avoids feeling dissonant by focusing on the intellectual aspects associated with the topics of social injustice.

Goodman’s example of intellectualization can lead us to understand that intellectualization can be used to not only project power, but to also guard against the loss of it.

f. Principium

This defense can be identified by behaviors where one is avoiding exploration based on a religious or personal principle.

A person using this philosophy might state, “I find it upsetting and disheartening that homosexuals, or anyone for that matter, would have to bear such injustices. However, I do not believe that it is an injustice or discriminatory act to not allow homosexuals couples to cross the threshold of qualifications to be married.”

g. Benevolence

A Benevolence defense is when one presents behavior that displays an overly sensitive attitude toward a social and political issue based on a charity act.

7. Become Personally Aware of Privilege
 - a. To decode your social identity, examine your memberships in empowered groups:
 - 1) Consider the associated privileges.
 - 2) Think about how you define what is normal.
 - 3) Realize that accepting your privileges can make you uncomfortable.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations you use to justify privilege, and identify the logical flaws or personal dissonance.
 - b. Examine your memberships in marginalized groups:
 - 1) Consider the associated disadvantages of group membership.
 - 2) Think about the aspects of your social identity that makes you different than normal.
 - 3) Become aware of and understand the coping strategies you use to maintain self-esteem in relation to your membership.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations that others use to justify your disadvantages, and identify the logical flaws.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define power.
- B. Identify the types of power.
- C. Identify the misuse (abuse) abuse of power.
- D. Define privilege.
- E. Recall the types of privilege.
- F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).
- G. Recall the strategies to recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 3050

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Recognizing personal prejudice and acts of discrimination is an important responsibility of an EOA. This lesson emphasizes how prejudice and discrimination impact society and the military. It is imperative to identify acts of illegal discrimination and take immediate action to resolve them. As an EOA, you must recognize how the manifestation of personal prejudice and the acts of discrimination can adversely impact leadership, unit cohesion, and mission accomplishment. This course includes one lesson of instruction.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 3050 Prejudice and Discrimination
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, comprehend how prejudice and discrimination can impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define prejudice.	K	CRT
B. Describe the levels of prejudice.	K	CRT
C. Define discrimination.	K	CRT
D. Describe the types of discrimination.	K	CRT
E. Describe institutional discrimination.	K	CRT
F. Describe the six basis of discrimination.	K	CRT
G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.	K	CRT
H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION

A. Definition of Prejudice

Preferred definition: Prejudice as an unreasonable negative attitude toward others because of their membership in a particular group. The quality that makes an attitude unreasonable is that it does not readily get modified when exposed to new and conflicting information (Fishbein, 2002, p. 5).

B. Levels of Prejudice

1. Cognitive prejudice

Refers to a stereotype. Whether favorable or unfavorable, a stereotype is an overgeneralization or exaggeration that ignores individual differences within a group.

2. Emotional prejudice

Refers to emotions and feelings of hostility or liking. Might be found in attitudes toward members of particular classes such as race, ethnicity, national origin, or creed.

3. An action-oriented level of prejudice

The positive or negative predisposition to engage in discriminatory behavior.

C. Define Discrimination

Discrimination is unfairly treating a person or group of people differently from other people or groups of people (Merriam-Webster Online, 2014).

The six basis of discrimination in accordance with DoDD 1020.02E, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the DoD* are: race, color, national origin, sex, religion, and sexual orientation. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended includes age and disability.

D. Types of Discrimination

1. Type A: Isolate Discrimination

Occurs when an individual purposely acts to harm members of another group.

2. Type B – Small-Group Discrimination

Harmful action taken intentionally by a small number of dominant-group individuals acting

in concert against members of another group, without the direct support of the norms and of most social or community context.

3. Type C – Direct Institutionalized Discrimination

Defined as organizationally prescribed or community-prescribed action that by intention has a differential and negative impact on members of another group. These actions are not sporadic, but are carried out routinely by a large number of members of another group guided by the legal or informal norms of the immediate organizational or community context.

4. Type D – Indirect Institutionalized Discrimination

Consists of dominant-group practices having a harmful impact on members of another group even though the organizationally or community-prescribed norms or regulations guiding those actions have been established with no intent to harm.

E. Institutional Discrimination

1. Carried out by the dominant group against non-dominant groups because it is the dominant group that generally controls the social institutions. Impact of institutional discrimination can be seen in society and the military (Plous, 2009).

2. Impact on Society – Employment

- a. Hiring practices such as last hired, first fired; higher likelihood that members will be fired during job layoffs because they were the most recently hired.
- b. Education requirements – Individuals who have been segregated to lesser funded schools cannot find employment in businesses that hire according to specified credentials that inferior schools do not offer.

3. Impact on Society – Housing

- a. Steering – A practice that may be used to place minorities in predominately minority neighborhoods.
- b. Red lining – Specifically used by insurance companies to discriminate against individuals living within specific areas (Housing and Urban Development).
- c. Zoning – Practice of marking areas of land and establishing specific restrictions affecting racial demographics.

4. Impact on Society – Education

- a. Testing – Tests used to measure the academic standing of students that may have inherent

cultural bias.

- b. Textbooks – School boards select textbooks. Many textbooks presently in use provide little or no information on minority groups, their minority histories, and contributions that minorities have made to American culture.
- c. Teacher Testing/Hiring – Historically minorities have lower scores than the majority on teacher qualifying tests, and thus, do not qualify for teaching positions.

5. Impact on the Military: Individual

- a. Individual Recruitment – Based on gender, test scores, education level, moral waivers, and regional recruitment.
- b. Retention – Some career fields are closed to women.

6. Impact on the Military: Unit

- a. Unit Readiness – In the Navy during the Civil War, African Americans were restricted to positions of servants, cooks, assistant gunners, or powder boys. During WWI, Filipinos (who were denied U.S. citizenship) served in the Navy as cooks, waiters, pantry-men, dishwashers, custodians, bed-makers, and valets.
- b. Mission Effectiveness – Statistics show Whites are the majority in senior leadership positions (i.e., flag officers, general officers, and Senior Executive Service) and lend itself to the perpetuation of racism. What appears as discriminatory is that the percentages of non-Whites and females in military high ranking positions are significantly lower than the general population.

F. Categories of Prejudice and Discrimination

The following category descriptions were taken from the U.S. Equal Opportunity Employment Commission:

1. Race discrimination

This involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because he/she is of a certain race or because of personal characteristics associated with race such as hair texture, skin color, or certain facial features.

2. Color discrimination involves treating someone unfavorably because of skin color complexion.

- a. Race/color discrimination also can involve treating someone unfavorably because the person is married to (or associated with) a person of a certain race or color or because of

- a person's connection with a race-based organization or group, or an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain color.
- b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same race or color.
3. Sex discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of that person's sex. Can involve treating someone less favorably because of his/her connection with an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain sex.
 4. Religious discrimination involves treating a person (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of his/ her religious beliefs.
 - a. The law protects not only people who belong to traditional, organized religions, such as Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, and Judaism, but also others who have sincerely held religious, ethical, or moral beliefs.
 - b. Religious discrimination also involves treating someone differently because that person is married to (or associated with) an individual of a particular religion or because of his/her connection with a religious organization or group.
 5. National origin discrimination involves treating people (applicants or employees) unfavorably because they are from a particular country or part of the world, because of ethnicity or accent, or because they appear to be of a certain ethnic background.
 - a. National origin discrimination also involves treating people unfavorably because they are married to (or associated with) a person of a certain national origin or because of their connection with an ethnic organization or group.
 - b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same national origin.
 6. Disability discrimination occurs when an employer or other entity covered by the Americans with Disabilities Act, as amended, or the Rehabilitation Act, as amended, treats a qualified individual with a disability who is an employee or applicant unfavorably because they have a disability.
 - a. Disability discrimination also occurs when a covered employer or other entity treats an applicant or employee less favorably because they have a history of a disability (such as cancer that is controlled or in remission) or because they believed to have a physical or mental impairment that is not transitory (lasting or expected to last six months or less) and minor (even if his/she does not have such an impairment).
 - b. The law requires an employer to provide reasonable accommodation to an employee or job applicant with a disability, unless doing so would cause significant difficulty or

- expense for the employer (i.e., undue hardship).
- c. The law also protects people from discrimination based on their relationship with a person with a disability (even if they do not themselves have a disability). For example, it is illegal to discriminate against an employee because his/her spouse has a disability.
7. Age discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) less favorably because of his/her age.
- a. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) only forbids age discrimination against people who are age 40 or older. It does not protect workers under the age of 40, although some states do have laws that protect younger workers from age discrimination.
 - b. It is not illegal for an employer or other covered entity to favor an older worker over a younger one, even if both workers are age 40 or older.
 - c. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are both over 40.
8. Sexual orientation refers to a person's emotional, romantic, and sexual attraction to individuals of a particular gender (male or female). Sometimes referred to as sexual preference, though this term adds the concept of sexuality as fluid and incorporates the element of choice. Sexual identity is often interpreted as describing an individual's perception of their own sex, rather than sexual orientation. (American Psychological Association)
- a. People are classified as heterosexual if their sexual focus is primarily people of the opposite sex/gender, homosexual if it is people of the same sex/gender, and bisexual if it is both men and women. Terms straight, gay, and lesbian are less formal terms; used by people to describe themselves and their friends and family. Sexual orientation discrimination occurs in the workplace because of prejudices among employees, preconceived notions, or misunderstandings of legally binding protections. Employees expect to be treated according to their role and performance at work, not their sexual orientation.
 - b. Federal laws protect employees from discrimination and/or harassment on the basis of many factors. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawed discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 provide protections for people based on age or disabilities.
 - c. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) Federal employees are protected by Executive Order 11478, as amended by Executive Order 13087, signed by President Clinton in 1998, to protect against discrimination over sexual preference in hiring, firing and promoting federal employees.

9. Specific manifestations of prejudice and discrimination can be found in the following basis of discrimination in accordance with DoDD 1020.02E, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the DoD* and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act as amended:
- a. Race
 - b. Color
 - c. Religion
 - d. Sex
 - e. National origin
 - f. Age
 - g. Disability
 - h. Sexual Orientation

10. The DoD Human Goals Charter (2014) states

...We strive

To make military service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion or national origin. To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

Executive order 13087 has made it illegal to discriminate against Federal civilians because of sexual orientation.

11. The DoD Human Goals Charter further states

...We strive

To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, or genetic information, without reprisal and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

G. How Prejudice and Discrimination Can Manifest

1. In-group versus Out-group
 - a. In-group (most like me) = In-group bias

- b. Out-group (least like me) = Out-group homogeneity

2. Social Learning and Conformity

- a. Laws, regulations, and norms of segregation or unequal access, which maintain the power of dominant groups over subordinate ones
- b. Mass media – Media's portrayal of racial and ethnic groups may be a person's principal source of information. If the media communicates primarily in stereotypes and the viewer has little opportunity for personal contact with members of that minority, the probability of the stereotype becoming the reality to the viewer is high.
- c. Educational system – Schools share responsibility for socializing groups of young people in particular skills and values in our society.
- d. Structure and functioning of work organizations.
- e. Actively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Verbally or physically harassing target group members
 - 2) Telling oppressive or offensive jokes
 - 3) Perpetuating stereotypes
 - 4) Avoiding out group
 - 5) Considering prejudice and discrimination to be a thing of the past
- f. Inactively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Condoning or accepting the status quo
 - 2) Ignoring acts of discrimination
 - 3) Integrated Threat Theory – perceived group threat or perceptions of threatened group interests occur when in-group members see an out-group as posing negative consequences to the interests of their in-group.
 - a) Realistic Threats – threats to political, economic, physical or material well-being of in-group
 - b) Symbolic Threats – perceived threats to in-groups morals, values, standards, beliefs and attitudes

- c) Intergroup Anxiety – fear about negative outcomes for self, such as being embarrassed, rejected or ridiculed
- d) Stereotypes – when expectations are negative, conflict or unpleasant interactions are likely to be anticipated

H. Describe How Power Affects Prejudice and Discrimination

Power is at the core of discrimination. Without power, discrimination is ineffective. With power, discrimination maintains the dominance of one group over the other (Plous, 2009).

In most circumstances of discrimination, both power and prejudice lie beneath. Although prejudice and discrimination are related concepts, one does not automatically mean that the other is present.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define prejudice.
- B. Describe the levels of prejudice.
- C. Define discrimination.
- D. Describe types of discrimination.
- E. Describe institutional discrimination.
- F. Describe the six basis of discrimination.
- G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.
- H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.

END OF LESSON

DEOM
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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 3100

RACISM



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to ensure that each student can form the necessary framework to understand sources, causes, forms, and contemporary manifestations of racism, racial discrimination, and related intolerance issues. Emphasis is placed on the different definitions of race and the significance of the social definition of race. The instructor will combine an overview of the lesson plan 3100 Racism lecture's key points with small group activities designed to reinforce these key points and strengthen the learner's comprehension of how this knowledge impacts the duties of an EOA.

Recommended Reading

1. *Historical Overview of Racism in the Military*
2. *American Anthropological Association Statement on "Race"*

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 3100 Racism
1. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, comprehend how racism can impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define race.	K	CRT
B. Define racism.	K	CRT
C. Describe types of racism.	C	CRT
D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.	K	CRT
F. Recognize racist behavior.	K	CRT
G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.	C	CRT
H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.	K	CRT
I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
The House We Live In	To increase student knowledge and awareness of racism and its impact on individuals.	ISDE

RACISM**A. Define Race**

1. “A division of human beings identified by the possession of traits that are transmissible by descent and that are sufficient to characterize persons possessing these traits as a distinctive human genotype” (DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, p. 19).
2. A group of people who are generally considered to be physically distinct in some way (e.g., skin color, hair texture, or facial features such as size and shape of the head, eyes, ears, lips, nose, color of eyes) from other groups and are generally considered by themselves and/or others to be a distinct group (Farley, 1995).
3. In October 1997, the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) announced the revised standards for federal data on race and ethnicity. The categories for race are now:
 - a. American Indian or Alaska Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - e. White
 - f. **Note:** Ethnicity: Hispanic or Latino; Not Hispanic or Latino

B. Define Racism

“Any attitude, belief, behavior, or institutional arrangement that favors one race or ethnic group (usually a majority group) over another (usually a minority group; Farley, 1995)”

“Any action or attitude, conscious or unconscious, which subordinates an individual or group based on skin color or race (treats as if of less value or importance; Ford, 1994, p. 11)”

Common elements of racism:

1. Prejudice and discrimination based on differences
2. A belief in the superiority of one over another

C. Types of Racism

Types

1. Individual Racism: Belief that one's own race is superior to another (racial prejudice) and exhibits behaviors that suppress the inferior race (racial discrimination).
 - a. Examples of *racist attitudes* include bigotry, belittling, and jealousy.
 - b. Examples of *racist beliefs* include racial stereotyping, classifying people according to race, and thinking that some races are better than others.
 - c. Examples of *racist behavior* include violence, name-calling, and discrimination in hiring practices.
2. Institutional Racism: Takes the form of the practices, customs, rules, and standards of organizations, including governments that unnecessarily disadvantage people because of their race, color, or ethnicity.
 - a. Consists of established laws, customs, and practices that systematically reflect and produce racial inequalities in U.S. society.
 - b. Is embedded in policies that have generally become accepted as normal, and might have or might have not have been intentionally written to practice racism.
 - c. More subtle, less visible, and less identifiable than individual acts of racism. Managers may not be racists as individuals, but they may discriminate as part of carrying out their jobs, without being aware their role is contributing to a discriminatory outcome.

D. Difference between Intentional and Unintentional Racism

Forms of Racism (Kinder & Sears, 1981)

1. Intentional or unintentional racism is due to social relationships between people which are structured by perceived biological and/or cultural differences.
2. Intentional racism is a conscious act, usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
3. Unintentional racism is an unconscious act not usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm. It is still damaging. Prejudice underlies the end result.
4. Examples include:

- a. A White waiter who serves a Hispanic patron last even though the Hispanic person put an order in first. This could be *intentional or unintentional racism* depending on whether or not the waiter was aware of what she/he was doing.
- b. A police officer who handles an African American suspect much more roughly or the bombing of a Black church describe *intentional or conscious racism* because they are motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
- c. A teacher's conveyance of beliefs/prejudices can be *unintentional or unconscious*. A lack of understanding of the student's background leads the teacher to misjudge the student through his or her own cultural lens. As a result, the student does poorly in the class.

E. Difference between Overt and Covert Racism

1. Overt racism – Blatant, obvious, and almost always meant to harm; can lead to mental and physical injury, violent destruction, or even death (Scarville, 1997).
2. Covert racism – Hidden, usually subtle, difficult to document treatment which proves harmful to members of subordinate racial groups (Scarville, 1997). Originates within established and respected forces in society, therefore, receives far less public condemnation.
 - a. Often oblivious to the victim, but not as overt as traditional forms of racism
 - b. Can be individual or institutional
 - c. More widespread in the United States today than overt racism, but is still very damaging
 - d. Includes sabotage, tokenism, and is almost always intentional

F. Racist Behavior

1. Definition of Racist
 - a. A person who believes that a particular race is superior to another (Oxford Dictionary, 2010).
 - b. Someone who does not like or respect people who belong to races that are different from their own and who believes their race is better than others (MacMillan Dictionary, 2010).
2. Racist Behavior (Gaertner & Dovidio, 1986)

- a. All racist behavior falls into the sociological phenomena of groups and power dynamics. It is a tool for domination and social control, a psychological tool for dominating one group over another.
- b. Racist behavior can be:
 - 1) Directed toward an individual or group.
 - 2) Intentional (conscious).
 - 3) Unintentional (unconscious).
 - 4) Based on skin color, ethnicity, or race.
 - 5) Perpetrated by an individual and/or an institution.
- c. Examples of racism include graffiti, racial and ethnic slurs, jokes, intimidation, and physical violence.

3. Contemporary Models

Racist Behavior				
Models of Racism				
	TRADITIONAL	SYMBOLIC (circa 1965)	MODERN (circa 1978)	AVERSIVE (circa 1986 – Today)
Ideology	Biological Superiority	Individual Effort is Key To Success	People Get What They Deserve	All People Should Have Equal Political, Social, & Economic Rights
Beliefs about minorities	Innately Inferior	Could Succeed if Worked Harder	Undeserving of Special Efforts to Redress Past Inequities	Victims of Past Injustices
Attitude toward discrimination	Deemed Justifiable & Desirable	Systematic Barriers to Advancement Ignored	A Thing of The Past	Non-Discriminatory Practices Favored
Attitude toward policies that address racial equality	Affront To Superior Status	Threat to The Cultural Ideals That Symbolize American Ethics	Violation of Norms and Fairness	Publicly Supported
Behavioral Consequences	Bigoted Language, Overt Discrimination, Violence	Opposition to Policies Designed to Promote Racial Equality	Opposition to Policies Designed to Promote Racial Equality	Avoidance, Interracial Anxiety, Unintentional Discrimination

- a. Subtle racism appears nonracial on the surface.

Beneath surface are negative attitudes and stereotyped beliefs that affect personal interactions. In organizations, subtle racism has a negative impact on interpersonal relations and breeds institutional racism.

b. Forms of subtle racism – Traditional, symbolic, modern, and aversive

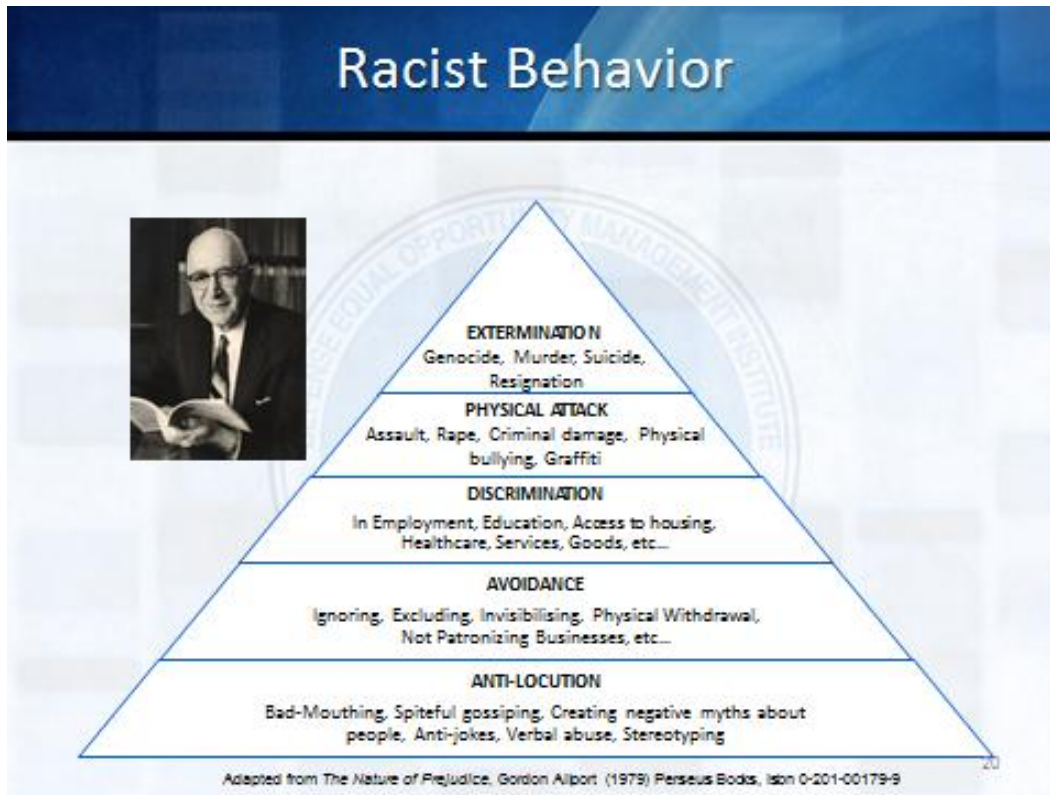
- 1) Traditional: Individual with traditional racist attitudes who acted out bigoted beliefs. Racial attitude measures were comprised of items attempting to assess the presence of prejudice, hostility, and derogatory beliefs.

After about 1965, however, standard racial attitude measures had two problems. First, by the middle 1960s, most White people knew the socially desirable answers so that the then standard items were more likely to trigger politically correct responses than valid attitudes. Second, that generation of items did not correlate well with what should have been racially relevant behavior, for example, reported voting intentions or hiring decisions. Replacement items were then developed. The new items that correlated best with racially relevant behavior were those of an abstract, moral tone, or items that used code words or symbols for blacks. These items were thought to tap a new form of racism called “symbolic racism.” (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414–431)

- 2) Symbolic: These are abstract, moral tone, code words, or symbols for races. New surveys tapped into this new form of racism. Replacement items were developed that correlated best with racially relevant behavior (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414–431).
- 3) Modern: Symbolic racism was renamed as “modern racism” (1978) to emphasize the contemporary nature. The principal tenets of modern racism are:
- a) Discrimination is a thing of the past; blacks now have the freedom to compete in the marketplace and to enjoy those things they can afford.
 - b) Blacks are pushing too hard, too fast, and into places where they are not wanted.
 - c) Tactics and demands of activists are unfair.
 - d) Recent gains are undeserved.
 - e) Prestige granting institutions of society are giving Blacks more attention and status than they deserve.
 - f) Racism is bad.
 - g) Beliefs of modern racism do not qualify as racist because they are alleged to be empirically grounded (McConahay, 1986, pp. 91–126).

- h) Those whose beliefs are described as modern racism do not define their own beliefs and attitudes as racist.
 - 4) Aversive: Around 1986, the concept of “aversive racism” began to emerge. According to this orientation, many White Americans with strong egalitarian values simultaneously have negative feelings and beliefs about Blacks. Attitudes need not be consistent and in this case may be the result of conflict between cognition and socialization. Aversive racists put high value on egalitarian beliefs; contradiction between those feelings and racial attitudes was handled by excluding the racist feelings from awareness. They typically avoid close contact with minorities or communicate their underlying negative attitudes in subtle, rationalizable ways. They are also negatively likely to be demonstrated in discomfort, uneasiness, fear, or avoidance of minorities rather than in outward hostility. It is difficult to document aversive racism through the techniques of behavioral research. (Gaertner, 1986, pp. 61–89)
4. Contemporary Views on Racism
- a. Many U.S. Americans have widely divergent views on whether a problem even exists.
 - b. Most minorities see racism as a problem and many feel it has gotten worse.
 - c. Racism is often invisible to many White Americans in the U.S. for several general reasons:
 - 1) They suffer less from it.
 - 2) They do not attribute their misfortune to race.
 - 3) They do not always see the suffering that minorities endure.
5. Acting Out
- a. Gordon Allport’s (1979) five intensity levels of hostile actions:
 - 1) Antilocution
 - 2) Avoidance
 - 3) Discrimination
 - 4) Physical Attack
 - 5) Extermination

- b. Antilocution – Most people who have prejudices talk about them to like-minded friends and occasionally with strangers (e.g., bad-mouthing, name calling), but many never go beyond this mild degree of hostile action.
- c. Avoidance – As prejudice becomes more intense, it leads to avoiding members in the disliked group—even if inconvenient. The prejudiced person does not directly harm the disliked person or group. They take on the burden of accommodation and withdrawal. Examples of avoidance include maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, or asking for a transfer.
- d. Discrimination – The prejudiced person makes detrimental distinctions by actively excluding all members of the group in question from certain types of employment, residential housing, unequal pay for equal work, giving awards or job assignments based on race, political rights, educational or recreational opportunities, churches, hospitals, or other social privileges.
- e. Physical Attack – The majority group vandalizes, burns, or destroys minority group property and carries out violent attacks on individuals or groups. Emotional prejudice leads to acts of violence or semi-violence. Examples of physical attacks include knockout games, unwanted family of another race may be forcibly ejected from a neighborhood or so severely threatened that they leave in fear; this was seen in Nazi Germany during WWII. Gravestones in cemeteries may be desecrated or other property vandalized.
- f. Extermination – The majority group seeks extermination or removal of minority group. Examples of extermination include the Wounded Knee Massacre in 1890, an event that ended the last of the Native American Indian wars in American history, marks the ultimate degree of violent expression of prejudice; the Final Solution towards the later part of WWII killing millions of Jews by the Nazis in Germany; Ethnic Cleansing in Bosnia; and Saddam’s attempt to exterminate the Kurds in Northern Iraq.



G. Internal and External Factors that Contribute to Racism

1. Internal Factors

- a. Lack of understanding of the history, experiences, values, and perceptions of ethnic groups other than one's own.
- b. Stereotyping members of an ethnic group without consideration of individual differences within that group.
- c. Ethnocentrism is judging other ethnic groups according to the standards and values of one's own group.
- d. Assigning negative attributes to members of other ethnic groups.

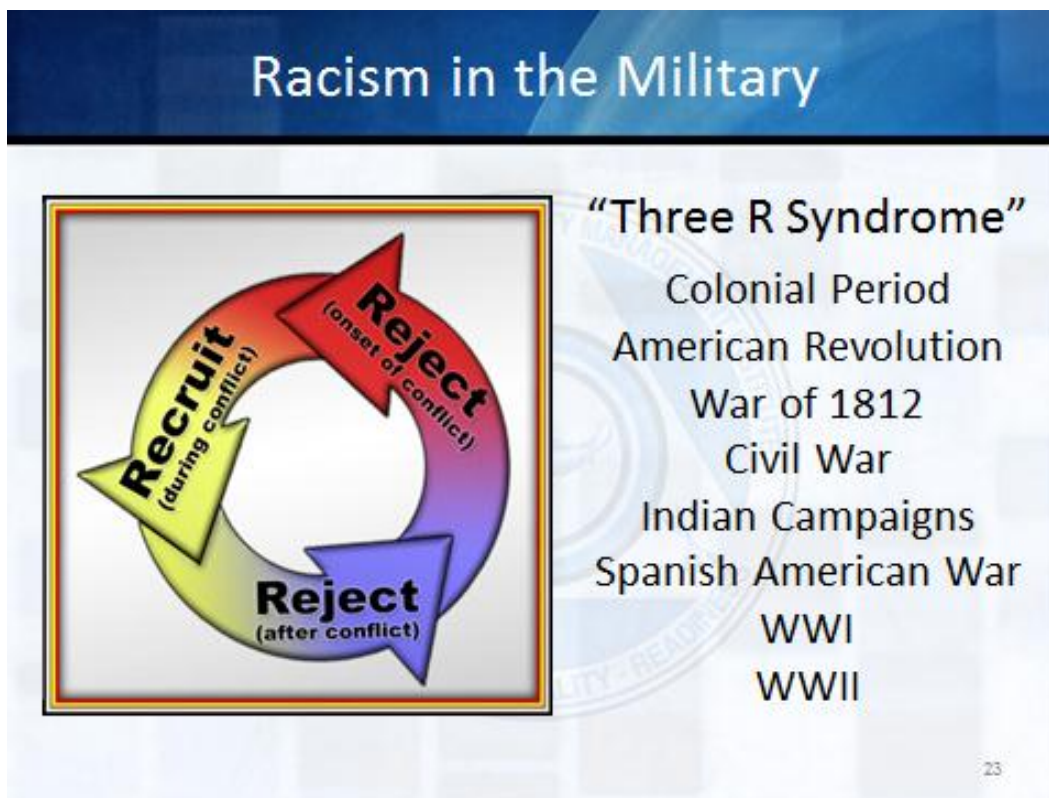
2. External Factors

- a. Family, peers, and friends are very important influences on the development of individual racism.
- b. Social visibility – Differences in physical appearance are easiest differences to identify and use for discrimination.

- c. Contact – The amount and kind of contact develops racial thinking; ideas tend to be vague and partially attributable to ethnocentrism.
- d. Mass media – Television, newspapers, magazines, radio, and the Internet—major sources of stereotypical images.
- e. Unequal power – When groups of unequal power interrelate, the stronger group tends to dominate the weaker group. The dominant group resists sharing its powers.
- f. Competition – This occurs when two or more individuals are striving for the same, and sometimes scarce, resources; certain groups look at other groups as a threat if they obtain control of one or more of the resources.

H. Historical Events that Contributed to Racism in the Military

1. The “Three R Syndrome”



- a. Reject – Minorities were not allowed to enlist in the armed services at the onset of periods of hostilities.
- b. Recruit – When the need for military personnel increased because of manpower demands and insufficient numbers, minorities were recruited, usually during a conflict and after

enormous casualties. After induction, most minorities were segregated, poorly trained, and/or relegated to low levels or hazardous jobs.

- c. Reject – When hostilities were over, the units were disbanded and the racial minorities were released from any requirements to serve, despite any desire to continue service. In some cases, minorities were denied veterans' benefits.

2. Impact of the “Three R Syndrome”

- a. In colonial times, laws excluded minorities from being provided with arms and/or ammunition. Basis of this was fear of slave revolts that would upset the colonists' economic security and way of life and reverse the roles.
- b. Militia Act of 1792 restricted militia enrollment to only free and able white male citizens.
- c. Marine Corps (1798) adopted a policy forbidding the enlistment of Negroes, Mulattos, and American Indians. Policy remained in effect until 1942.

3. Quota systems

The U.S. Navy had a quota of 5% Blacks until it was forced to be lifted during the Civil War because of a massive personnel shortage.

4. Segregation

- a. Hispanic men were placed in either White or colored units based on their skin color.
- b. Navy Steward's Branch included 72% of all African Americans in the Navy during WWII.
- c. Even after the Fair Employment Practices Commission was established in 1941, the Marines continued to operate segregated basic and field trainings.
- d. Japanese Americans serving in WWII were restricted to the European Theatre due to the leadership's allegations of disloyalty and belief they could not be trusted to fight the Japanese in the Pacific Theatre.

5. Hazardous Duties

- a. American Indians fought both for and against the United States during various conflicts, serving as infantrymen, code talkers, sharpshooters, guides, guerrillas, and spies.
- b. Port Chicago Naval Base, California. On July 17, 1944: 202 African American enlisted men were killed and another 233 were injured when two transport vessels loading ammunition suddenly exploded. This accounted for almost 15% of all Black naval casualties during WWII. Protesters were tried and sentenced for mutiny.

- c. In WWI, Filipinos served as dishwashers, custodians, bed makers, and valets.

6. Historical Examples

- a. Minorities could only serve in the lower pay grades.
- b. Some White officers sacrificed higher rank because they refused to command Black men.
- c. An institutional climate of acceptable discrimination allowed individual racism to flourish.

7. Desegregation

President Harry S. Truman ordered the desegregation of the Armed Services in July 1948, with Executive Order 9981. The order declared equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the Armed Services with regard to race, color, religion, or national origin. He also established the Gillem Board to determine the best way to integrate the Services.

I. Strategies to Combat Racism in the Military

1. Combating Racism

- a. Awareness – Groups are aware and are making others aware of the existence of individual and institutional racism in its contemporary and subtle forms. Within the unit, celebrations such as National American Indian Heritage Month and Black History Month help promote awareness of the contributions these groups have made to the military and the United States.
- b. Education – Awareness is facilitated through education. Courses, small group discussions, workshops, guest speakers, and movies provide educational opportunities for the unit. Topics related to racism can be addressed, including how racism dehumanizes people, the tremendous financial costs of racism, and contemporary racism.
- c. Participation – An inclusive model of decision-making that is representative of all people promotes diversity and aids in the reduction of racial stereotyping. Active commitment by leadership to initiatives that encourage members of all groups to take advantage of programs and services on base, such as mentoring programs, special interest clubs, and other organizations will also combat racism.
- d. Legislation – Federal, state, and local programs and laws written to ensure equal opportunity for all U.S. citizens. **DoD Directive 1350.2 defines the policy of nondiscrimination in the military.** It sets the standard for all programs, chain of command, responsibilities, and etc. for equal opportunity. Legislative programs and laws

simultaneously provide benefits for significant parts of the majority and for deprived minorities.

- e. Mass Media – Media programs have had positive effect in reducing prejudice. It is an excellent medium to attack prejudicial attitudes and prevent discrimination. Public service announcements, public relations materials, and advertisements that positively depict the diversity of the military and that encourage everyone from all walks of life to enlist are beneficial.
- f. Change – There have been significant positive changes for most racial groups in this country. However, there is still a long way to go to ensure equal opportunity is afforded to all groups. Through proactive actions EOAs can be change agents or champions of changes.

2. Leadership

- a. Leaders set standards that create an environment for everyone to excel free of hostility, intimidation, and unfair treatment. Climate and behavior of an organization is an indicator about the attitudes and actions demonstrated by leaders.
- b. Leadership actions to effectively reduce and eliminate racist behavior:
 - 1) Establish policies prohibiting racist behaviors and racial discrimination.
 - 2) Provide thorough investigations of informal and formal complaints.
 - 3) Adhere to established timelines for complaint investigations.
 - 4) Enforce penalties against offenders.
 - 5) Enforce penalties against unit commanders or other superiors who allow racist behaviors to continue.
 - 6) Ensure information moves up the chain of command on problems and incidents relating to racist behaviors.
 - 7) Protect those who make complaints by ensuring reprisal is not occurring. Ensure all information is a need to know basis.
 - 8) Publicize the availability of hotlines for complaints.
 - 9) Publicize the availability of complaint channels.
 - 10) Take extra steps beyond mandatory requirements to understand and correct underlying issues or problems.

11) DEOCS

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define race.
- B. Define racism.
- C. Describe types of racism.
- D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.
- E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.
- F. Recognize racist behavior.
- G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.
- H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.
- I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 3200

SEXISM



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Sexism is the discrimination against people based on their sex rather than their individual merits. It can refer to three subtly different beliefs or attitudes namely the belief that one sex is superior to the other; the belief that men and women are very different and that this should be strongly reflected in society, language, as well as the law. Sexism can also refer to simple hatred of men (misandry) or women (misogyny). This lesson will emphasize the importance of objectivity, fairness, openness, and avoidance of a personal agenda in the job of an EOA. It is important for an EOA to have some skepticism and to approach problems with empathy rather than sympathy.

Recommended Reading

History of Women in the Military

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® Slide presentation–EOA 3200 Sexism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide, comprehend how sexism can impact the military, with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify the foundation of sexism.	K	CRT
B. Define sexist behavior.	K	CRT
C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.	K	CRT
D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.	K	CRT
E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.	K	CRT
F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SEXISM**A. The Foundation of Sexism**

1. Definition of Sexism

Sexism is a belief and attitude that one sex is superior to the other, thereby justifying sexual inequalities. Sexism is a prejudice, which may lead to discrimination based on a person's sex.

2. Sexist Attitudes

May stem from traditional stereotypes of gender roles and may include the belief that a person of one sex is intrinsically superior to a person of the other.

- a. A job applicant may face discriminatory hiring practices, or (if hired) receive unequal compensation or treatment compared to that of their opposite-sex peers. Extreme sexism may foster sexual harassment, sexual assault, and other forms of sexual violence (Doob, 2012).
- b. Although both men and women can be target and victims of sex discrimination, a vast literature show that sex discrimination in the Unites States is overwhelmingly a matter of men targeting women (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995 p.39).
- c. It has been 50 years since the United States Commission on Civil Rights has examined civil rights in the military. The Commission has authority to examine questions related to sexual assault in the military because the issues involve both sex discrimination and the denial of equal protection in the administration of justice.
- d. The issue of sex discrimination involves female Service members, who represent 14 percent of the military population, and the likelihood that they are over five times more likely to experience some form of sexual assault, as defined by the DoD, than their male counterparts (Under Secretary of Defense, 2013).

3. Gender Role and Gender Typing

Gender role socialization is the first aspect of the development of sexism. It is established during our socialization process (McDowell, 1986, p. 168)

- a. Socialization – All-encompassing educational process from which values, goals, beliefs, attitudes, and gender roles are acquired. It is an elaborate process by which individuals become distinctive and actively functioning members of the society in which they live. It is the primary method of learning culture.
- b. Gender typing – A socialization process by which children, at an early age, learn appropriate gender roles (Corsini, 1987, pp. 1028).

- 1) Reinforced by family, peers, and the environment
 - 2) Continues throughout an individual's lifetime
 - c. Gender roles – Behaviors, interests, attitudes, skills, and personality traits a culture considers appropriate for males and females (Corsini, 1987, p. 1027).
4. Values and attitudes

Sexism can also be attributed to our values, which enforce our attitudes.

- a. Values – represent something important in our existence; a type of belief, centrally located within our self-concept, about how we ought or ought not to behave.
- b. Attitude – as a state of mind or feeling with regard to some matter: a disposition.
- c. Prejudice – An antipathy based upon faulty and inflexible generalization. It may be felt or expressed. It may be directed toward a group as a whole or toward an individual because he/she is a member of that group.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \textit{Values} \\
 + \\
 \textit{Attitudes} \\
 (\textit{Unreasonable and negative}) \\
 = \\
 \textit{Prejudice}
 \end{array}$$

B. Sexist Behavior

1. Definition of Sexist behavior is defined as verbal and/or nonverbal behaviors that convey insulting, offensive, or condescending attitudes based on the gender of the respondent. (Fitzgerald et al., 1988).
2. Dr. Allport's Levels of Intensity

Consider how these levels can be aligned to sexist behavior when acting out prejudice.

- a. Antilocution – Catcalls, bad mouthing, name calling (e.g., babe, chick, the old lady, beefcake, and stud-muffin).
- b. Avoidance – Joining all male/female clubs, maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, asking for a transfer.

- c. Discrimination – Unequal pay for equal work, establishing all male/female clubs, giving awards or job assignments based on gender.
 - 1) Sex discrimination is defined as treating individuals differently in their employment specifically because of their sex (e.g., unfair or unequal access to professional development resources and opportunities due to a member's gender). It is illegal to create artificial barriers to career advancement because of an individual's sex. *Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members (WGRA)* is conducted by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC).
 - 2) Examples of blatant sex discrimination include sexual harassment, sexist language and jokes, physical violence, and other forms of obviously unequal treatment in the family, employment, politics, religion, law, and other areas (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995, p. 39)
- d. Physical attacks – Rape, spouse abuse, sabotage of another's work, vandalizing property.
- e. Extermination – Killing your spouse, ignoring or pretending they do not exist.

C. Influences that Perpetuate Sexism

1. Mass Media and Stereotyping Allow Sexism to Continue

From a historical perspective, sexism has been perpetuated in many ways.

a. Mass Media

Historically, the mass media portray females as either sexual objects or as people who fight too hard in order to survive in "a man's world."

b. Stereotyping

Stereotypes may or may not originate in a kernel of truth, they aid people in simplifying their categories, they justify hostility, and sometimes they serve as projection screens for our personal conflict. However, there is an addition and exceedingly important reason for their existence. They are socially supported continually revived and hammered in by our media of mass communication—novels, short stories, newspaper items, movies, stage radio, and television. (Allport, 1979, p. 200)

2. Societal Influences that Allow Sexism to Continue

a. Behavior.

Historically, boys were encouraged to compete from early childhood. They learn that competition is ok and that winning is important. Until recently, girls were more likely to

participate in activities which stressed service and cooperation. As a result, studies have shown that women today tend to react differently to competition than men. Sometimes they will withdraw from competitive situations. Given a choice, they are more likely to set up a cooperative system, rather than a competitive one. They also tend to be more concerned with fairness and will try to equalize relationships, even when they are not equal. For example, they may give credit where it isn't due (Strauss, pp. 17–19; Bem, 1993, pp. 19–20).

- b. Ability: It could be said that women and men have different abilities and aptitudes.

Men's and women's bodies are different because of the reproductive design. Differences based on productivity, however, do not generalize to the ability to shoot a gun or wash a baby. Most studies done, do not take into account the effect of lifetime gender role training. (Burke, 1996, pp. 192–193)

- c. Psychology/Personality

Some people perceive that factual biological differences result in psychological or personality differences. For example, women are emotional, dependent, won't make calm, logical decisions, women have mood swings—unreliable for positions of responsibility. In a 1995 Newsweek cover story, *The New Science of the Brain: Why Men & Women Think Differently*, the author, Begley, concluded that the “overlap between men's and women's scores on just about every psychological test is huge. Any randomly chosen woman might do better at a ‘male’ skill than a man and vice versa.” She also stated a Yale study which found that, in one particular experiment, “42 percent of the women's brains “worked like the men's.” Perhaps the most arresting implication of the research is not that there are undeniable differences between males and females, but that their differences are so small relative to the possibilities open to them (Burke, 1996, pp. 189–192).”

- d. Ignoring, speaking for, clarifying, and interrupting

Discounting input by giving the impression that the speaker has nothing important to say is usually unable or unprepared to respond or is incapable of getting the message across.

- e. Pro-Sexism

It is accommodating sexist behavior by reinforcing or encouraging it, rather than questioning, checking, or opposing it. People are pro-sexist for a number of reasons. Some people are socialized to accept it; some go along to be more acceptable—sometimes because it will help them gain power and make more effective changes. Whatever the reason, it is often not an easy choice. Regardless of the intention, a person who is pro-sexist must understand that the message will be that sexist behavior is ok. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 30–32; 36–37; 63–65)

3. Cultural Influences that Allow Sexism to Continue

From childhood on, many males and females in our culture are taught to exhibit certain behaviors.

The preference for biological rather than cultural explanations is suggestive of accounts once offered. To experts around the turn of the century, an “innate sexual disqualification” rather than “social prejudice” was obviously to blame. Similar, if more subtle, cultural binders remain, much of the research and even more of the media coverage concerning “real differences” present contested findings as established facts. Yet the point on which there is greatest consensus is that experts have reached no consensus on these issues. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 28–29)

4. Institutional Roles Influencing the Continuance of Sexism

- a. Job role labels – There is such a strong gender association with some jobs—we use labels that set others apart (women doctor, male nurse, female service member) and expect men to do certain jobs and women to hold certain jobs.
- b. Unnecessary division – Actor: one who acts, why then say actress? Then there is the waiter, but waitress. Men on airplanes/not stewards—all flight attendants
- c. Media – Has continued to turn sexual images of both women and men into entertainment.

D. Historical Events that Contributed to Sexism in the Military

1. Historical Events

Historically, sexism has been perpetuated in the military. To demonstrate the historical behavior, let’s use the Three R Syndrome, first introduced in the racism lesson.

- a. Reject: Army regulations did not allow women to enlist, and so many women masqueraded as men in order to serve their country.
- b. Recruit: Spanish American War 1898—When the United States formally intervened to aid in Cuba’s quest for independence from Spain, only men were recruited for an Army that would fight the Spanish American War. Before the war barely got off the ground, an epidemic of typhoid fever spread through the Army camps. The medical treatment facilities were unsanitary and understaffed for handling the large number of sick and wounded. Because the Army was unable to recruit enough men to provide medical treatment, Congress authorized the Army to appoint women as Army nurses under contract, but without military status. Some 1,500 women were recruited and served for approximately four years.

- c. **Reject:** It was emphasized that the nurses were civilian contract workers and not to be confused with soldiers who cared for the sick. Although medical care was much more organized and effective under direct military control, most Army personnel opposed giving military status to women.
- d. **Recruit:** There is evidence that Army leaders wanted women workers other than nurses, but the Secretary of War would not permit it. General John J. Pershing, Commander of the American Expeditionary Forces in Europe (AEF), however, proceeded without authorization and issued a call for women to serve as military switchboard operators. Approximately 7,000 women applied, but only those who could speak French were considered. The 233 who were accepted for service took an enlistment oath, purchased uniforms, and completed two weeks of training in communications and self-defense before being sent to France. They became known as the “Hello Girls.”
- e. **Reject:** The Hello Girls were praised in the newspapers for their bravery and they were awarded service medals when the war ended. Then, without warning, they were sent civilian service termination letters instead of honorable military discharges because (despite what the women were told when they were recruited) the Army still considered them contract civilians.
- f. **Recruit:** In 1920, the Army Reorganization Act granted military nurses the status of officers with “relative rank” from second lieutenant to major, but they were not given the rights and privileges generally accorded those ranks.
- g. **Reject:** In 1925, the 1916 Naval Reserve Act was changed to read “male citizens” instead of “citizens” as enlistment qualifications. Women could no longer enlist in the Navy and Marines without Congressional approval. The number of women in the Services continued to decline.
- h. **Recruit:** World War II 1941–1945—when the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the Services once again began recruiting women. Recruitment of women was a big undertaking. Posters urged women to join the Services and “free a man to fight.” In 1942, the War Department was still in desperate need of women to fill support roles and free men for combat. Amid much controversy, Congress passed legislation to form the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC).
- i. **Reject:** President Truman signed the Women’s Armed Services Integration Act of 1948. Women finally had permanent military status and opened the door for women to serve in peacetime and provided a means for mobilizing women in the event of war. But, the number of women on active duty could not exceed 2 percent of the force, the number of high-ranking female officers in each service branch was limited, and certain career fields were not open to women, particularly those where there was a potential for combat. That same year, the President signed the Selective Service Act of 1948, authorizing a peacetime draft of men. There was then less incentive for recruiting women to fill the military ranks in peacetime, and their numbers dropped. When the conflict began in Korea, all of the Services stepped up their recruiting efforts, but they were unsuccessful

in getting the numbers they wanted. By 1951, only 1% of the total military force was female, even though a goal was set for the maximum 2%.

- j. Recruit: Finally, on November 8, 1967, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed Public Law 90-130, which removed restrictions on the careers of female officers in the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps. The law eliminated the 2% cap on the number of women serving and the ceiling on the highest grade they could achieve. Later in 1978, the WAAC was disestablished and the women became part of the regular Army.

2. Current Policies

- a. Opportunities for servicewomen have increased dramatically since 1948, when the Women's Armed Services Integration Act of 1948 gave women a permanent place in the military services. Your required reading should have made you aware of this fact up to today's progress. Let's talk about DoD policy leading this issue.
- b. In February 1988, the DoD adopted a Department-wide policy called the "Risk Rule," that set a single standard for evaluating positions and units from which the military service could exclude women. The rule excluded women from noncombat units or missions if the risks of exposure to direct combat, hostile fire, or capture were equal to or greater than the risk in the combat units they supported. Each service used its own mission requirements and the Risk Rule to evaluate whether a noncombat position should be open or closed to women.
- c. The National Defense Authorization Act for fiscal years 1992 and 1993 repealed the prohibition on the assignment of women to combat aircraft in the Air Force, the Navy, and the Marines Corps. The act also established the Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces to study the legal, military, and societal implications of amending the exclusionary laws. The Commission's November 1992 report recommended retaining the direct ground combat exclusion for women.
- d. In January 1994, the Secretary of Defense, in response to advice from the Implementation Committee, rescinded the Risk Rule. In the DoD's view, the rule was no longer appropriate based on experiences during Operation Desert Storm, where everyone in the theater of operation was at risk. The Secretary of Defense also established a new DoD-wide direct ground combat assignment rule that allows all service members to be assigned to all positions for which they qualify, but excludes women from assignments to units below the brigade level whose primary mission is direct ground combat.
- e. The purpose of this change was to expand opportunities for women in the services. Additionally, the Secretary stipulated that no units or positions previously open to women would be closed. At that time, the Secretary issued a definition of direct ground combat to ensure a consistent application of the policy excluding women from direct ground combat units.

E. Factors that Impact the Full Integration of Women in the Military

1. Stereotypes that Impact Full Integration

- a. Psychological – Don't have the killer mentality, can't handle stress, emotional, mood swings, too feminine (i.e., perceived as weak, not taken seriously, given office jobs) or too masculine (i.e., labeled lesbians; Herbert, pp. 68–73)
- b. Physical – For example women are the weaker sex and have no endurance

All services physical fitness tests are based on age and gender. Men willingly accept the differing age standards that affect them, but complain about the lower standards for women (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52).

- c. Pregnancy issues – During contingencies the ability to deploy pregnant women is restricted by policy. Under some conditions, pregnant women can participate in field exercises, but they cannot deploy overseas or out to sea. In the Navy, women are removed from the ship when they are 20 weeks into a pregnancy. The effect of this “unplanned loss” depends on how long it takes to get a replacement. (Harrell, 1997, p. 39)

Service men say that policies for pregnancy adversely affect their units. Some accuse women of intentionally getting pregnant in order to avoid deployments. Men complain they must do more work because of the limitations doctors put on pregnant women and blame individual women personally rather than service policy. (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52)

- d. Leadership issues – For example, no man would follow a woman into battle; and women can't make logical decisions.
- e. Sexual harassment – As reported in the 2012 *Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*, 23% of women and 4% of men indicated experiencing sexual harassment in the last twelve months. The report also states that 47% of women and 15% of men indicated experiencing sexist behavior (DMDC, 2012a, *2012 Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*)
- f. Teasing and offhand comments – Although the law does not prohibit simple isolated incidents that are not very serious, harassment is illegal when it is so frequent or severe that it creates a hostile or offensive work environment or when it results in an adverse employment decision such as the victim being fired or demoted. (EEOC.gov/laws/types/sex.cfm)
- g. First names – When ranks/last names are used for members of one sex versus the other, it implies superiority of one sex over another, establishes a power relationship, shows disrespect towards, or discounts members of one sex. Women are often caught in the grip of a paradox. They are far more often called by their first names and touched by men. (Feldman, 1993, p. 24)

2. Sexism and Ego Defense Mechanisms

Remember when you learned about ego defense mechanisms in the Socialization lesson? Now, let's associate some of those mechanisms into the Sexism lesson.

- a. Denial – “There is no way she outdid me in the push-ups” or “No way, she returned fire with her weapon, before I did!”
- b. Projection – “If she didn't dress so provocatively, she wouldn't get so much attention.”
- c. Rationalization – “Boys will be boys.” “It's expected that the men in my shop unload the truck when supplies are delivered, most items are too heavy for the women to carry.” “I was not promoted because of a quota that promote unqualified candidates specially women”

F. Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

1. EOA Responsibilities/Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexist Behaviors in the Military

- a. Self-Analysis/Self-Awareness – Know self. “How has Sexism influence/affected me?” “What behaviors do I displayed that may be interpreted as sexist?”
- b. Model behavior
 - 1) Role model – Walk the talk. Acknowledge and understand difference, don't group people and assume they all have the same characteristics; this will reduce your stereotyping.
 - 2) Challenge – challenge inappropriate behaviors
 - 3) Advocate for EO – Advocate fair treatment. Deal with standards, qualifications, and a person's ability to meet them, rather than perceptions and beliefs about what is appropriate.

- c. Keep current on EO issues/information
- d. Education and training – train at all levels

2. Leadership Strategies that will Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

- a. Policy and administration – Development and implementation of legislation, laws, and policies that do not discriminate on the basis of gender
- b. Prevention – Periodic climate assessment, education/training awareness

- c. Set the example – Organizational culture from top to bottom
- d. Mission – Fully utilize all personnel. Zero tolerance for negative impact of sexism on mission readiness.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify the foundation of sexism.
- B. Define sexist behavior.
- C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.
- D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.
- E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.
- F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 3050

SEXUAL HARASSMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding sexual harassment and recognizing harassment behaviors is vital for an EOA. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional it is important that you recognize sexual harassment, understand the impact it has on individuals and the organization collectively in a military setting, and apply strategies to prevent sexual harassment in your unit.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® Slide presentation–Sexual Harassment
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and study guide, comprehend how sexual harassment can impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define sexual harassment.	K	CRT
B. Describe types of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.	K	CRT
D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.	C	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

SEXUAL HARASSMENT**A. Definition of Sexual Harassment**

The term sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or

Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or

Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as abusive work environment harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. Workplace is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment. (*Title 10 United States Code (U.S.C.) § 1561, Complaints of Sexual Harassment: Investigation by Commanding Officers*)

1. The term "sexual harassment" is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:
2. Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or
 - a. In the context of this definition, *explicit* is a full precise expression in the form of verbal, nonverbal, or physical behavior(s). In other words, things being said or acted upon or demonstrated in a clear, overt, and open manner that are "clearly out of bounds."
 - b. *Implicit* means implied or inferred behaviors that are not clearly expressed, but are understood. These behaviors can also be verbal, nonverbal, or physical in nature. Implicit behaviors are closely associated with the subtleties of sexual harassment and often take the form of innuendoes. Examples include hints of something improper, indirect remarks, or gestures suggesting impropriety.

- c. Third party sexual harassment means that the victim does not have to be the only person affected by the harassment behavior, but could also be anyone affected by the offensive behavior in the defined “workplace”—“an expansive term for military members that includes conduct on/off duty, 24 hours a day” (DoD Directive 1350.2).
3. Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or
 4. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual’s work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.
 - a. A “hostile environment” occurs when service members or civilians are subjected to offensive, unwanted, unsolicited comments and behaviors of a sexual nature. If the behavior in question has the purpose (intent) or effect (impact) of unreasonably interfering with their work performance, then the environment is classified as “hostile.” A “hostile environment” brings the topic of sex or gender differences into the workplace. It does not necessarily include the more blatant acts of *Quid Pro Quo*. Rather, it normally includes those actions in the “gray areas” or the nonviolent behaviors which are gender based.
 - b. Assessing whether the behavior is appropriate or offensive must be done from the perspective of the recipient, not the alleged harasser. The primary concern is the victim’s perspective and not the intent of the alleged harasser. While the intent (purpose) of the alleged offender is given consideration, the effect (impact) of such behaviors on the subject or recipient may sometimes cause the intent to be irrelevant.
 5. This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. “Workplace” is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day.
 - a. Work environment is defined according to DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, 20. It is the workplace or any other place that is work-connected, as well as the conditions or atmosphere under which people are required to work.
 - b. The Reasonable Person Standard Test has two components:
 - 1) Objective portion

The objective test requires a hypothetical exposure of a “**reasonable person**” to the same set of facts and circumstances—How would a reasonable person under similar circumstances react or be affected by such behavior?

If such “reasonable person” perceives the harassing behaviors as creating an intimidating, hostile or abusive work environment then the objective test has been met.

2) Subjective portion

The subjective test requires that the victim or subject perceives the harassing behaviors as intimidating or hostile or as creating an abusive work environment.

6. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment.

The definition of sexual harassment emphasizes supervisory and command responsibilities. Some examples of supervisory and command responsibilities include:

- a. Examining his/her behaviors.
 - b. Providing an environment free of intimidation, hostility, and psychological stress.
 - c. Controlling social interactions so that they do not interfere with productivity.
 - d. Taking corrective action(s) whenever sexual behavior is displayed.
 - e. Holding everyone responsible and accountable for their actions.
 - f. Establishing and enforcing behavioral standards.
 - g. Taking disciplinary action as appropriate.
 - h. Examining the totality of the circumstances (e.g., nature of advances, and context of occurrence).
7. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment.

B. Types of Sexual Harassment

1. Quid Pro Quo

In a “*Quid Pro Quo*” sexual harassment situation, the person who is the harasser is usually a person who is in a position of power (e.g., supervisor, manager, and instructor). The victim is usually a person who feels s/he must respond to the sexual advance in order to gain something in return. It is important to note that it is not necessary for the victim to respond

or act upon the sexual advance for the sexual harassment offense under “*Quid Pro Quo*” to apply.

2. Hostile Environment

For workplace conduct to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, it need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim perceives, the work environment as hostile or offensive.

C. Behaviors that Constitute Sexual Harassment

1. Verbal

Verbal behavior refers to comments made to, about, and in the presence of a person. For example:

- a. Turning work discussions into sexual topics.
- b. Sexual connotations or innuendoes while referring to someone as honey, baby, hunk, stud, darling, and etc.
- c. Telling lies or spreading rumors about a person’s personal sex life.
- d. Telling jokes or stories and making comments with sexual connotations.
- e. Making sexual comments about a person’s clothing, body, or sexual activities.
- f. Asking questions about a person's sexual life, fantasies, preferences or history
- g. Whistling or making catcalls at someone.
 - 1) Although behaviors are not blatant or overt in nature, if they convey overtones or undertones that are suggestive in nature, it might result in sexual harassment. In terms of service policies and regulations, either suggesting or encouraging a subordinate to wear shorter or tighter clothing could also result in sexual harassment.
 - 2) It is difficult to determine the nature of the behavior that would constitute sexual harassment. Although a behavior may be very much unprofessional, if behavior does not have a sexual connotation, it does not constitute sexual harassment.

2. Nonverbal

According to the definition of sexual harassment, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated *unwelcome...gestures...* of a sexual nature is engaging in sexual harassment (DoDD 1350.2). Some examples are:

- a. Paying unwanted attention to someone by ogling or staring at their body.
- b. Displaying sexually suggestive visuals (e.g., centerfolds, calendars, cartoons).
- c. Items depicting sexual parts of the body (e.g., ashtrays, coffee cups, figurines).
- d. Sexually oriented entertainment in organizations, base facilities, or officially sanctioned functions.
- e. Sexually suggestive gestures with hands or through body movement (e.g., blowing kisses, licking lips, winking, grabbing crotch, lowering pants, raising skirts, etc.).
- f. E-mails, text messages, or any type of electronic communication that is sexual in nature.

3. Physical

Physical behavior refers to unwanted touching of an individual. For example:

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

D. Effects of Sexual Harassment

1. Work Related

The Supreme Court has recognized that harassment in the workplace is a violation of the Civil Rights Act, and although past cases have clarified employer responsibilities for preventing and correcting harassment, many other issues are uncertain.

Determining when social interaction becomes “unwelcomed” sexual harassment, and just how severe or widespread offensive conduct must be to constitute a hostile work

environment is not very clear. In the rest of this section we will examine in more detail individual, organizational, and economic effects of sexual harassment in the workplace.

a. Individual

- 1) Studies have shown that some of the negative job ramifications for victims of sexual harassment include:
 - a) decreased job satisfaction
 - b) decline in job performance
 - c) decreased motivation
 - d) decreased motivation
 - e) decreased morale
 - f) increased absenteeism
 - g) lowered productivity
 - h) impaired relationships between co-workers
- 2) As a result, commanders should not merely be concerned with whether steps have been taken to ensure that an affirmative defense can be raised in the event that a sexual harassment complaint is filed. Rather, they should address whether mechanisms are in place for evaluating the extent that employees perceive conduct of a sexual nature is offensive and the effect those perceptions have on their self-esteem and work performance.

b. Organizational

- 1) Many emotional factors may result when employees return to the workplace after filing a complaint, such as a rise in retaliatory actions. Types of organizational withdrawal include avoiding work duties (work withdrawal), job turnover, retirement, and etc. (job withdrawal). Some of the organizational effects of sexual harassment resemble individual effects and include:
 - a) lower productivity
 - b) damaged reputation
 - c) emotional factors
 - d) organizational withdrawal

- 2) Understanding the impact that sexual harassment can have on your unit will help you to help your commander improve command policy regarding filing and processing sexual harassment complaints and help design prevention programs.
- 3) Improving job attitudes will mediate the influence that sexual harassment has on organizational withdrawal.

c. Economic

- 1) The costs of sexual harassment to the economy are staggering. The EEOC has estimated that the monetary cost of sexual harassment for civilians in fiscal year 2011 was \$52.3 million. The costs to the military include things such as:
 - a) lost duty time
 - b) lost productivity
 - c) decreased unit morale/cohesion
 - d) mission accomplishment
 - e) medical treatment
 - f) reassignment costs
 - g) family impacts
 - h) suicide
- 2) Imagine the economic impact of the time spent on inquiries/investigations including investigators, the alleged harasser, the complainant, witnesses, and others, training stand-downs, unplanned losses such as the harasser and/or the complainant.

2. Effects on the Victim

a. Psychological

- 1) A victim is often not only affected by the sexual harassment itself, but also other related stress such as workplace gossip and a disrupted work history. Sexual harassment victims experience a wide variety of symptoms, including:
 - a) Decreased self-esteem and self-confidence
 - b) Difficulties with trust

- c) Depression
 - d) Anxiety
 - e) Fear of rape
 - f) Increased fear of crime in general
 - g) Seemingly “contradictory” emotional responses to harassment
 - h) The victim may regard sexual harassment as a shameful experience, which may lead to social isolation and/or alienation from co-workers who may have experienced similar harassment.
- 2) Those who experience sexual harassment may also experience intangible emotional costs inflicted by anger, humiliation, frustration, withdrawal, and dysfunction in work and family life.

b. Health-Related

In addition to the psychological abnormalities caused by sexual harassment, researchers have documented a variety of physical health complaints. Common physical health complaints include:

- 1) Headaches, neck, and back pain
- 2) Gastrointestinal disturbances
- 3) Tiredness/fatigue
- 4) Sleep disturbance
- 5) Weight loss and loss of appetite
- 6) Dental-related problems

c. Individual/Victim Coping Strategies

1) Detachment

To cope with sexual harassment, both victims and harassers may discount or invalidate the victim’s claim that sexual harassment has occurred or is occurring. A victim may minimize the situation by treating it like a job or deciding that the incident was really not important.

2) Denial

This is the most common form of discounting that victim's abuse. This means pretending the situation is not happening or trying not to notice that sexual harassing behaviors are taking place. Denial may take the form of trying to forget about the situation or incident in order to put the incident behind him/her.

3) Relabeling

This involves offering excuses for the harasser or interpreting the behavior as flattering. For example, "S/he is not really like that... S/he did not mean to harass me... S/he was only joking... Maybe I'm being a little too uptight."

4) Avoidance

The victim may ask to be transferred, use frequent leave, or go to sick call frequently to avoid the harassing situations.

E. Strategies to Combat Sexual Harassment

The commander and other leaders within your unit must have the attitude that sexual harassment is a serious problem that interferes with productivity and that it will not be tolerated.

Prevention is the best tool and as an EOA you play a pivotal role by assisting the commander with policy awareness, training, command climate assessments, complaints processing, and overall advisory assistance concerning the prevention of sexual harassment.

1. Proactive Strategies

Commitment from the top makes a difference, and when senior management is perceived as making the prevention of sexual harassment a top priority, this attitude of seriousness will be passed down and throughout the entire unit. The best approach will be positive and oriented toward addressing the issue or concern. Sexual harassment programs should be direct and not overly threatening, and should include everyone—employees at all levels. Proactive sexual harassment prevention strategies include the following:

- a. Addressing and stopping existing sexist or other behaviors of a sexual nature that may create an atmosphere conducive to sexual harassment. In most cases, employees will stop behaving in ways that offend others if they are informed about their behavior in private and in a respectful, non-threatening way.
- b. Ensuring organizational policy letters are up-to-date, outlining procedures on what to do in the event sexual harassment occurs. A written, posted policy statement regarding sexual harassment is a strong indicator of top management support.

- 1) Using bulletin boards for passing on information concerning prevention of sexual harassment. Bulletin boards must be visible to all members of the public (e.g., organizations, services agencies, and any other location that is visible to the public). Most important, be familiar with DoD, EEOC, and your Service's regulations and policies on sexual harassment.
- 2) Conducting sexual harassment prevention trainings, such as: workshops, seminars, guest speakers, symposiums, informal and formal group discussions, etc.). During the training, have individuals role-play in situations, and discuss individuals' differences in culture, personal space, socially accepted behaviors, and internalized values (enculturation).
- 3) Conducting unit climate assessments on a regular basis. Climate assessments are tools that assist commanders at all levels in determining their human relations climate. The program identifies those human relations factors, both positive and negative, that may affect mission readiness such as unit morale, equal opportunity and treatment, interpersonal relationships, and communications.

2. Reactive Strategies

- a. Once a sexual harassment complaint has been filed, there are reactive strategies you will need to assist your commander with:
 - 1) Ensure all actions/complaints are dealt with in a timely manner.
 - 2) Conduct appropriate follow-up actions and check for reprisal or retaliation.
 - 3) Based on reactive measures, you need to reengage and reemphasize proactive strategies.
- b. If you do nothing, most likely nothing will be done. The system is for you so use it. You will learn more about complaint processing procedures in your service specific training. Always refer to your Service's policies and procedures for specific guidance.

3. Techniques

Service members are encouraged to try to resolve acts of sexual harassment or to report them to the chain of command or other appropriate agencies. In order to do this, Service members must be trained on a variety of strategies they can use to prevent or resolve sexual harassment in the unit or work area. The following strategies can be a valuable tool in dealing with sexual harassment:

a. Direct Approach

- 1) Write down thoughts before approaching the individual involved. Confront the harasser and tell him/her exactly what behavior is offensive and unwanted and that it

must stop. Avoid verbal attacks. Instead, use common courtesy staying focused on the behavior being addressed and its impact. In most cases, the alleged harasser will stop behaving in ways that offend others if he/she is informed about offensive behavior in private, respectful, and non-threatening way.

- 2) Individuals should let the harasser know how they feel.
- 3) Individuals should let the harasser know that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues.

b. Indirect Approach

Send a letter to the harasser stating the facts (i.e., an objective description of the incident), specific behaviors that are offensive and unwelcome, personal feelings about the inappropriate behavior, expected resolution, and that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues. Subjects of sexual harassment should keep a copy of the letter for record in the event an informal/formal complaint is subsequently required.

c. Third Party Approach

- 1) Request assistance from another person (i.e., intermediary). Ask someone else (a co-worker, supervisor, or leader) to talk to the harasser on your behalf, or to accompany you to resolve the conflict.
- 2) A third party or intermediary does not speak for the subject. Instead, he/she relates specifically what behavior the subject wants stopped, and makes clear that continued behavior will result in reporting the incident to the chain of command.

d. Report the Harassment to the Chain of Command

- 1) Chain of Command: Report the behavior to immediate supervisor or others in the chain of command and ask for assistance in resolving the situation. The decision to report an incident of sexual harassment is often viewed as a last resort by most of the subjects. However, reporting does have its place even when the subject has been successful in stopping the harassment. The letter to the harasser becomes a valuable tool in the process of reporting sexual harassment to the chain of command.
- 2) Filing an Informal/Formal Complaint: Details of filing an informal/formal complaint are described in respective service regulations and instructions.
- 3) Use Resources Appropriate for Your Branch of Service. Familiarize yourselves with the details of your respective service policies on the prevention of sexual harassment and grievance procedures. Other sources of assistance include:

- a) Local EO/EEO Office

- b) The Inspector General (IG)

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define sexual harassment.
- B. Describe types of sexual harassment.
- C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.
- D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.
- E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 6100

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Workforce diversity and inclusion are critical components of a 21st century workforce. Inclusion and diversity training is one tactical component of a diversity strategy. Diversity Management training provides the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and tools to assist Service Members in the professional behaviors needed in a diverse and inclusive working environment. This is important for creating and sustaining change that fosters a more creative, inclusive, respectful, and productive workforce and workplace.

Required Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6100 Diversity Management
2. “Who’s On Your Team” Video
3. Computer and monitor

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples and a study guide comprehend how diversity management can enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define diversity management.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management.	C	CRT
C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace.	C	CRT
D. Identify the barriers to diversity management.	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT**A. Diversity Management**

1. Definition of diversity management according to Military Leadership and Diversity Commission (MLDC)

Definition of Diversity Management: The creation of an equitable and inclusive environment that enhances the contribution of all members to fulfill the organization's mission; where differences are recognized, understood, and valued; and is accomplished through communication, education, policies, programs, selection, retention, mentoring, leadership, and individual accountability. (MLDC, 2013)

2. Definition of diversity management according to DoDD 1020.02, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity (EO) in the Department of Defense*

The plans made and programs undertaken to identify in the aggregate the diversity within the Department of Defense to enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness (Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (P&R), 2009).

3. USAF Diversity Policy

The Air Force will develop and maintain comprehensive diversity initiatives to enhance the all-volunteer Total Force, to include active duty, Guard, Reserve, and civilians. The initiatives will:

- a. Ensure all qualified personnel are welcome in America's Air Force.
- b. Educate and train all personnel on the importance of diversity, including mutual respect, thus promoting an Air Force culture that values inclusion of all personnel in the Total Force and views diversity and inclusion throughout the workforce as a force multiplier in accomplishing the mission of the Air Force.
- c. Ensure that all personnel in the Total Force understand they are valued and have the opportunity to achieve their full potential while contributing to the mission of the Air Force.
- d. Establish effective diversity training, mentoring, and professional development that provide the tools for personnel to navigate career progression.
- e. Provide cultural awareness training to enhance organizational capabilities.
- f. Assess and report progress on these initiatives.

4. Army Diversity Policy

The Army's future plans are reflected in a vision to become the national leader in embracing the strengths of diverse people in an inclusive environment by investing and managing talent, valuing individuals, and developing culturally astute Soldiers and civilians who enhance our communities. The Army will pursue an aggressive, but comprehensive strategy that assures:

- a. Leader commitment.
- b. Managed talent across our diversity.
- c. The best available diversity training and education.
- d. Inclusive environments sustained by informed leaders.

5. USN Diversity Policy

The Department of the Navy Diversity Policy Statement released in August, 2007:

“We value our people. Our commitment is the foundation for building and maintaining a high quality workforce. We fully expect our leaders to demonstrate this commitment by aggressively eliminating barriers to success for all our people and seeking new ways to diversify talent pool. In our continuous pursuit of excellence, all personnel will share responsibility ensuring that the talents and capabilities of each member are recognized, valued, and used in a manner that contributes to mission accomplishment. In an era when our flexibility, adaptability, critical thinking are paramount to our readiness, a well-managed, highly diverse workforce is imperative to achieving operational excellence.”

6. USMC Diversity Policy

The Commandant of the Marine Corps released the following diversity policy:

“Our leaders must ensure that all Marines, Sailors, and civilians are provided equal opportunity to develop their skills, advance, and contribute to the overall effectiveness of our Corps. By encouraging everyone who is part of our Marine Corps team to reach his or her full potential, we allow our Corps to capitalize on the wide variety of talents and ideas available.”

7. USCG Diversity

The U.S. Coast Guard Diversity Strategic Plan Executive Summary states:

“This Diversity Strategic Plan challenges Coast Guard men and women, active duty, reserve, civilian and Auxiliary, to join in changing the face of our Service to better reflects the diverse fabric of American society. Our recent record of excellence across our mission set, combined with a strong legacy of superior service, has resulted in the Coast Guard achieving

unprecedented relevance in the minds of the American people. To ensure that we remain a premier organization, it is imperative that we continue to progress toward the strategic goal of constructing a workforce that is reflective of our Nation's diverse composition. Our people are our greatest strength and we must capitalize on that fact by establishing an inclusive environment that respects and values the perspective of diverse individuals, acculturating those influences, and combining them with our proven core values to build our workforce of the future. In this way, we can achieve our goal of organizational excellence and continue to be the nation's front line maritime safety and security agency. By including representation, ensuring equal access, and providing opportunity to all facets of our society, we will continue to achieve relevance in the minds of the American public whom we so ably serve."

B. Recognize the Difference between Affirmative Action, EO (MEO), EEO, and Diversity Management

1. Affirmative Action

Affirmative Action focuses on prevention and/or correcting discriminatory practices concerned with numbers of minorities and women. It is an attempt to rectify past discrimination against certain groups of people. It requires that organizations affirmatively seek them out; however, it does not set goals or require that individuals be hired.

2. Military Equal Opportunity (MEO)

Equal Opportunity in the military is based upon policy. The DoD MEO Program shall:

- a. Promote an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. In this environment, Service members shall be evaluated only on individual merit, fitness, and capability. Unlawful discrimination against individuals or groups based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin is contrary to good order and discipline and counterproductive to combat readiness and mission accomplishment, and shall not be condoned.
- b. Use the chain of command as the primary and preferred channel to identify and correct unlawful discriminatory practices; process and resolve complaints of unlawful discrimination, including sexual harassment; and ensure that human relations and MEO matters are taken seriously and acted upon as necessary.
- c. Identify and resolve MEO problems through formulating, maintaining, and reviewing MEO action plans with established objectives and milestones, including a process for accountability in personnel management.
- d. Provide periodic, mandatory education and training in human relations and MEO at installation and operational unit commands, during pre-commissioning programs and

initial entry training, and throughout professional military education systems as part of the overall effort to achieve MEO within the Department of Defense.

- e. Ensure that all on-base activities and all off-base activities are available to all military members and their families regardless of race, color, religion, age, disability, sex, or national origin as permitted by law and DoD policy.

3. Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO)

Equal Employment Opportunity is based upon law. Unlike affirmative action, EEO laws are used as deterrents to future wrongs and as corrective action if a wrong is committed. The DoD Civilian EEO Program shall:

- a. Maintained within the Department of Defense as an essential element of readiness vital to the accomplishment of the DoD national security mission.
- b. Develop and implement programs to promote diversity and ensure EEO in the DoD civilian workforce at all grade levels, in every occupational series, and in every major organizational element, in accordance with EEOC and OPM guidance and consistent with law, specific circumstances, and the needs of the Department of Defense.
- c. Ensure civilian EEO program activities for the DoD workforce are integrated fully into the civilian personnel management and data systems.
- d. Prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on race, sex, color, national origin, age, religion, disability, or reprisal for previous EEO activity through the establishment of a discrimination complaint processing and resolution system in accordance with EEOC guidance; and prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on marital status, sexual orientation, status as a parent, genetic information, limited English proficiency, political affiliation, or other prohibited non-merit factors through other separate discrimination complaint processing and resolution systems when required by applicable laws and regulations.
- e. Identify and eliminate barriers and practices that impede EEO for all employees and applicants for employment, including sexual and nonsexual harassment in the workforce.
- f. Identify and eliminate barriers at work sites, including architectural, transportation, and other barriers affecting people with disabilities.

4. Diversity Management Policy

- a. In August of 2011 Executive Order 13583 was signed into order by the President of the United States in order to promote the Federal workplace as a model of equal opportunity, diversity, and inclusion. Previous steps were taken to promote a diverse federal workforce, for example:

- 1) Executive Order 13171, October 2000 ordered to promote Hispanic employment in the Federal workforce
 - 2) Executive Order 13518, November 2009 ordered to promote Veterans employment in the federal workforce
 - 3) Executive Order 13078, March 1998 ordered to promote individuals with disabilities in the federal workforce
- b. Managing Diversity is different from Affirmative Action
- 1) Managing diversity focuses on maximizing the ability of all employees to contribute to organizational goals. Affirmative action focuses on specific groups because of historical discrimination, such as people of color and women.
 - 2) Affirmative action emphasizes legal necessity and social responsibility; managing diversity emphasizes business necessity.
 - 3) In short, while managing diversity is also concerned with underrepresentation of women and people of color in the workforce, it is much more inclusive and acknowledges that diversity must work for everyone.
 - 4) The U.S. Federal Government has stated, “To realize more fully the goal of using the talents of all segments of society, the Federal Government must continue to challenge itself to enhance its ability to recruit, hire, promote, and retain a more diverse workforce.

C. Benefits of Diversity in the Workplace

1. Workplace Benefits
 - a. Increases management skills to meet rapidly changing market conditions, reduce turnover, increase productivity, and improve image, reputation and brand.
 - b. Strengthens advocacy competence and confidence for addressing issues.
 - c. Builds trust with all team members.
 - d. Sharpens skills to inform, inspire and initiate conversations to involve all team members in the inclusion process.
 - e. Fosters team work innovation by advancing, refining and implementing creative ideas.

2. Technology Benefits

- a. Advances in technology and the advent of a global economy are bringing the people of the world closer together than ever before. As a result, businesses, educational systems and other entities are investigating ways to better interact with everyone. This includes being able to attract and retain the best and most qualified workers.
- b. Technology can increase diversity in the workforce through global connections. These connections can increase the participation of underrepresented groups in all organizational settings.
- c. Networking technologies have made both asynchronous and real-time communications between different regions and countries feasible, and have created new forms of work and collaboration.

D. Barriers to Diversity Management

1. Poor Communication

As the DoD maintains its global initiatives, the workforce becomes more linguistically and culturally diverse. You may find yourself working with individuals whose native language is not English. In order to avoid confusion and a lack of teamwork, which can cause low morale; organizations need to implement openness, so every federal employee can discuss ideas, challenges, and strategies to overcome this barrier.

2. Stagnate Service Culture (Organizational Culture)

Organizations, such as the Department of Defense, with its long history and established cultures may not recognize the need for diversity in their organization. Senior leaders may not understand the need for diversity, especially if the organization is already excelling in its mission. To overcome these smokescreens, everyone; especially senior leaders, must recognize the benefits of a diverse workforce and develop strategies to increase diversity in the workplace.

3. Inadequate Skill Development

Skill preparation and career planning can also be barriers to diversity. Different cultures, societies, and countries do not necessarily prepare their workforce in the same manner. Individuals from different cultures have vastly different values, including working values, which can cause conflict within the organization (University of California at Berkley's National Center for Research in Vocational Education). Proper assessment of all incoming workers and additional training can combat this barrier to diversity in the workplace.

4. Inaccurate Perceptions

- a. Threat – In today’s environment, people may be embarrassed to show ignorance about other cultures, may not want to invest time and energy in learning about those cultures, or may perceive diversity initiatives as a threat to job security (Barak, 2005).
- b. Failure – The thought or belief that you cannot succeed because others like you have not succeeded.

5. Prejudice and Discrimination

The main barriers have to do with managers’ and employees’ attitudes and behavior. Specifically, prejudice (i.e., biased views) and discrimination (i.e., biased behaviors), either overt or covert, or are at the core of the barriers for implementing inclusive policies in the workplace.

E. Strategies for Implementing Diversity Management

1. Diversity Management Strategies

- a. Commitment to Change – “Perhaps the single most important element of successful management improvement initiatives is the demonstrated commitment of top leaders to change” (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- b. Leadership Responsibility – Leaders and managers within organizations are primarily responsible for the success of diversity management (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- c. Resources – They must provide the visibility and commit the time and necessary resources (GAO, 2005, p. 7, para. 2).
- d. Communication – Communicate the organization’s support for diversity in newsletters, policy statements, speeches, meetings, and websites (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para. 2).

2. Top Diversity Management Practices (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 8)

- a. Top leadership commitment: A vision of diversity demonstrated and communicated throughout an organization by top-level management.
 - 1) Implement a policy on EEO and diversity management, which states the organization “must offer opportunities for all persons to develop to their full potential in the pursuit and support of science with diversity management integrated into all facets of the” organization (National Institute of Health; NIH).
 - 2) Leads by example.

- 3) Discusses the importance of diversity in public meetings and to the employees.
- 4) Writes an article on diversity for the organization's newsletter.
- 5) Provide leadership and a working environment that enable all to reach their full potential (U.S. Coast Guard; USCG).

b. Strategic Plan

Diversity needs to be part of an organization's strategic plan. Have a diversity strategy and plan that are developed and aligned with the organization's strategic plan (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 9).

- 1) Enabling goal stating, "To recruit, develop, and retain a competent, committed, and diverse workforce that provides a high quality service..." (Department of Veterans Affairs; VA).
- 2) Enabling goal stating, "Will recruit, support, and retain a knowledgeable, diverse, engaged, and continuously learning workforce." (VA)
- 3) Objective goal stating, "Ensure a high quality, diverse and motivated workforce" (Federal Drug Administration; FDA).
- 4) Strategic Action Plan stating three strategic goals:
 - a) Eradicate discrimination in the workplace by enforcing federal EEO laws, regulations, and policies;
 - b) promote inclusion and diversity in all levels of the workforce; and
 - c) empower individuals so that they may participate and contribute to their fullest potential."

c. Diversity Linked to Performance

The understanding that a more diverse and inclusive work environment can yield greater productivity and help improve individual and organization performance (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 10).

d. Measurement

It is a set of quantitative and qualitative measures of the impact of various aspects of an overall diversity program (GAO, 2005, pp. 4, 10, and 11).

- 1) Quantitative workforce data can evaluate the effectiveness of the organization's diversity management efforts and progress it is making in those efforts.

- 2) Qualitative data be can derived from interviews, focus groups, and surveys for identifying employee perceptions (i.e., questions on climate, organization commitment, promotions, job satisfaction, supervision, and etc.).
- 3) Measure progress in the diversity strategy by reviewing sick leave, complaints, grievances, accessions, and attrition (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration; NOAA).
- 4) Identify successes and areas that need improvement, and develop a process for action planning (NOAA).
- 5) If an issue cannot be resolved, elevate it to the next management level to see if it can be resolved there (NOAA).

e. Accountability

The means to ensure that leaders are responsible for diversity by linking their performance assessment and compensation to the progress of diversity initiatives (GAO 2005, pp. 4 and 15) are as follows:

- 1) Leadership submits narrative descriptions of accomplishments for the year, including a narrative for a critical element that promotes EEO and workforce diversity programs (NIH).
- 2) Executives write a narrative describing action they had taken in relation to complying with relevant EEO laws, regulations, and organizational policies as well as monitoring a subordinate manager's EEO and diversity management programs (NIH).

f. Succession Planning

An ongoing, strategic process for identifying and developing a diverse pool of talent for an organization's potential future leaders (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 17):

- 1) Implement a Web-based individual development plan system for individuals who are already in management positions to identify their skills, training, areas of expertise, and areas of development focus. This system ensures that all potential candidates for higher level or more specialized jobs are following a plan to enable them to fill vacant positions and lead the organization into the future. (U.S. Postal Service)
- 2) Forecast the need for potential future leaders. Develop a process for identifying high-performing nonsupervisory employees and provide those employees with a formal mentoring program, experiential leadership opportunities, and exposure to all facets of the organization's operations. (VA)

g. Recruitment

The process of attracting a supply of qualified, diverse applicants for employment (GAO, 2005, pp. 4 and 19):

- 1) Develop a recruitment tool kit to include various recruitment sources for minorities and diverse populations by state, with a list of minority-serving institutions, and professional minority organizations. (Federal Aviation Administration; FAA)
- 2) Develop a Web-based recruitment source that provides multicultural recruitment advertising and exposure in promoting employment opportunities nationwide. (FAA)

h. Employment Involvement

The contribution of employees in driving diversity throughout an organization (GAO, 2005, pp. 4, 20, 21, and 23).

- 1) Develop a Diversity Advisory Board (DAB) with an advisory council that focuses on people. The strategic plan has four objectives (National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)).
 - a) Increased awareness of diversity values and sensitivities by the senior management, managers, and staff.
 - b) Retention of existing diversity and work-life enhancement.
 - c) Active promotion of outreach and creation of a visible network of connections or routes to the organization.
 - d) Recruitment and workforce planning for enhanced diversity.
- 2) Have a mentoring program for new or young employees and especially for retaining minorities and that the mentoring program is consciously trying to foster relationships. (NIH)
- 3) Create a community outreach program initiatives by educating the community about the agency and the functions it performs. (NIST)
 - a) Actively reach out to local schools through mentoring and tutoring programs that help students with their class work, raise their awareness of scientific careers, and increase community involvement.
 - b) A student Volunteer Program which provides high school and college students a learning experience and exposure to career opportunities by volunteering in your organization

i. Diversity Training to Inform and Educate Management and Staff

- 1) Set up interactive training modules on EEO and diversity management available online to all.
- 2) Conduct diversity refresher training each year.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define diversity management.
- B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management.
- C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace.
- D. Identify the barriers to diversity management.
- E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 6250
INTRODUCTION TO
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an organizational assessment to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The organizational assessment allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with understanding the human relations climate, and it must be taught toward the end of the course. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment, the process associated with an organizational assessment, identify the planning and preparation strategies associated with an organizational assessment and the different organizational assessment tools, as well as, analyze and interpret organizational assessment data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Recommended Reading:

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

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12. Triola, M. F. (2002, April). *Essentials of statistics*. Addison-Wesley Publishing.
13. United States Coast Guard. (May 2010). *COMDTINST M5350.4C, Coast Guard Civil Rights Manual*. Washington, DC: Homeland Security.
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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Outbrief Checklist

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6250 Introduction to Organizational Assessment
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, handouts, and a study guide, comprehend the foundation of an organizational assessment program with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define organizational assessment.	K	CRT
B. Recognize the purpose of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
C. Recall factors of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
D. Identify the basis to conduct an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
E. Identify the types of organizational assessments.	K	CRT
F. Recall the organizational assessment process.	K	CRT
G. Identify the planning associated with an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
H. Recall all aspects of the commander's in-brief.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)

A. Define Organizational Assessment

To better understand the nuances of an organizational assessment, we must first look at its objectives (purpose, factors, basis, and types). First, a description of an organizational assessment

1. Organizational Assessment

- a. An *Organizational Assessment* is a *systematic* procedure to gather data about an organization. It provides insight as to how the organization is functioning to meet its mission. (*Commander Handbook, Chap 4*)
- b. The perception of one's work environment is the concept of organizational climate (Zhang & Liu, 2010). This is the foundational tenet of an organizational assessment.
- c. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- d. Organizational Assessment is based on process and procedures used by commanders to obtain a "snapshot" of an organization (unit). It presents information on the perceptions members have in areas such as, organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR.

B. Purpose of an Organizational Assessment

The main purpose of conducting an organizational assessment is to gather information on an organization to assist managers (commanders, etc.) in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members that may affect mission readiness. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization's climate.

C. Factors of an Organizational Assessment

1. Climate factors

Organizational assessment within the DoD measure climate factors associated with:

- a. Organizational effectiveness
- b. EO/EEO Fair Treatment
- c. Perceptions of sexual harassment/discrimination

d. Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR)

These factors or topic areas break down into more specific areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

2. Command's climate factors

a. Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you don't know where you are, a map won't be much help. An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

b. Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

3. Control Factors

Consideration should also be given to some controlling factors that help define the OA process.

a. Time

b. Space

c. Personnel

1) Military members

2) Civilian members

3) Host nation employees

d. Current OPTEMPO—Availability of personnel

e. Unit Location—Accessibility

f. Automation capabilities

Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version

g. Survey team size

The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.

- h. Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)
 - 1) EOA's experience and/or training
 - 2) Commander/leadership commitment
 - 3) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program

2. Positive Climate Factors

An organizational assessment identifies climate factors that affect mission readiness.

An organization's health encompasses a set of measurable factors residing in the work environment, based on the collective perceptions of the people who work in the environment.

Some measurable factors include:

- a. Staff morale (positive)
- b. Training and professional development
- c. Work force demographics (inclusive)
- d. Reenlistments

3. Negative Climate Factors

Among other things, an OA can identify climate factors that diminish mission readiness.

There are indications that a command climate is not healthy in ways that could impact the mission.

- a. Prevalence of sexual or racial jokes
- b. Polarization of groups
- c. Poor personal appearance
- d. Poor military comportment (behavior/attitude)
- e. Increased number of unauthorized absences
- f. Low morale
- g. Low trust in leadership

D. Basis to Conduct an Organizational Assessment

There are many reasons (basis) to conduct an organizational assessment and they are:

1. Directed by higher authority
 - a. National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA)
 - b. USD Memo (July 25, 2013)
2. Commander-requested
3. Following regulatory requirements:
 - a. Army – AR 600-20 Chapter 6 (30 days after assuming command, six month point, annually thereafter)
 - b. Navy – OPNAVINST 5354.1F (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - c. Air Force – AFI 36-2706 (120 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - d. Marines – MCOP 5354.1D (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - e. Coast Guard – COMDTINST M5350.4 within 120 days after change of command and annually thereafter.
4. An OA *is not* used:
 - a. In place of a complaint/incident clarification/investigation
 - b. To determine the competency level of an individual
 - c. As a mechanism to terminate employment

E. Identify the Types Of Organizational Assessment

There are various assessment options in the scope of an OA.

1. Informal

An OA can be based on an informal process such as an:

- a. Out-and-about

b. Daily observations

2. Formal

A more formal process, which uses pre-prepared assessment tools and follows strict guidelines, include surveys (DEOCS).

F. Recall the Organizational Assessment Process

The organizational assessment process begins with activities to determine the health of the organization.

As an EOA, it is your job to assess the organization to fully understand its climate. This assessment can be conducted in many ways including document review, organizational sensing, focus groups, interviewing, and/or surveying.

The OA process normally includes tasks such as:

1. Planning and Preparation (Assessment Strategy)
2. Data Gathering (to include, not inclusive)
 - a. Observation of individuals/groups
 - b. Surveying individuals
 - c. Interviewing individuals/groups
 - d. Reviewing records and reports
3. Analyzing and interpreting information and data

This is where all the data is processed and interpreted to identify validated concerns for the commander.

4. Creating Organizational Assessment reports

After all data have been analyzed, the results are conveyed to the commander in an understandable and useful manner.

All findings and recommendations must be presented in a way that maintains confidentiality of individuals participating in the assessment.

5. Follow-up

After changes or recommendations are implemented, a follow-up assessment should be conducted to determine their effectiveness, as well as, identify any modifications needed. This may also include another climate assessment.

G. Planning Associated with an Organizational Assessment

Working and communicating with leaders and managers is critical in the OA process.

1. Planning strategies.

- a. EOAs must be aware of OA guidance and have some idea of what leaders seek to learn.
- b. Having a clear picture of the desired outcome will help define the processes and resources necessary to conduct the assessment.
- c. During the planning phase, the commander and EOA should adopt specific strategies and sequence to follow during the assessment process.

These strategies should not be established as hard and fast rules, but should serve more as a guide throughout the assessment process.

2. Planning Considerations

There are many variables and elements that can impact the OA planning and preparation process. These are the factors that can affect the OA process. They include the OA team, commander's goals, resources available, etc.

a. The OA Team

The OA team may consist of a single individual or can include a team consisting of several members. The number of team members will vary according to local mission, priorities, and staffing.

b. Assessment domain (scope) of the OA.

- 1) Sample population (people)
- 2) Intangible factors
- 3) Organization (mission/goals)
- 4) Technology
- 5) Commander's goals

6) Environment

7) Resources

3. Planning Details

When developing your OA, there are certain areas that require specific and sometimes detailed attention:

a. Leadership

The assessment must include all levels of the organization; most important is leadership influence and impact on the organization.

b. Focus

Keep the assessment focused on the organization.

c. Method(s)

Use more than one method to gather information:

1) Surveys (DEOCS)

2) Interviews

3) Observations

4) Records and Reports

H. Aspects of the Commander's In-Brief

A well prepared in-brief will include the following:

1. Purpose of the In-brief

The purpose of the in-brief is to identify the commander's expectations, guidance, and intent beyond Service requirements.

2. Reason for the assessment

a. Requested

b. Directed by higher headquarter

c. Regulatory guidance

3. Established timelines (beginning to end)

A well prepared in-brief will include established timelines to begin and complete the organizational assessment.

4. Additional points to cover with the commander

- a. Advise commander on assessment tools and the strengths/limitations of the assessment.
- b. Provide commander with a copy of the survey instrument for review. Identify what additional questions will be included in the survey.
- c. Describe how the survey will be distributed and collected.
- d. Request appointment of liaison officer or senior commissioned officer to serve as a point of contact.
- e. Establish the specifics for the out-brief. Getting this information up-front will make preparing and providing the assessment findings at the out-brief easier.
 - 1) Date and time
 - 2) Location
 - 3) Equipment needed for out-brief
 - 4) Commander's preference – formal briefing vs. desk side
 - 5) Attendees – who from the command will attend the out-brief

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Define organizational assessment.
- B. Recognize the purpose of an organizational assessment.
- C. Recall factors of an organizational assessment.
- D. Identify the basis to conduct an organizational assessment.
- E. Identify the types of organizational assessment.
- F. Recall the organizational assessment process.
- G. Identify the planning associated with an organizational assessment.
- H. Recall all aspects of a commander's in-brief.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 6250-1

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT

DEOMI ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE SURVEY (DEOCS)



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an "Organizational Assessment" to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The DEOCS is a commander's management tool that allows EOAs to proactively assess critical organizational climate dimensions that can impact the organization's mission. Additionally, it allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the process associated with understanding the complete administration and analysis of the DEOCS. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of the DEOCS; the process associated with ordering and administering the survey, the on-line survey itself, as well as, analyzing and interpreting survey data.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

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18. U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral Sciences. Version 3.0, 1998. Available online at <http://www.hqda.army.mil/ari/surveys/trainmod.shtml>
19. NAVEDTRA 7542, Command Assessment Team Information Guide
20. OPNAVINST 5354.1 Series Navy Equal Opportunity (EO) Policy
21. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses Steps and Process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation–EOA 6250 Perceptions
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, and a study guide, students will know how perceptions impact unit readiness and mission effectiveness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment survey.	K	CRT
B. Identify the planning, preparation, and administration associated with the DEOCS.	C	CRT
C. Recall factors and items associated with the DEOCS.	K	CRT
D. Identify the key aspect of the DEOCS report.	C	CRT
E. Analyze and interpret the DEOCS report.	AN	CC
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (DEOCS)

A. Foundational Objectives of an Organizational Assessment Survey

To better understand the nuances of an organizational assessment, we must first look at its objectives (purpose and topic areas). First, a description of an *Organizational Assessment*.

1. Organizational Assessment

Determining the “health” and functioning effectiveness of an organization by examining such factors as morale, teamwork, and communication. This is accomplished through some or all of the following: group and/or individual interviews, observations, surveys or questionnaires, and reviews of records and reports. (DoDD 1350.2, August 18, 1995)

- a. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- b. An organizational assessment not only fulfills the DoD and NDAA requirements, it helps provide Commanders a “snapshot” of an organization (unit) during a specific period of time. It presents information on the feelings, perceptions, and thoughts of unit members in areas like; organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR.

2. Purpose of the DEOCS

- a. The main purpose of conducting a DEOCS is to gather information on an organization to assist Commanders, in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization’s climate
- b. The DEOCS will:
 - 1) Assist commanders at all levels in assessing the command’s EO climate.
 - 2) Provide commanders insight into other personnel issues that may impact unit effectiveness.
 - 3) Identify positive and negative factors that may affect mission readiness.

3. Topic Areas Associated with a DEOCS

The DEOCS is voluntary survey designed to assess the “shared perceptions” of respondents about formal or informal policies and practices. It measure climate factors associated with (1) Organizational Effectiveness, (2) EO/EEO/ Fair Treatment, (3) Perceptions of Sexual Harassment/Discrimination, and (4) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR).

These topic areas are broken down into more specific (factor) areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

Command’s Climate factors align with:

a. Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you do not know where you are, a map will not be much help! An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

b. Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

B. Planning, Preparation, and Administration

1. Planning Control Factors

When a request or requirement for a DEOCS is presented, some considerations must be thought out to ensure the assessment is successful or participation is maximized.

i. Time

j. Personnel

1) Military members

2) Civilian members

3) Host nation employees

k. Current OPTEMPO

Availability of personnel

1. Unit Location

Accessibility

m. Automation capabilities

Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version

n. Survey team size

The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.

o. Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)

- 1) EOA's experience and/or training
- 2) Commander/leadership commitment
- 3) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program

2. Preparing for the DEOCS

a. DEOCS are requested by a variety of personnel: EOAs, CMEOs, EOLs, EORs, and etc. If you are responsible for the administration of a DEOCS and/or are going to serve as the survey administrator, there is some key information you must determine prior to making your request:

- 1) What will be the survey dates?
 - a) Start/End dates
 - b) Extend survey option
- 2) How does the Commander want the unit broken up, if needed?
 - a) Single DEOCS
 - b) Sub-breakouts
- 3) What kind of password option should we use?
 - a) Email Password
 - b) Print Passwords
- 4) Does the Commander want LDQs/SAQs?

- a) LDQs
- b) SAQs
- 5) Paper Survey option
 - a) Start/End Dates
 - b) Written Comments
- b. Additionally, the below information is required to actually make your request:
- c. A minimum of 16 assigned personnel are required to conduct a DEOCS assessment, requests with fewer than 16 completed surveys will not be processed.
- d. Information required in processing a DEOCS assessment:
 - 1) Unit Identification Code (UIC; **USN, USMC, and USA Only**)
 - 2) Personal Accounting Symbol (PAS; **USAF Only**)
 - 3) Operational Facilities (OPFAC; **USCG Only**)
 - 4) Mailing address for organization
 - 5) Branch of service
 - 6) Service component
 - 7) Name/rank/grade of Survey Administrator
 - 8) E-mail of Survey Administrator
 - 9) DSN phone number of Survey Administrator
 - 10) Commercial phone number of Survey Administrator
 - 11) Name/rank/grade of Commander/Director
 - 12) E-mail of Commander/Director
 - 13) Name/rank/grade of Commander's Supervisor
 - 14) E-mail of Commander's Supervisor

15) Number and type of Passwords required to take online survey

16) Ten Locally Developed Questions (LDQ; **OPTIONAL**)

17) Five Short Answer Questions (SAQ; **OPTIONAL**)

3. Making the DEOCS request and Administration

- a. Once all administrative information is gathered, go to www.deocs.net and make your request by filling in all needed data fields.
- b. Upon submission of your request, the DEOCS Support Team reviews and either contact the Administrator for corrections or to approve the request. This will happen within 72 hours.
- c. Administration of the DEOCS has several key steps. Ensure the requesting Commander is aware of the process and updated throughout the assessment.
- d. SAAS Account
 - 1) Purpose
 - a) Account login info
 - b) SAAS Account/Report Closer
 - 2) Functionality of SAAS
 - a) Passwords
 - b) Completion Rates
 - c) Request Report

C. DEOCS Factors and Survey Items

1. DEOCS Main Topic Areas

The survey focuses on four primary areas: Military Equal Opportunity (EO), Civilian Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), Organizational Effectiveness (OE), Perceptions of Discrimination/Sexual Harassment, and Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR).

The survey is then separated into 23 climate factors that pose questions that survey takers respond to using a four-point scale (i.e., strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree).

The core survey contains 95 items/questions. Each factor has anywhere from three to four items each.

- a. DEOCS Climate Factors
 - 1) Organizational Effectiveness (OE)
 - a) Organizational Commitment
 - b) Trust in Leadership
 - c) Organizational Performance
 - d) Organizational Cohesion
 - e) Leadership Cohesion
 - f) Job Satisfaction
 - g) Diversity Management
 - h) Organizational Processes
 - i) Help Seeking Behaviors
 - j) Exhaustion/Burnout
 - 2) EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - a) Hazing
 - b) Demeaning Behaviors
 - c) Favoritism
 - d) Racial Discrimination
 - e) Sex Discrimination
 - f) Religious Discrimination
 - g) Sexual harassment
 - h) Racist Behavior
 - i) Sexist Behaviors

- j) Age Discrimination (Civilian only)
 - k) Disability Discrimination (Civilian only)
 - 3) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR)
 - 4) Perceptions of Discrimination & Sexual Harassment
- b. Taking the Survey
- 1) Individuals will login to the DEOCS using a password provided by the survey administrator. The survey can be accessed from any computer or device that has Internet capability.
 - 2) Survey must be completed in one sitting. (There is no save and return capability). Additionally, there is no count down timer; however, the survey will disconnect after 1.5 hours.
- c. The demographics section will be the first area respondents will encounter.
- 1) Sex (Male/Female)
 - 2) Hispanic Declaration
 - 3) Race
 - 4) Reside (On/Off Base)
 - 5) Deployed
 - 6) Employment Status (Mil/Civ/Other)
- d. DEOCS Anonymity
- 1) Respondent's anonymity is very important. Individuals can enter the survey with minimal identification by selecting "Decline to Respond" (Hispanic and Race) and "Other" in the employment status. The only demographic item that must be answered is "sex."
 - 2) The survey will not display group data any time fewer than five members of that demographic completes the survey.
 - 3) Respondents' anonymity is protected when completing the online survey by using a computer-generated, untraceable password. In addition, no personally identifying information (PPI) is collected.

e. Survey Structure

After the demographics section, the respondent then enters the actual factor areas.

- 1) Organizational Effectiveness
 - a) 37 total items
 - b) Display on one page
 - c) Once completed with OE items respondents can enter written comments
- 2) EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - a) 30 total items
 - b) Display on one page
 - c) Civilian only items
 - d) Once complete with EO items, respondents can enter written comments
- 3) SAPR
 - a) 9 total items
 - b) 20 Sub items/questions
- 4) Perceptions of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment
 - a) 1 item
 - b) 3 to 6 sub-items/questions
- 5) After the SAPR and Discrimination section, respondents can enter written comments. They are also presented the opportunity to enter any additional comments.
- 6) The final section provides locally developed and short answer questions that were selected by the requesting unit. If there are no LDQs or SAQs, the survey terminates after the additional comments area.
- 7) LDQ and SAQ areas
 - a) Up to 10 LDQs

- b) Up to 5 SAQs

D. Key Aspects of the DEOCS Report

1. The DEOCS Report

The DEOCS is one of the tools EOAs use to collect data from commands to help provide the Commander with essential information regarding their command climate. The DEOCS is typically the first step in the data gathering process. The responses that are provided within the DEOCS, both standard scale responses, as well as written comments, provide a picture of the climate and help determine what focus groups questions and groupings may be needed to validate DEOCS results. Below is a breakdown the DEOCS report:

a. Demographics display (Section II)

1) Minority/Majority

For the majority/minority subgroup categories, the majority category includes all respondents who listed their race as “White,” and their ethnicity as “not Hispanic.” All other respondents are included in the minority subgroup.

2) Race

- a) American Indian
- b) Asian
- c) Black
- d) Native Hawaiian
- e) White
- f) Two or More
- g) Declined

Note: The race-ethnic classification system used on DEOCS is consistent with current Office of Management and Budget (OMB) guidelines.

3) Ethnicity

- a) Not Hispanic
- b) Hispanic

- c) Declined
- 4) Gender
 - Men/Women
- 5) Category (rank/Grade)
 - a) Junior Enlisted (E-1–E-6)
 - b) Senior Enlisted (E-7–E-9)
 - c) Junior Officer (O-1–O-3)
 - d) Senior Officer (O-4 and above)
 - e) Junior Civilian (Grades 1–8)
 - f) Senior Civilian (Grades 9–SES)
- b. Perceptions of Discrimination (Section III)

This section addresses whether members of the organization experienced discrimination and sexual harassment, directed from members of the organization, during the last 12 months; whether they reported the incident; and their satisfaction with how the reported incident was resolved.

Question:

Within the past 12 months, I have personally experienced an incident of discrimination or sexual harassment within my current organization.

(Mark all that apply) Response Scale:

- 1) Racial/national origin/color
- 2) Sexual Harassment
- 3) Gender (sex)
- 4) Religion
- 5) Age
- 6) Disability

- 7) Equal pay
- 8) Genetic information
- 9) Pregnancy
- 10) Retaliation
- 11) NO, did not experience discrimination

If a respondent answers “Yes” to any of the categories, then this section has additional breakdowns:

- 1) Experienced discrimination based on race/national origin/color
 - Majority/Minority
- 2) Experienced discrimination based on gender (sex)
 - Men/Women
- 3) Actions taken following incident of discrimination:
 - a) Filed formal complaint
 - b) Reported incident to EO/EEO
 - c) Reported to supervisor
 - d) Confronted individual
 - e) Did not report
- 4) How satisfied are you with how your issue was or is being resolved?
 - Very satisfied; very dissatisfied scale
- 5) If you did not report the incident to anyone in your chain of command, please indicate your personal reasons why.
 - a) The incident would not be taken seriously
 - b) The incident would not be believed
 - c) Lack of privacy/confidentiality

- d) Fear of reprisal
 - e) Lack of support from chain of command
 - f) Other
 - g) N/A
- c. Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR, Section IV)

This section addresses members' perceptions of the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR) climate within your organization. Specifically, this section includes members' perceptions of the following topic areas:

- 1) Perceptions of Safety.
- 2) Chain of Command Support
- 3) Publicity of SAPR Information
- 4) Unit Reporting Climate
- 5) Perceived Barriers to Reporting Sexual Assault
- 6) Unit Prevention Climate
- 7) Restricted Reporting Knowledge

This part of the report begins by displaying the overall “Unit Summary” information pertaining to the seven SAPR climate factors within an organization, compared to the DEOMI database for their Service.

The “Unit Summary” is located in both section IV and VI of the DEOCS report. These two areas only differ by the factors that are being displayed.

- 1) Results display above average, average, and below average using a green, blue, and red coding scheme, respectively. Above average indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly more favorable than the perceptions commonly held across your Service. Average indicates that the perceptions of your members are similar to that of the perceptions commonly held across your Service. Below average indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly less favorable than those held across your Service.

The organization’s average is displayed along with its respective Service branch average.

- 2) The display is a simple horizontal bar chart with the averages located to the right of the bar. Simply put, the longer the line, the better the unit's average (positive).

It is important to note the "Range of "Near Service Average" is located under each factor. This range displays how close or far your unit is from the next color coding.

- 3) We determined the Near Service Average cut scores for each Service based on a distribution of climate factor averages from all units in each Service branch (Army, Navy, Air Force, and etc.) that completed the DEOCS during a specific timeframe. These scores are updates semiannually so that they track any data trends.
- 4) The "Unit Summary" area within SAPR gives you a quick snapshot of how the command is doing in relations to their Service. This information is then followed up with addition (specific) information about each SAPR factor in the order the factors are listed in the unit summary area.

Specific data or responses associated with the SAPR factor are then displayed on individual tables and figures throughout the SAPR section. These tables and figures have detailed information that is explained prior to and after each graphic.

d. Climate Factor Subgroup Comparisons

The climate factor subgroup comparison provides a demographic summary chart of the SAPR, OE, and EO/EEO Climate variables. Results display *above average*, *average*, and *below average* using a green, blue, and red coding scheme, respectively. *Above average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly more favorable than the perceptions commonly held across your Service. *Average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are similar to that of the perceptions commonly held across your Service. *Below average* indicates that the perceptions of your members are markedly less favorable than those held across your Service.

- 1) These three charts provide the organization with a snapshot of their results by all DEOCS factors and demographic category.
- 2) The averages displayed within the color coding boxes, represent the "Range of "Near Service" Average" that is located in the Unit Summary area.
- 3) This display allows you to determine what factor is trending below average, average, or above average by demographic group.
- 4) Knowing this information is important to understanding how personnel perceive their command climate. It also provides a starting point for you to determine the positive and negative trends. Once you can see what factors are scoring low and by what demographic, you can then go to the Section VII, DEOCS Summary of Survey Item

Results and determine what specific questions have a high unfavorable score. This will assist you in determining potential focus group/interview questions.

e. Survey Item Results

Section VII of the DEOCS report shows responses to the individual climate factor questions. It turns the four-point response scale into a two-point favorable/ unfavorable scale and displays the results using a percentage. Additionally, it provides the overall factor results using a percentage as well.

One key difference between this section and section V is climate factor subgroup comparison. The comparison area determines a color code and average and presents that against your Service. Section VII is only the results of your organization responses—no comparison, just actual results.

f. LDS/SAQ/Written Comments

1) Locally Developed Questions

- a) Worded in a positive manner
- b) Worded as a comment
- c) Strongly agree/disagree scale
- d) Up to 10 LDQs on any one DEOCS
- e) Sub breakouts will all use the same LDQs

2) Short Answer Questions

- a) Open ended question to elicit a comment
- b) Use up to 1,000 characters
- c) Responses are provided verbatim to Commander
- d) No PII

3) Written Comments

- a) Provided after each topic area
- b) Use up to 1,000 characters
- c) Responses are provided verbatim to Commander

d) No PII

E. Analyze and Interpret the DEOCS

The proper analysis of the DEOCS is critical in helping leadership understand their command climate.

The key to moving forward with the assessment is identifying both the positive and negative findings within the main subject areas.

1. Purpose for analyzing data – Identify organizational strengths and areas that need improvement
 - a. Strengths – Data that suggests a strong majority of unit members express favorable views about an issue or organizational practices or policies.
 - b. Areas of improvement – Data that suggests a sizeable minority (i.e., 20% or more) of the unit members harbor unfavorable views about an issue or organizational policies or practices.
2. Analyzing and Interpreting the DEOCS
 - a. As already discussed, a command climate assessment is not just surveying an organization. Commanders need a clear understanding of their unit members' perceptions, and different methods are needed to accomplish this.
 - b. It is the EOAs job to identify the positive and negative factors that affect that climate and, by extension, mission. **In almost every case, EOAs will start the assessment process by administering the DEOCS.**
 - c. Compare the sample of DEOCS respondents to the population of the unit. Are some groups underrepresented? Are some groups overrepresented?
 - d. Beginning with the demographic data, you can see how many members of your organization completed the DEOCS. Moreover, you can see who in your organization completed the DEOCS, in terms of group membership. This can be important, not just because it shows who completed the DEOCS, but also who didn't.

If only a small percentage of the organization participated in the DEOCS, your confidence in the results will be lower than if you had a large majority of the organization complete the DEOCS.

- e. Review section III Perceptions of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment. This shows perceptions of these incidents in the workplace during the past 12 months, actions taken to address them, and members' satisfaction with issue resolution.
 - 1) Remember, these are just perceptions, not official formal complaints. Members determine what constitutes an "incident." This could be a simple comment all the way to a discriminatory action.
 - 2) The goal here is to identify that these perception exists, what type of discrimination, and the pervasiveness.
 - 3) Additionally, the series of questions in this area allows you to provide a clearer picture to the commander. You are not just telling them that members perceive discrimination, you are able to provide further clarification: actions taken to address them or any barriers to not addressing, and members' satisfaction with issue resolution.
 - 4) Finally, review the comments areas to validate or find examples of discrimination that can help explain perceptions.
- f. The SAPR section (section IV) displays a tremendous amount of information. Start by reviewing the unit summary of all seven factors. This will give you a snapshot of how each factor is trending. After the unit summary data, the section takes each factor one at a time and displays specific data regarding that factor and the questions associated with them. This breakdown will be shown graphically, through a table or figure. Analyzing this section will simply take the EOA to read the presented data in that section and make note of any inconsistencies or trends.
- g. Section V, Climate Factor Subgroup Comparison (SAPR, OE, EO). This area displays color coding broken down by factor and demographic grouping. Identifying scoring in this area is very easy; however, the EOA has to be able to explain scoring. Caution must be given to this section as many people will simple look at the three displays and assume everything is told on these three pages. EOAs must be able to connect section V, VI, and VII to gain a clear picture or view of the respondents' perceptions.
- h. Section VI, Overall Unit Summary will show you how the unit surveyed compares to their Service. This again will help you validate the previous section by showing whether the organization as a whole garnered an average rating for any factors. Average scores are displayed to the right of the bar chart. The actual cut-scores are viewable underneath each factor display. The Service average is the mean within the "Near Service Average." This display allows commanders to see how close or far away they are from the next level (average).
- i. Section VII, Response to Survey Items displays a favorable/unfavorable breakout for each question by factor. Additionally, it allows you to assign an overall percentage to

each question and factor. Age and Disability Discrimination only display federal civilian responses.

- j. Analyzing all data is crucial to understanding the unit's perceptions. Once the data portion of the report has been analyzed, you have to turn your focus to the LDQs, SAQs, and written comments.
 - k. The final areas within the report to review include the LDQs, SAQs, and additional comments. While reviewing the latter two sections, you want to look for comments that help explain climate factor findings (e.g., below average scores and above average scores). This way, when you inform or brief the commander on positive and negative finds revealed by the survey, you can provide specific comments associated with those areas. This will also assist you with developing interview/focus group questions.
 - l. Your comment analysis should focus on clarifying survey results to allow for a better understanding of responses. Additionally, survey and comment analysis helps you to determine what focus group/interview questions are needed to validate survey findings. Finally, when presenting your findings to the commander, it is much easier to lump your comment analysis into themes. Meaning, you take the top 2-3 most common responses.
 - m. Comments are provided verbatim and cannot be modified. There will be occasions when comments reveal UCMJ violations. These comments should be brought to the commands attention for action.
3. Final Analysis

The final analysis consists of consolidating data from all assessment tools. The DEOCS survey will always be the primary means of gathering information and determining the unit's positive and negative perceptions.

Results and findings are now pulled together to provide leadership with a means to address any negative concerns that impact the mission or continue the positive trends.

- a. DEOCS – Identified concern areas through survey responses and comments
- b. Observations – Observed behaviors or spoke to unit members
- c. Focus Group/Interviews – Clarified or validated survey, observation, and/or Commander's concern areas
- d. Records and Reports – clarified or validated survey/observation concerns

How results are reported or briefed depends on your Service-specific requirements. This will be explained during the Service Specific portion of the course.

Commander out-briefs and/or reports should provide information that was obtained or observed during your assessment. Your brief or report should speak to the totality of all four assessment areas, and how each area either validates or invalidates the survey results, comments, interviews, or the unit commander's initial perceptions.

Showing a complete picture and providing both positive and negative findings will display your objectivity, competency, and skill as an EOA.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment survey.
- B. Identify the planning, preparation and administration associated with the DEOCS.
- C. Recall factors and items associated with the DEOCS.
- D. Identify the key aspect of the DEOCS report.
- E. Analyze and interpret the DEOCS report.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
Patrick AFB, FL 32925

STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 6250-2
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)
INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in conducting interviews and observations in order to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. Interviews and observations allow EOAs to provide commanders with an insight into the command climate from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the skills and steps associated with conducting interviews and observations. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives, the process, as well as identify the planning and preparation strategies.

Recommended Reading

None

References

1. Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), *Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook*, Chapter 4. 2008. Washington, DC: Department of the Army
2. Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstein, A. C. (2004). *Educational administration: Concepts and practice*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.
3. Rosenfeld P., J.E. Edwards, and M.D Thomas, Eds. (1993). *Improving Organizational Surveys*, pp. x–xi, 4, 55, and 56. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications,
4. Shipley, Kenneth G. & Julie M. Wood (1996). *The Elements of Interviewing*. San Diego, California: Singular Publishing Group, Inc., pp. 1–96.
5. Triola, Mario F. (2002). *Essentials of Statistics*. Addison-Wesley Publishing. Shortened version of *Elementary Statistics*, 8th Ed.
6. Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1984). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
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8. U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral Sciences. Version 3.0, 1998. Available online at <http://www.hqda.army.mil/ari/surveys/trainmod.shtml>
9. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOARCC Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. Commanders Guidance
 - b. Interview Process
 - c. Interview/Observation Worksheet

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment:

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide, know the interview and observation processes used to facilitate an organizational climate with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the purpose of an interview.	K	CRT
B. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the individual interview.	K	CRT
C. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the group interview.	K	CRT
D. Recall logistical considerations of conducting interview.	K	CRT
E. Recall how to determine the number of interviews.	K	CRT
F. Recall determining the sample element.	K	CRT
G. Recall the types of interview questions.	K	CRT
H. Recognize interview error and bias.	K	CRT
I. Recall the purpose of using observations.	K	CRT
J. Recall advantages and disadvantages of using observations.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

OA INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS

A. Recall the Purpose of an Interview

Interviews – a conversation designed to gather information for a specific purpose (Shiple 1996, p. 1).

1. Purpose of conducting an interview
 - a. Collect data for diagnosis – Interview data supplements and expands data gathered by surveys, reports, and observations.
 - b. Clarify data generated – Interviews assist the EOA in checking his/her understanding sources of perceptions held by the members of the organization being assessed.
 - c. Increase personal ownership of the diagnosis – Because individuals are personally involved in the diagnosis through the face-to-face interview, they have the tendency to develop a feeling that what they have to say counts in the diagnosis.
 - d. Examine situations – Examine a specific problem, conflict, or issue concerning the interviewee and explore various possible resolutions.
2. There are two types of interviews: the *individual* interview and the *group* interview (focus group).

B. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of the Individual Interview

An individual interview is carried out in a private face-to-face, one-on-one situation between the interviewer and the interviewee

1. Advantages of an individual interview:
 - a. Flexibility – A skilled interviewer can search out relevant issues that appear or develop as the interview progresses. This may yield valuable information.
 - b. Involvement – One-on-one interviews may produce a greater sense of involvement and commitment among interviewees and lead to more direct and honest answers.
 - c. Clarity – Since the interviewer takes an active role in helping the respondent understand questions, there is less chance the questions will be misunderstood.
 - d. Intimacy – One-on-one interviews are intimate; therefore, they may lead to more direct and honest answers.

2. Disadvantages of an *individual* interview:

- a. Time – Individual interviews that involve a large number of interviewees can take a great deal of time.
- b. Sample size – As pointed out before, time limitations make it difficult to interview a large number of people. This may limit the final sample size (or representation of the group) and the breadth of information obtained. The process of drawing conclusions from limited samples may then be difficult; thus, affecting the validity of the interviews.
- c. Validity – Such things as the interviewer's lack of experience, improperly used techniques, questionable interpretation, and small sample sizes may invalidate the data. Also, responses from interviewees may not be honest, and different individuals may directly contradict each other.
- d. Training – It is far easier to teach a person to administer a survey than to be an effective one-on-one interviewer.

C. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of the Group Interview

A group interview (focus group) is an informal discussion carried out with a selected group of people using one or more interviewers, in order to address specific topics relevant to the situation at hand. Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members.

1. Advantages of a group interview:

- a. Time – Because more than one person is being interviewed, more information may be gathered using the same amount of time devoted to an individual interview.
- b. Determine commonality of perception – If numerous people share the same perception, this may help validate the perception. At the same time, commonly-held perceptions may be the product of organizational folklore, and not possess any basis in fact (i.e., group think).
- c. Sharing of information – The group interaction will often provide elaborated responses and encourage the sharing of ideas, including proposed solutions. One comment may serve as a lead-in to other comments or information critical to the assessment.
- d. Formal communication check – The group interview can provide a check on the information channels and patterns in a unit, by revealing how well or poorly information gets passed.

2. Disadvantages of Group interviews may include
 - a. Trust – If there is no trust between the group and the interviewer, among the group members themselves, or within the organization, the interview will not likely produce valuable information.
 - b. Expectations – Some members of the group may see the interview as an opportunity to expose others for policy violations. Such conversations are categorically off limits, and any such comments require the facilitator to stop the interview, remove the individual, and contact leadership about the allegations.
 - c. Threat – A senior member may perceive a group interview as a threat to his/her position or program.
 - d. Limited interviewer skills – The success of a group interviewer depends on the interviewer's skills in handling group situations, behaviors, and dynamics. The interview team must maintain respect/rapport and engage in effective listening, while accurately capturing the predominant perceptions and concerns expressed by the group

D. Recall Logistical Considerations of Conducting an Interview

The setting provides the atmosphere and sets the tone to facilitate participants' comfort and willingness to disclose information. The following factors should be considered:

1. Room size
2. Room condition
3. Room setup/seating arrangement – Pick a room where you have a reasonable expectation of privacy and a lack of interruptions.
4. Group interview seating arrangement – Seating arrangements are dictated by the number of participants and room size. It is all about being flexible.
5. Individual interview seating arrangement – Dictated by the interview location.
6. Location – The setting is more than just the physical room. It should provide for a reasonably intimate and comfortable environment. The interview should run without interruptions. Arrangements should be made so phones or people not participating do not interrupt the interview.

E. Recall How to Determine the Number of Interviews

1. How many *group* interviews need to be conducted?

The exact number of group interviews that are needed to adequately address the key issues within the command may be difficult to determine. However, that determination is made based upon the need to collect more data to help clarify issues or concerns.

2. How many *individual* interviews need to be conducted?

The number of personal interviews depends on the size of the command. With very large commands, it becomes progressively difficult to conduct a large number of interviews.

F. Recall Determining the Sample Element

1. Developing a sample

This helps ensure the results are valid, which enhances the assessment's value to leadership.

- a. **Step 1** – Determine interview type and purpose.

- b. **Step 2** – Conduct random sampling.

Ideally, a randomly selected sampling provides a representative sample of the unit's population. However, in small units, there may be a very limited number of members representing a specific group, and a random sampling may fail to adequately include individuals in that demographic group. When this is the case, it may be necessary to consciously select members of these groups, to ensure their input is secured.

- c. **Step 3** – Confirm sampled group is demographically representative; adjust as needed.

2. Determine number of interview participants

There should be an adequate number of interviews to properly reflect the range of participants who need to be interviewed, based on survey findings, in order to characterize the issues.

- a. Group interview

The optimum number for a group is 8–15. The group needs to be large enough so that individuals are less likely to monopolize the session. At the same time, the group needs to be small enough so that everyone has the opportunity to discuss issues they feel are important, within the established session time limit.

b. Individual interview

An individual interview involves a single interviewee.

3. Determining demographics

The EOA needs to randomly select candidates, so that a properly represented group (i.e., with adequate numbers of minorities, women, junior enlisted, and etc.) is created.

G. Recall the Types of Interview Questions

Questions play a major role in facilitating. Questions invite participation and get people to think about issues from different perspectives. The skill of questioning techniques is not as simple as it seems. The interview should allow for the development of questions tailored for specific needs.

There are several different types of questions.

1. Direct questions

Ask explicitly for a reply on a specified topic. Use the who, what, when, where, why strategy. This is more likely to be directed at a specific individual.

2. Open-ended questions

They elicit a more complete response and more effective participation. It requires more than a “yes” or “no” answer. The majority of your lead-off questions should be open-ended questions to stimulate as many responses as possible.

3. Narrow questions

The interviewer selects the subject matter to discuss.

4. Paraphrased questions

The interviewer repeats the other person’s last response in his/her own words and then follows with a question seeking additional, related information.

5. Leading questions

These are statements followed by a suggestion of what the answer should be.

6. Yes/No questions

Yes/no questions are similar to leading questions. They look for a specific answer/response to a particular area of interest.

7. Loaded questions

A loaded question encourages a specific response taking the respondent in a direction the facilitator wants to go.

8. Closed questions

They require a direct answer and can be used at the end of the interview too. Usually begins with “is, can, will, could, should, did, does, do, and etc.

9. Polling questions

An uninvolved focus group member (e.g., participant that is quiet or displaying body language that signals a lack of interest or an unwillingness to participate) is a challenge. To encourage quiet or withdrawn group members, it is helpful to use a polling technique in order to elicit each participant’s feelings about a particular issue. Avoid serial questioning (e.g., asking each participant to comment in the same order on every issue).

H. Recognize Interview Error and Bias

In personal interviews there are many ways in which errors can be made by both the respondent and the interviewer, and this can lead to 'bias' in the results. The objective of the interviewer should be to minimize the likelihood of such bias arising.

1. Interviewee induced bias

a. Faulty memory

Some respondents may answer a question incorrectly simply because they have a poor memory.

b. Exaggeration and dishonesty

There can be a tendency on the part of some respondents to exaggerate claims about their conditions and problems if they think it will further their cause and lead to improvement in their well-being.

c. Courtesy bias

In interview situations it is quite possible that one will come across the problem of courtesy bias, (i.e., the tendency for respondents to give answers that they think the interviewer wants to hear, rather than what they really feel). The respondents may not

wish to be impolite or to offend the interviewer, and may therefore endeavor to give polite answers.

It is also possible for the interviewer him or herself to introduce bias into an interview, and this must be avoided at all costs.

2. Interviewer induced Bias

a. Desire to help the respondent

The interviewer may become too sympathetic to the problems and conditions of the respondent, and this can affect the conduct of, and results obtained from, the interview.

b. Reactions to responses

1) When respondents give answers, the interviewer must be careful not to react.

2) There are many potential opportunities for bias to creep into the results of group discussions.

3. Specific group potential biases

a. Some participants may feel they cannot give their true opinions due to the psychological pressure on them arising from their concern as to what other members of the group may think. Some may feel tempted to give opinions that they feel will be respected by the group.

b. The presence of one or two 'dominant' participants may repress the opinions of others. Some may not feel confident about expressing an opinion.

I. Recall the Purpose of Using Observations

Observation is the act of recognizing and noting a fact or occurrence often involving measurement with instruments (Webster, p. 802).

Purpose of observation in organizational assessment:

1. A means to observe a unit during its usual daily activities in real time.
2. Observation can be directed at hypotheses testing (e.g., to determine if specific behaviors occur in the workplace), hypothesis formulation (e.g., to identify why certain sentiments were expressed in the survey), or evaluating unit climate (e.g., whether the workplace environment is cooperative, competitive, hostile, etc.). Observations can be adapted to realize any of these ends by making a different set of choices concerning recording methods.

J. Recall Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Observations

1. Advantages of using observation as a data collection method
 - a. Provides data about behavior itself, rather than reports of behavior. Observation data has relatively high face validity. While people in the organization may doubt the validity of questionnaire responses and may attempt to deny the validity of interview data by arguing that people did not answer truthfully, well-documented observational data can accurately identify workplace behaviors that indicate interpersonal dynamics and practices that can impact morale, productivity, and retention.
 - b. It is a real-time data collecting device rather than a retrospective collection device. Self-reports mostly describe behavior that has occurred in the past. Because people tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later, their reports of those events can become distorted. Observation deals with behavior that is occurring now. People tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later.
 - c. It's a flexible method. In all but the most structured observation schemes, the observer can modify what he or she is observing, as the situation requires. While structure is helpful for producing measurable data, it introduces the danger of selective observation. The respondent enjoys behavioral flexibility, but you really don't. In observation, you can change your collection methods if the dynamics of the arena change. Observation, therefore, enables one to discover existing patterns of behavior previously unknown to the people in the organization.
 - d. It removes the temptation for the respondent to provide biased answers. It does not depend on the willingness of the respondent to honestly complete the questionnaire or contribute during an interview.
 - e. It reduces selective learning. The observer is able to make an objective analysis of the behaviors occurring in the organization that was not previously known by leadership.
2. Disadvantages of using observation
 - a. Interpretation/coding are required to use data. As observations move away from the more structured formats, interpretations and coding must be used in order to compile the data. This process is time-consuming and requires some skill. If you hire an expert or outside consultant, it can become expensive. Thus, as with interviews, coding and interpretation can be expensive, requires time, and can be a source of bias.
 - b. Observer bias – Less structured observation also has a tremendous potential for observer bias. Observers must be adequately trained so that different observers will see the same things when viewing an event. There are several techniques that can be used to avoid observer bias. One of the less formal ways is by making several observations of a particular group activity over a period of time and seeing if the inferences about that

activity are the same across different periods of time. This will provide a little insight into what is being written and what is being assumed, thereby exposing observer bias.

- c. Expense – When all these factors are added up (e.g., training, sampling, coding, and etc.), effective observation becomes a potentially expensive proposition. However, many times there is simply no substitute for having a trained observer on the scene.
- d. Lack of privacy – This disadvantage primarily affects those individuals being observed.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Recall the purpose of an interview.
- B. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the individual interview.
- C. Recall advantages and disadvantages of the group interview.
- D. Recall logistical considerations of conducting an interview.
- E. Recall how to determine the number of interviews.
- F. Recall determining the sample element.
- G. Recall the types of interview questions.
- H. Recognize interview error and bias.
- I. Recall the purpose of using observations.
- J. Recall advantages and disadvantages of using observations.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 6250-3
ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT (OA)
RECORDS AND REPORTS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skills in reviewing records and reports when conducting an organizational assessment. Reviewing records and reports allows EOAs to provide commanders with an insight into the command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with reviewing records and reports. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of reviewing records and reports, the process associated with records and reports, as well as, analyze and interpret records and reports data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

1. Department of the Army Training Circular (TC 26-6), Commander's Equal Opportunity Handbook. 2008. Washington, D.C._ Chapter 4
2. Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S. E., & Slocum, J. W. (2005). *Management: A competency-based approach*. Mason, Ohio: Thomson/South-Western.
3. Lusthaus, C.; Adrien, M (Editor); & Anderson, G. (Editor). (2002). *Organizational Assessment: A Framework for Improving Performance*. Ottawa, ON, CAN: IDRC Books
4. Triola, Mario F. (2002). *Essentials of Statistics*. Shortened version of Elementary Statistics (8th ed.). Addison-Wesley Publishing.
5. Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1984). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
6. Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Capstone activity
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
 - a. In-brief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Out-brief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses Steps and Process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

3. Videos: Ordering a DEOCS

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide; appraise an organizational climate with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test. Students are also required to obtain a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Recall the purpose of records and reports.	K	CRT
B. Recall advantages of records and reports.	K	CRT
C. Recall disadvantages of records and reports.	K	CRT
D. Identify the sample use of records and reports.	K	CRT
E. Recall records and reports data analysis and interpretation.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

As part of cognitive development, each student must also develop their interpersonal skills by participating in activities while in-resident. It is important to note that activities are designed to elicit discussion which may enter the Affective Domain of learning. In these cases the objective is for each student to actively participate in various group activities and to “respond with interest” to material presented (i.e., express opinions, beliefs, and etc.). To measure the Cognitive and Affective behaviors expected of the students during activities, the Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation (ISDE) form is used and each student must obtain a minimum passing score of 70%. Students are expected to demonstrate professionalism as they control their intrapersonal and interpersonal skills.

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
<p>Capstone Activity</p> <p>A. Analyze and interpret organizational assessment data.</p> <p>B. Develop an in-brief (homework.)</p> <p>C. Conduct an in-brief.</p> <p>D. Conduct Analysis/Translate data (OA data provided).</p> <p>E. Create report (Executive Summary with findings, recommendations, issues, concerns, action plan, etc...).</p> <p>F. Prepare an out-brief (homework).</p> <p>G. Conduct an out-brief.</p>	<p>Provide knowledge and skills associated with DEOCS analysis and organizational assessment strategies.</p>	

OA RECORDS AND REPORTS

A. Recall the Purpose of Records and Reports Assessment

Records and reports are used to identify “hard” or unchangeable data about the command. This data is used to prove or disprove, support or non-support, or quantify perceptions from other data sources.

Some data will be qualitative (e.g., unit logs, policy, regulations, and etc.), while others are numerically based (e.g., awards, discipline, promotions, and etc.)

Significant information is filed in a variety of formats. During the OA records review, the EOA may look at different areas, not limited to:

1. Retention rates
2. Discipline rates
3. Equal Opportunity complaints (formal and informal)
4. Awards and decorations
5. Local promotions
6. Policy letters (qualitative data)
7. Training records
8. Key duty positions (will vary by Service)

B. Recall the Advantages of Records and Reports

Advantages of records and reports:

1. Unchangeable (if available)
2. Easily expressed for comparison (ratio, percentage, etc.)
3. Easily accessible
4. Easily interpreted and compared with other data sources

C. Recall Disadvantages of Records and Reports

Disadvantages of records and reports:

1. Might not be available
2. Might not be accurate
3. Might require extensive search of records to obtain needed data.

D. Recall the Sample Use of Records and Reports

Depending on the type of record and report used in the OA process, the analysis may be simple or time consuming.

Records might require data to be consolidated and synthesized, proportions or rates per thousand computed, and/or compared over time to same or similar data.

For numerically-based data, there are various methods for computing the statistics: percentages and rates per thousand.

Percentage differences do not determine causes or imply any intent to discriminate.

1. Percentage

- a. This method is useful to depict changes in what happens to individuals as a result of normal functions of the system. It can be used to identify and provide valuable insights of institutional practices, which are operating to the disadvantage of a particular group of people.
- b. To compute a percentage, take the population you are reviewing, divide it by the total population and multiply it by 100.

$$\left[\frac{\# \text{ of population in review}}{\# \text{ of total population}} \right] 100$$

2. Rate per thousand

- a. This method allows the EOA to better compare specific groups, to compare data during a timeframe or fluctuating unit populations, or helpful when comparing data within large unit population.
- b. To compute rate per thousand, take the population you are reviewing, divide it by the total population of that group, and multiply it by 1,000.

$$\left(\frac{\text{\# of occurrences in review}}{\text{\# of population in that group}} \right) 1000$$

E. Recall Records and Reports Data Analysis and Interpretation

It is important that the EOA look at various levels within the data when comparing it. The EOA may find, or fail to find, the indicators necessary to support, fail to support, or refute the other data sources if the appropriate level of data are not analyzed.

After the data is processed, interpret and translate it into meaningful terms. Put the data into words that identifies where the findings suggest a concern/issue.

SUMMARY

After processing all the activities, the student should have a better comprehension and fuller understanding on how to apply their knowledge as they prepare to perform their duties.

Students should now be able to:

- A. Recall the purpose of records and reports assessment.
- B. Recall advantages of records and reports.
- C. Recall disadvantages of records and reports.
- D. Recall the sample use of records and reports.
- E. Recall records and reports data analysis and Interpretation.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
July 2015

EOA 6250-4

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT

ASSESSMENT TO SOLUTIONS



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in finalizing an "Organizational Assessment" by introducing recommendations and Assessment to Solutions. Once a DEOCS and/or organizational assessment has been conducted, EOAs are often tasked to out-brief the assessment data to that command. EOAs frequently include recommendations, solutions, and action planning as part of their briefing (depending on the type of assessment and the results). The lesson will provide the student selected recommendations within the DEOCS report and introduce them to the DEOMI.org "Assessment to Solutions" Web page.

Recommended Reading

Organizational Assessment Overview

References

DEOMI Research Directorate. (2015). *Assessment to Solutions*. Retrieved from <http://www.deomi.org/DRN/AssessToSolutions/index.html>

Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOAC Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® slide presentation
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, handouts, and a study guide, recognize the DEOCS report recommendations and how to leverage assessment to solutions by obtaining a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify recommendations within the DEOCS report.	K	PE
B. Recall key aspects of the DEOMI.org “Assessment to Solutions” Web page.	K	PE
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

ASSESSMENT TO SOLUTIONS**A. Identify Recommendations**

If you remember back to the beginning of the OA lesson, you were informed that an organizational assessment is use to:

1. Organizational Assessment

Determining the “health” and functioning effectiveness of an organization by examining such factors as morale, teamwork, and communication. This is accomplished through some or all of the following: group and/or individual interviews, observations, surveys, or questionnaires, and reviews of records and reports. (DoDD 1350.2, August 18, 1995)

- a. A complete organizational assessment usually consists of a comprehensive organizational review using all or a combination of the four distinct assessment methods.
- b. EOAs will typically be required to provide an out-brief of the information and in that brief provide recommendations and/or an action plan.

2. DEOCS SAPR Recommendations

Recommendations in the DEOCS report are located in Section IV (SAPR) and in Section VIII (Recommendations).

The SAPR area has recommendations strategically placed after each sub-factor area that speaks to that specific factor and in some instances display additional resources to assist you.

- a. Perceptions of Safety (p. 24)
- b. Chain of Command Support (p. 27)
- c. Publicity of SAPR (p. 31)
- d. Unit Reporting Climate (p. 36)
- e. Perceived Barriers (p. 41)
- f. Unit Prevention (p. 46)
- g. Restricted Reporting (p. 49)

3. DEOCS Recommendations

The Recommendation Section within the DEOCS is located in section VIII (p. 79.) This section will provide you with generic recommendation that apply to most organizations that are conducting an assessment. The section addresses two main areas:

“Above Average/Average” and “Below Average”

- a. Average scores are displayed in the Unit Summary (SAPR, OE, and EO) and in the Subgroup Comparison area (SAPR, OE, and EO). These scores are displayed with a green, blue, red color scheme.
- b. Above Average/Average scores represent a positive or organizational strength. This means that the organization typically wants to reinforce-those practices and programs currently in place or improve upon them.
 - 1) Reinforce policy or practice.
 - 2) Continue open communication to ensure all members understand their role and responsibilities.
 - 3) Share results with unit members.
 - 4) Utilize training aids as needed.
- c. Below Average scores represent a possible organizational concern. Organizations generally want to attempt to improve the views or perceptions regarding that factor.
 - 1) Review comments and data to determine concern areas.
 - 2) Review comments to look for possible corrective actions.
 - 3) Conduct focus groups or interviews can help determine the source and extent of specific perceptions.
 - 4) Contact referral agencies as needed to assist

B. Assessment to Solutions

1. Assessment to Solutions

- a. Assessment to Solution is designed to support leaders and equal opportunity professionals by providing tools and products designed to address the mission-impacting issues that were identified during the climate assessment process.

- b. Assessment to Solutions has products and training material to help organizations overcome negative perceptions; these can also aid in the development of an action plan.
- c. The Assessment to Solutions area is separated into the main assessment areas of the DEOCS, each area is further separated by factors and a host of products are provided to assist in overcoming negative perceptions at an organization.
- d. The site separates DEOCS topic areas (OE, EO, and SAPR) and allows you to select each factor under that area. Once you select a factor, it provides a factor description, additional information, and various products that will assist your organization in developing effective solutions.
- e. The final area provides “Operational Support.” The DEOCS Support team delivers a range of support services, and can provide consultation and analytical services to assist commanders, directors, and survey administrators through all phases of the command climate assessment process.
 - 1) Consultation Services
 - 2) Analytical/Research Services
 - 3) Senior Consultation

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented in this lesson:

- A. Identify recommendations within the DEOCS report.
- B. Recall key aspects of the DEOMI.org “Assessment to Solutions” Web page.

END OF LESSON

CLASS 15AB
EQUAL OPPORTUNITY ADVISOR COURSE
STUDENT STUDY GUIDE



Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute
Patrick AFB, FL
December 2014

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This study guide will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor. The content is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this study guide should not be taken out of context.

CONTENTS

NOTE: Materials found within this document are FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY. They are not authorized for use in local training programs.

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How to Use This Student Guide

This guide is to be used during classroom instruction and as a study tool to prepare for test sessions. It contains instructional objectives and materials for each of the topical areas.

Each lesson provides a lesson emphasis, instructional objectives, and reference materials that will guide your study. The guides are organized to generally follow the lesson/course outline. However, the instructor may on occasion vary the order of the presentation during the lesson or present the material not included in the guide.

Each student, therefore, should take thorough notes of the lecture content throughout the course, but not rely solely upon graphic reproductions for the course content.

Effective Habits for Studying

Try to develop and appreciate the following habits:

1. Take responsibility for yourself.
2. Responsibility is recognition that in order to succeed you can make decisions about your priorities, your time, and your resources.
3. Center yourself around your values and principles.
4. Do not let friends and acquaintances dictate what you consider important.
5. Put first things first.
6. Follow up on the priorities you have set for yourself, and do not let others or other interests, distract you from your goals.
7. Discover your key productivity periods and places.
8. Choose the morning, afternoon, evening, and study spaces where you can be the most focused and productive. Prioritize these for your most difficult study challenges.
9. Consider yourself in a win-win situation—you win by doing your best and contributing your best to a class, whether for yourself, your fellow students, and even for your teachers and instructors. If you are content with your performance, a grade becomes an external check on your performance, which may not coincide with your internally arrived at benefits.
10. First, understand others and then attempt to be understood.
11. When you have an issue with an instructor (e.g. a questionable grade, an assignment deadline extension), put yourself in the instructor's place. Now ask yourself how you can best make your argument given his/her situation.
12. Look for better solutions to problems. For example, if you do not understand the course material, do not just reread the material, try something else! Consult with your trainer, a tutor, an academic advisor, a classmate, or a study group.
13. Look to continually challenge yourself.

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
December 2014

EOA 2200

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to pick up where presentation skills left off and to help the students understand how they will prepare for and present their Race and Ethnic Studies guided discussion. The lesson will present to students the instructional skills needed to be an effective EOA. The lesson is taught from a military training perspective. It is an introduction to a skill that is improved by practice and experience. Students will leave with a basic understanding and practical experience of instructional skills required of an EOA.

This lesson is not intended to qualify or certify an individual as a Service instructor or trainer.

Recommended Reading

None

References

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3. United States Air Force. (2003 November 12). AFMAN 36-2236, *Guidebook for Air Force instructors*.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint Slide® Presentation–Training Development and Delivery
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given a lecture, instructions, preparation time, and collaboration with a partner, students will develop and facilitate a 60-minute guided discussion, with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Describe the teaching lecture.	K	CRT
B. Describe the guided discussion.	K	CRT
C. Describe how to prepare for a training session.	K	CRT
D. Describe how to deliver a training session.	K	CRT
E. Prepare a teaching plan.	A	CC
F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion.	A	CC
Total		
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

Note: Breaks are subject to change and flow with classroom dynamics. For every instructional hour, ten (10) minutes is allocated as break time (50 minutes of instruction, 10 minute break).

TRAINING DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY

A. Teaching Lecture

1. Definition: A teaching lecture is a formal or informal presentation of information, concepts or principles given by a single individual (AFMAN 36-2236).
2. Types of teaching lectures: Formal and Informal
 - a. Formal Lecture is usually conducted from behind a lectern and there is no verbal interaction between the instructor and the students.
 - 1) The instructor simply tells the students the information without giving the students a chance to intervene and ask questions.
 - 2) The communication is one-way. Usually a Formal Lecture is used with large groups i.e. 50 or more.
 - b. Informal Lecture is conducted with verbal interaction between the instructor and students.
 - 1) Students and the teacher ask questions and provide comments to enhance the lesson.
 - 2) Usually held in groups smaller than 50 people. If the instructor is experienced and able to handle larger groups, they may do an informal lecture with groups larger than 50 people.
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of the Teaching Lecture
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Ideal for introducing a subject and teaching facts
 - 2) Presents information to a large group of students at one time
 - 3) Allows for note taking and reference to other material
 - 4) Effective way of motivating students to learn by a person who has experience
 - 5) Supplement to other methods
 - 6) Prepares students for discussion
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Limits student participation

- 2) Unable to use lecture to teach skills
- 3) Difficult to evaluate learning
- 4) Difficult to maintain students' attention

B. Guided Discussion

1. Definition: Instructor controlled group process in which students share information and experiences to achieve a learning objective.
 - a. A method of teaching using questions to encourage participation
 - b. The learning situation involves exchanging ideas, opinions and experiences
 - c. During guided discussions, facilitators ask questions, pose problems, and direct student participation.
2. Basic Characteristics of a Guided Discussion
 - a. Tied to a standard of performance (measurable)
 - b. Self-contained unit of work
 - c. Adapted to the needs of the learner
 - d. Has a definite structure
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Guided Discussion
 - a. Advantages
 - 1) Allows everyone to participate in the learning situation
 - 2) Pools knowledge and experience of all participants
 - 3) Stimulates and motivates participants when well organized
 - 4) More closely simulates real world situations through discussions
 - b. Disadvantages
 - 1) Can be very time-consuming
 - 2) Limits the number of participants

- 3) Can degenerate quickly if not skillfully controlled
- 4) Some members may feel intimidated or reluctant to participate

C. Preparing the Training Session

There are many ways to prepare a training session. The following are simple guidelines:

1. Develop training objectives

Training objectives – a concise statement that describes what one should be able to do upon completion of training.

- a. Emphasis should be placed on what the trainee can do rather than what they know or how they feel
- b. Objectives describe learning in terms of student outcomes
- c. Measurement of success is based on comparing student performance to the objective

2. Conduct your research – read, review, and research up-to-date information

- a. Internal sources – personal experience and knowledge you already possess
- b. Internet sources – Search engine (e.g. Google, Yahoo, Bing, etc.) will result in numerous hits. Evaluate each site for validity:
 - 1) Accountability – who owns the website?
 - 2) Accuracy – is the information on the site accurate and reliable (closely related to accountability)?
 - 3) Objectivity – is the information biased or objective?
 - 4) Date – Is the information recent?
 - 5) Usability – Is the information presented in a way that is easy to use and understand?
- c. Library sources – can be accessed at the DEOMI library or online through Web OPAC or other library search engines
 - 1) Books
 - 2) Periodicals

- 3) Full-text databases
 - 4) Newspapers
 - 5) Government documents
 - d. Expert resources – educators, professionals, organizations
3. Organize your lesson (Develop a teaching plan)
- a. Develop training content – training content is the information, definitions, descriptions, concepts, and skills that you present
 - b. Build an outline
 - c. Select your teaching pattern or strategy
 - 1) Chronological or Sequential – arranging the content in the time order or in the order in things occurred
 - 2) Cause-Effect – one set of conditions is presented as the cause of another set
 - 3) Problem-Solution – “disease-remedy” pattern. Presents a problem and proposes a solution
 - 4) Pro-Con – usually equally covers two sides to an issue
 - 5) Topical – categorizing the main points by topic
 - d. Prepare your introduction – A teaching lecture and guided discussion are introduced in the same way with attention, motivation, and overview steps.
 - 1) Attention - the primary purpose is to gain the audience’s attention and focus them on the topic
 - 2) Motivation - Describe the specific reason why the students need to participate in this lesson
 - 3) Overview
 - e. Develop your questions

During a guided discussion, the content for each lesson objective is discovered through question and answer rather than the instructor “telling” students as they would in a teaching lecture.

While some of your questions during the guided discussion are spontaneous, you need to develop your lead-off questions and follow-up questions as you develop your teaching plan.

- 1) Lead-off questions (LOQ) – opens areas for discussion

You should have a LOQ for each main point in discussion. A lead off question (LOQ) is used to initiate (spark) discussion and to get students thinking about the first main point you presented in the overview.

- 2) Follow-up questions (FUQ) – solicits specific responses to cover lesson content
- 3) Spontaneous questions – used to extract more information and keep the discussion moving

f. Determine training time frames

- 1) Total time of training event
- 2) Time within each main point
- 3) Time within introduction and conclusion

g. Select training materials

- 1) Develop participant's guide or other handouts
- 2) Develop training tools (e.g. PowerPoint visuals, chart paper, markers, videos, etc.)

D. Delivering the Training Session

1. Personalizing your lesson plan

- a. Purpose – Personalization is the act of adding individual subject matter knowledge to the instructional process.
- b. Examples of personalization
 - 1) Subject matter detail
 - 2) Instructional techniques
 - 3) Personal experiences
 - 4) Examples and analogies

- 5) Introduction, transitions and conclusion
2. Characteristics common to good instructors
 - a. Effective instructors are ***knowledgeable***
 - 1) Become the Subject Matter Expert
 - 2) Know more about the subject than your students
 - b. Effective instructors possess ***ability***
 - 1) Leadership
 - a) Planning and organizational skills
 - b) Flexibility
 - c) Make best use of resources
 - d) Monitor progress and results
 - e) Discipline and reward
 - f) Skill to influence or persuade others
 - g) Maintain self-control
 - h) Lead by example
 - 2) Instructional skills
 - a) Know principles, methods, and techniques of instruction
 - b) How and when to apply them
 - c) Know the strategy and lesson content
 - c. ***Personality*** traits effective instructors possess
 - 1) Sincere
 - 2) Non-judgmental
 - 3) Patient

- 4) Integrity
- 5) Understanding
- d. Effective instructors are good *communicators*
 - 1) Students understand why the information needs to be learned
 - 2) Inspire, encourage, persuade, motivate
- e. Effective instructors have an *intrinsic desire to teach*
- f. Effective instructors have *respect* of students

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented:

- A. Describe the teaching lecture
- B. Describe the guided discussion
- C. Describe how to prepare for a training session
- D. Describe how to deliver a training session

The following topics will be conducted and evaluated for our Guided Discussion Activity:

- E. Prepare a teaching plan
- F. Demonstrate effective techniques for facilitating a guided discussion

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
December 2014

EOA 3000

POWER AND PRIVILEGE



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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson will demonstrate that power and its associated privilege can sometimes create exclusive work environments at the expense of others. Power and privilege can also make it possible for certain groups to obtain and maintain control over those who have limited power and privilege, which can lead to discriminatory practices. It is the intent of this lesson to point out facts showing relationship between the powerful and the privileged. In this lesson, students will discover how ingrained and taken for granted power and privilege are and how they impact society. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional, you must understand that privilege and power are human relation issues that affect unit cohesion and mission accomplishment.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide and Star Power activity

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

3. PowerPoint Slide® Presentation – Power and Privilege
4. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how power and privilege impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define power.	K	CRT
B. Identify the types of power.	K	CRT
C. Identify the misuse (abuse) of power.	K	CRT
D. Define privilege.	K	CRT
E. Recall the types of privilege.	K	CRT
F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).	K	CRT
G. Recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.	K	CRT
The Introduction and Summary should each take approximately 10% of the total formal lecture time. K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Note: Breaks are subject to change and flow with classroom dynamics. For every instructional hour, ten (10) minutes is allocated as break time (50 minutes of instruction, 10 minute break).

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Star Power	Recognize effects of power among individuals	ISDE
Note: Break times are at the discretion of the instructor/facilitator. Recommend 10 minute breaks for every one hour of lecture/facilitation.		

POWER AND PRIVILEGE

A. Definition of Power

Merriam-Webster (2013) defines power as “the ability or official capacity to exercise control over others; a person, group, or nation having great influence or control over others.”

B. Identify the Types of Power

1. Types of power (Cartwright & Zander, 1968)

a) Political power

In the official capacity, political power is held by the political leader of a state, such as a president, prime minister, or monarch. Political powers are not limited to heads of states, however, the extent to which a person or group holds such power is related to the amount of societal influence they can wield, formally or informally.

b) Physical Power:

The energy or motive force by which a physical system or machine is operated (e.g. turbines turned by steam power; a sailing ship driven by wind power; the human body digesting food and water).

c) Social power:

The potential influence of one person over another.

2. Bases of Social Power (Hershey & Blanchard, 2012)

a. Legitimate power

Based on a person in a higher position having control over people in a lower position in an organization.

b. Coercive power

Based on a person that leads by threat, real or imagined force. Fear of being hurt, poorly treated, or dismissed allows the wielders of this power to rule over the fearful. It is unlikely to win respect and loyalty of employees for long.

c. Reward power

Based on the person that motivates others by offering raises, recognition, promotions, awards, money, or goods to follow.

d. Expert power

Based on the person that sets the perception that one possesses superior skills, talent or knowledge.

e. Referent power

Based on the person that has the ability to convey a sense of personal acceptance or approval. It is held by people with charisma, integrity, and other positive qualities. It is the most valuable type of power.

f. Information power

Based on a person that possesses needed or necessary information for the successful functioning of the organization or mission. This is a short-term power that doesn't necessarily influence or build credibility.

g. Connection power

Based on a person that attains influence by gaining favor or simply acquaintance with a powerful person. This power is more commonly referred to as "networking" these days.

3. Categories of Power (French and Raven, 1959)

a. Formal (*Positional*) Power:

- 1) Formal power is conferred on a person; it is not necessarily earned. In other words, formal power is a function of position not necessarily ability.
- 2) It is a function of position, rank, or status.
- 3) Authority is given to a person that holds a certain position in the organization and is supported by the organization.
- 4) It may include the ability to reward and punish.

b. Informal (*Personal*) Power:

- 1) Informal power comes from forms of leverage; these types of power must be earned and maintained. Unlike formal power bases they cannot be conferred.
- 2) It is mostly a function of ability, personality, or association.
- 3) It may be based on knowledge and skills.

- 4) Power based on expertise can only be exercised if others recognize the ability and have a use for it.
- 5) May be based on trust developed through friendship or personality characteristics.
- 6) Trust as a power base builds on common goals, fosters good relationships, and can overcome authority relationship viewed as negative.
- 7) May be based on association with a group or another person perceived to have power.

C. Identify the Misuse (Abuse) of Power

1. Definition:

“Abuse of Power- Improper use of authority by someone who has a position of power in an abusive way” (West’s Encyclopedia of American Law, 2nd ed.)

Abuse of power can take many forms, such as:

- a. Taking advantage of someone,
- b. Gaining access to information that shouldn’t be accessible to the public, or
- c. Manipulating someone with the ability to punish them if they don’t comply (Cuming, 1981).

2. Types of Abuse (Supervisory/Position)

In recent times, reports of power and its use have come to the forefront when analyzing unit readiness in the U.S. Armed Forces (Inspector General’s Office). Supervisors, those who retain “formal power” (positional power) can abuse their power in many ways.

- a. **Speech:** Supervisors can abuse their power through their speech, including making criticisms about employees’ physical appearance, work skills and intellect.
- b. **Tone:** The tone of a supervisor’s voice for example. A supervisor raising her voice at an employee or using foul language can constitute emotional abuse.
- c. **Ignoring/threatening:** Ignoring and threatening employees with paycheck reductions or loss of a promotion are abusive.
- d. **Physical:** Touching, hitting, and slapping are all indications of the misuse of power.

3. Abuse of Power and its Effects

As an EOA, you may see the effects associated with the abuse of power within an organization. Using the climate assessment survey otherwise known as the DEOCS, you may see issues and concerns that need to be addressed.

EOAs need to address these issues with their commands to minimize negative effects, such as stress, low self-esteem, and distress.

- a. The U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey conducted by the *Workplace Bullying and Trauma Institute* in September 2007 found that employees who suffered from abuse experienced a significant amount of stress at work and the stress lasted longer than a year, which impacted employee health.
- b. Moreover, employees reported feeling mentally distressed, which affected their focus at work.
- c. Other studies by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES), associated with the U.S. Department of Education (Counseling Outfitters) showed that employees dealing with workplace abuse suffer from lack of self-esteem and decreased productivity.

4. The Consequences of Abuse of Power

Supervisors who abuse their authority at work can face serious consequences.

- a. Lawsuits and fines
- b. UCMJ action
- c. Other non-judicial punishment

5. Resources

- a. Chain of Command
- b. Inspector General (IG)
- c. Labor relations agencies
- d. State and federal agencies that handle abuse and harassment in the workplace.

Note: If the abuse becomes physical, employees should contact law enforcement or other legal authorities.

D. Definition of Privilege

1. Privilege Defined

- a. A special advantage, immunity, permission, right, or benefit granted to or enjoyed by an individual, class, or caste. (Merriam-Webster Online, 2013)
- b. An advantage, immunity, or right held as a prerogative of status or rank, and exercised to the exclusion or detriment of others.

2. Privilege can be Earned or Unearned

- a. “Earned Privilege” is acquired as a result of effort or action.
- b. “Unearned Privilege” is an advantage based on social group membership (in-group) that simultaneously disadvantages members outside that social group (out-group).

Furthermore, members of advantaged social groups typically are unaware of their privileges, whereas members of disadvantaged social groups typically are sensitized to the disadvantages of not having the privilege (McIntosh, 1988; Wildman, et.al. 1996).

E. Recall the Types of Privilege

According to the University of Vermont and Media Smarts (2014) privilege can also be linked to various forms of identity such as:

1. Race/Ethnicity

Privileges associated with an individual’s race/ethnicity is considered unearned. Historically, racial privilege was based upon the dominant culture. However, all races and ethnicities have some form of privilege; though, some have more than others (Parillo, 2007)

2. Socioeconomic Privilege

Socioeconomic privilege includes individual attitudes, behaviors, and systems of policies and practices that are set up to benefit the upper classes at the expense of the lower classes.

Socioeconomic privilege, also known as classism or elitism, is grounded in a hierarchy belief system that ranks people according to socioeconomic status, family lineage, and other class related divisions.
(Parillo, 2007)

3. Sexual Orientation Privilege

Sexual orientation privilege is associated with the marginalization of nonheterosexual lifestyles and the view that heterosexuality is the normal sexual orientation. Instances of this include the idea that people fall into two distinct and complementary categories (male and female), that sexual and marital relations are normal only when between people of different sexes, and that each sex has certain natural roles in life.

Department of Defense Directive 1020.02, *Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity in the Department of Defense* (2009) establishes policy, assigns responsibilities, and provides an overarching framework for DoD diversity, military EO, and civilian equal employment opportunity (EEO) programs and plans to prevent unlawful discrimination.

In July 2014, President Obama signed an Executive Order banning Federal contractors from discriminating against employees on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity (CNN Politics, 2014).

All Service members, regardless of sexual orientation, are entitled to an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. Harassment or abuse based on sexual orientation is unacceptable and will be dealt with through command or IG channels.

However, perceived privileges associated with sexual orientation are evident in today's society.

Historically, a heterosexual orientation came with certain privileges, such as:

- a. Public recognition and support for an intimate relationship
- b. Kissing, hugging, and being affectionate in public without threat or punishment

As an EOA, it is important to note that **sexual orientation will not** be considered with race, color, religion, sex, and national origin as a class under the Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) program and will not be handled through the MEO complaint process.

Executive Order 11478, section 1 prohibits discrimination in employment based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, handicap, or age, and to promote the full realization of equal employment opportunity through a continuing affirmative program in each executive department and agency. This policy of equal opportunity applies to and must be an integral part of every aspect of personnel policy and practice in the employment, development, advancement, and treatment of civilian employees of the Federal Government

4. Sex (Biological)

- a. Sex privilege is a term used to describe the perceived freedoms granted to a person (normally heterosexual) based upon their biological sex (e.g. public displays of affection, etc.).
- b. Transsexual, transgender, and sometimes homosexual populations, are denied the freedom enjoyed by heterosexual couples.

5. Religion

- a. Religious privilege is seen in a society that provides its dominant religion special status. The favoring of religious beliefs and religious figures is predominating within a society.
- b. Many societies privilege religions by providing official sanction and support for their holy days. Religious holy days have become official holidays.

The U.S. Constitution proscribes Congress from enacting any law prohibiting the free exercise of religion.

c. Religious Accommodation in the DoD

As described in DoDI 1300.17, *Accommodation of Religious Practices Within the Military Services*, the DoD places a high value on the rights of members of the military services to observe the tenets of their respective religions. It is DoD policy that requests for accommodation of religious practices should be approved by commanders when accommodation will not have an adverse impact on mission accomplishment, military readiness, unit cohesion, standards, or discipline.

Note: Federal government employees may file claims of discrimination under the Part 1614 EEO process on any of the bases covered under the laws EEOC enforces, and/or may also utilize additional complaint procedures described in EEO law.

F. Recall Social Dominance Theory (Dominant Group Privilege)

In your role as an EOA, specifically when assessing the organizational climate or even processing a complaint, you should be aware of some potential privileges associated with dominant groups. These privileges cause concern when they influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The theory behind social dominance in our society will help shed light on some issues and concerns seen by an EOA.

1. Social Dominance Theory

According to social dominance theory, societies are organized into group-based hierarchies with inequitable distributions of limited resources favoring dominant groups at the expense of subordinates (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Social dominance theory proposes that societies contain ideologies that either promote or attenuate intergroup hierarchies (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).

The acceptance of ideologies that legitimize inequality and behavior that produce inequality is partly determined by people's general desire for group-based dominance, which is captured by a construct associated with dominant group privilege. This allows the dominant group to maintain control and their privileges.

2. Privilege and Discrimination

Within social dominance theory, individual and structural distinctions are made among groups based on gender and —arbitrary-set distinctions such as race, ethnicity, class, nationality, or religion (Sidanius et al., 2004, p. 861).

Dominant groups derive psychological and material rewards from the privileges, esteem, and power they receive in the traditional status of hierarchy (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Social dominance theory indicates that constant group-based oppression can influence systematic institutional and individual discrimination (Levin, 2004).

Many social institutions, such as organizations, and powerful individuals disproportionately allocate (control) desired goods, such as selection for employment, power, and prestige, to members of dominant and privileged groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Institutional discrimination can be accounted for in terms of consensual discrimination based upon specific societal norms embodied in the institution, which prescribe the nature and extent of this discrimination (Rubin & Hewstone, 2004).

3. Dominant Group Demographics

The dominant group is the group with more power and privilege over minority groups. According to the 2012 statistics from the U.S. Census Bureau, the dominant groups within the U.S. are:

- a. Race: White alone, not Hispanic or Latino = 63%
- b. Gender: Females = 50.8%

From a statistical perspective, White females are narrowly identified as the dominant group. However, when identifying the dominant group (the group with the power and perceived

privilege) within a society, we sometimes have to look beyond the statistics and focus on who has the power and privilege.

Understanding this concept may help an EOA understand the social dynamic of an organization during climate assessments and any possible discriminatory practices or behaviors associated with privilege.

G. Recall Strategies to Address Power and Privilege

The following strategies will help the EOA recognize and address power and privilege.

1. Be aware of your surroundings. See if you can identify inequality, based upon power and privilege, while at work, watching television, listening to the news, or playing video games.

In day-to-day operations, keep in mind that privilege exists and it is real. However, it may not be overt.

2. Point out instances in which members of groups other than your own are being hampered by their exclusion from privilege.
3. Consider making a statement, write a letter, post a blog, or generate discussions/dialogue on instances of privilege that create inequality.
4. Acknowledge your privilege when it is pointed out to you and take that opportunity to learn something new about privilege.
5. Privilege will never go away until the systems in our society that cause discrimination go away.

In your own daily life, work to make those inequitable systems visible and call them into question when you can so that someday we all enjoy the benefits of being on equal footing with each other.

6. Address privilege philosophies that may influence discriminatory practices or lead to inequality within the organization, which can impact mission readiness.

The following can be associated behavior of an individual or group of people who may have a privileged identity as described by Sherry K. Watt (2001) in her paper "Difficult Dialogues, Privilege and Social Justice: Uses of the Privileged Identity Exploration (PIE) Model," in *The College Student Affairs Journal*:

- a. Denial
Persons displaying denial may acknowledge the injustice, but make contradictory statements that indicate that they are having difficulty accepting it as a reality.

b. Minimization

To represent as having at a least degree of importance or value.

Today some dominant group members may talk about race and gender issues and minimize racism and sexism by saying, “Personal achievement mostly depends on personal ability. Racism or sexism isn’t prevalent anymore.”

c. Deflection

A person employing a Deflection defense may make a comment that avoids coming to terms with the realities of racism or heterosexism by deflecting the focus toward a less threatening target such as another individual or institution.

d. Rationalization

This defense can be identified by behavior in which an individual supplies a logical response regarding why atrocities happen in the realm of racism, sexism, heterosexism, and ableism.

An individual might present an alternative reason that does not require him or her to explore the roots of injustice in more depth.

e. Intellectualization

An Intellectualization defense can be identified when a person avoids feeling dissonant by focusing on the intellectual aspects associated with the topics of social injustice.

Intellectualization can lead to understanding that it can be used to, not only project power, but to also guard against the loss of it.

f. Principium

This defense can be identified by behaviors where one is avoiding exploration based on a religious or personal principle.

A person using this philosophy might state, “I find it upsetting and disheartening that homosexuals, or anyone for that matter, would have to bear such injustices. However, I do not believe that it is an injustice or discriminatory act to not allow homosexuals couples to cross the threshold of qualifications to be married.”

g. Benevolence

A Benevolence defense is when one presents behavior that displays an overly sensitive attitude toward a social and political issue based on a charity act.

7. Become Personally Aware of Privilege

- a. To decode your social identity, examine your memberships in empowered groups:

- 1) Consider the associated privileges.
 - 2) Think about how you define what is normal.
 - 3) Realize that accepting your privileges may make you uncomfortable.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations that you use to justify privilege, and identify the logical flaws or personal dissonance.
- b. Examine your memberships in marginalized groups:
- 1) Consider the associated disadvantages of group membership.
 - 2) Think about the aspects of your social identity that makes you different than normal.
 - 3) Become aware of and understand the coping strategies you use to maintain self-esteem in relation to your membership.
 - 4) Recognize the rationalizations that others use to justify your disadvantages, and identify the logical flaws.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented:

- A. Define power.
- B. Identify the types of power.
- C. Identify the misuse (abuse) abuse of power.
- D. Define privilege.
- E. Recall the types of privilege.
- F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).
- G. Recall the strategies to recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
December 2014

EOA 3050

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Recognizing personal prejudice and acts of discrimination is an important responsibility of an EOA. This lesson emphasizes how prejudice and discrimination impact society and the military. It is imperative to identify acts of illegal discrimination and take immediate action to resolve them. As an EOA, you must recognize how the manifestation of personal prejudice and the acts of discrimination can adversely impact leadership, unit cohesion, and mission accomplishment. This course includes one lesson of instruction.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint Slide® Presentation–Prejudice and Discrimination
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how prejudice and discrimination impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define prejudice.	K	CRT
B. Describe the levels of prejudice.	K	CRT
C. Define discrimination.	K	CRT
D. Describe the types of discrimination.	K	CRT
E. Describe institutional discrimination.	K	CRT
F. Describe the categories of prejudice and discrimination.	K	CRT
G. Describe how prejudice and discrimination can manifest.	K	CRT
H. Describe how power affects prejudice and discrimination.	K	CRT
<p>K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation</p> <p>Note: Breaks are subject to change and flow with classroom dynamics. For every instructional hour, ten (10) minutes is allocated as break time (50 minutes of instruction, 10 minute break).</p>		

Note: Breaks are subject to change and flow with classroom dynamics. For every instructional hour, ten (10) minutes is allocated as break time (50 minutes of instruction, 10 minute break).

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Poker Power	To recognize how personal and institutional discrimination act together to deny certain groups equal opportunity within a system	ISDE

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION

A. Definition of Prejudice

Preferred definition: Prejudice is an unreasonable negative attitude toward others because of their membership in a particular group. The quality that makes an attitude unreasonable is that it does not readily get modified when exposed to new and conflicting information (Fishbein, 2002, p. 5).

B. Levels of Prejudice

1. Cognitive prejudice

Refers to a stereotype. Whether favorable or unfavorable, a stereotype is an overgeneralization or exaggeration that ignores individual differences within a group.

2. Emotional prejudice

Refers to emotions and feelings of hostility or liking. Might be found in attitudes toward members of particular classes such as race, ethnicity, national origin, or creed.

3. An action-oriented level of prejudice

The positive or negative predisposition to engage in discriminatory behavior.

C. Define Discrimination

Discrimination is unfairly treating a person or group of people differently from other people or groups of people (Merriam-Webster online, 2014).

The five protected categories in accordance with DoDD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program*, are race, color, national origin, sex, and religion. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended includes age and disability.

D. Types of Discrimination

1. Type A: Isolate discrimination

Occurs when an individual purposely acts to harm members of another group.

2. Type B: Small-group discrimination

Harmful action taken intentionally by a small number of dominant-group individuals acting in concert against members of another group, without the direct support of the norms and of most social or community context.

3. Type C: Direct institutionalized discrimination

Defined as organizationally prescribed or community-prescribed action that by intention has a differential and negative impact on members of another group. These actions are not sporadic but are carried out routinely by a large number of members of another group guided by the legal or informal norms of the immediate organizational or community context.

4. Type D: Indirect institutionalized discrimination

Consists of dominant-group practices having a harmful impact on members of another group even though the organizationally or community-prescribed norms or regulations guiding those actions have been established with no intent to harm.

E. Institutional Discrimination

1. Carried out by the dominant group against non-dominant groups because it is the dominant group that generally controls the social institutions. Impact of institutional discrimination can be seen in society and the military (Plous, 2009).

2. Impact on Society: Employment

- a. Hiring practices such as last hired, first fired; higher likelihood that members will be fired during job layoffs because they were the most recently hired.
- b. Education requirements – Individuals who have been segregated to lesser funded schools cannot find employment in businesses that hire according to specified credentials that inferior schools do not offer.

3. Impact on Society: Housing

- a. Steering - A practice that may be used to place minorities in predominately minority neighborhoods.
- b. Red lining - Specifically used by insurance companies to discriminate against individuals living within specific areas (Housing and Urban Development).
- c. Zoning - Practice of marking areas of land and establishing specific restrictions affecting racial demographics.

4. Impact on Society: Education

- a. Testing – Tests used to measure the academic standing of students that may have inherent cultural bias.
 - b. Textbooks – School boards select textbooks. Many textbooks presently in use provide little or no information on minority groups, their minority histories, and contributions that minorities have made to American culture.
 - c. Teacher Testing/Hiring - Historically minorities have lower scores than the majority on teacher qualifying tests, and thus, do not qualify for teaching positions.
5. Impact on the Military: Individual
- a. Individual Recruitment - Based on gender, test scores, education level, moral waivers, and regional recruitment.
 - b. Retention - Some career fields are closed to women.
6. Impact on the Military: Unit
- a. Unit Readiness - In the Navy during the Civil War, African Americans were restricted to positions of servants, cooks, assistant gunners, or powder boys. During WWI, Filipinos (who were denied U.S. citizenship) served in the Navy as cooks, waiters, pantry-men, dishwashers, custodians, bed-makers, and valets.
 - b. Mission Effectiveness - Statistics show Whites are the majority in senior leadership positions (i.e. flag officers, general officers, and Senior Executive Service) and lend itself to the perpetuation of racism. What appears as discriminatory is that the percentages of non-Whites and females in military high ranking positions are significantly lower than the general population.

F. Categories of Prejudice and Discrimination

The following category descriptions were taken from the U.S. Equal Opportunity Employment Commission:

1. Race discrimination

Involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because he/she is of a certain race or because of personal characteristics associated with race such as hair texture, skin color, or certain facial features.

2. Color discrimination involves treating someone unfavorably because of skin color complexion.

- a. Race/color discrimination also can involve treating someone unfavorably because the person is married to (or associated with) a person of a certain race or color or because of a person's connection with a race-based organization or group, or an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain color.
 - b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same race or color.
3. Sex discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of that person's sex. Can involve treating someone less favorably because of his/her connection with an organization or group that is generally associated with people of a certain sex.
 4. Religious discrimination involves treating a person (an applicant or employee) unfavorably because of his/ her religious beliefs.
 - a. The law protects not only people who belong to traditional, organized religions, such as Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, and Judaism, but also others who have sincerely held religious, ethical, or moral beliefs.
 - b. Religious discrimination also involves treating someone differently because that person is married to (or associated with) an individual of a particular religion or because of his/her connection with a religious organization or group.
 5. National origin discrimination involves treating people (applicants or employees) unfavorably because they are from a particular country or part of the world, because of ethnicity or accent, or because they appear to be of a certain ethnic background.
 - a. National origin discrimination also involves treating people unfavorably because they are married to (or associated with) a person of a certain national origin or because of their connection with an ethnic organization or group.
 - b. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are the same national origin.
 6. Disability discrimination occurs when an employer or other entity covered by the Americans with Disabilities Act, as amended, or the Rehabilitation Act, as amended, treats a qualified individual with a disability who is an employee or applicant unfavorably because they have a disability.
 - a. Disability discrimination also occurs when a covered employer or other entity treats an applicant or employee less favorably because they have a history of a disability (such as cancer that is controlled or in remission) or because they believed to have a physical or mental impairment that is not transitory (lasting or expected to last six months or less) and minor (even if his/she does not have such an impairment).

- b. The law requires an employer to provide reasonable accommodation to an employee or job applicant with a disability, unless doing so would cause significant difficulty or expense for the employer (i.e. “undue hardship”).
 - c. The law also protects people from discrimination based on their relationship with a person with a disability (even if they do not themselves have a disability). For example, it is illegal to discriminate against an employee because his/her spouse has a disability.
7. Age discrimination involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) less favorably because of his/her age.
 - a. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) only forbids age discrimination against people who are age 40 or older. It does not protect workers under the age of 40, although some states do have laws that protect younger workers from age discrimination.
 - b. It is not illegal for an employer or other covered entity to favor an older worker over a younger one, even if both workers are age 40 or older.
 - c. Discrimination can occur when the victim and the person who inflicted the discrimination are both over 40.
8. Sexual orientation refers to a person’s emotional, romantic, and sexual attraction to individuals of a particular gender (male or female). Sometimes referred to as sexual preference, though this term adds the concept of sexuality as fluid and incorporates the element of choice. Sexual identity is often interpreted as describing an individual’s perception of their own sex, rather than sexual orientation. (American Psychological Association)
 - a. People are classified as heterosexual if their sexual focus is primarily people of the opposite sex/gender, homosexual if it is people of the same sex/gender, and bisexual if it is both men and women. Terms straight, gay, and lesbian are less formal terms; used by people to describe themselves and their friends and family. Sexual orientation discrimination occurs in the workplace because of prejudices among employees, preconceived notions, or misunderstandings of legally binding protections. Employees expect to be treated according to their role and performance at work, not their sexual orientation.
 - b. Federal laws protect employees from discrimination and/or harassment on the basis of many factors. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawed discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 provide protections for people based on age or disabilities.
 - c. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) Federal employees are protected by Executive Order 11478, as amended by Executive Order 13087, signed by President

Clinton in 1998, to protect against discrimination over sexual preference in hiring, firing and promoting federal employees.

9. Specific manifestations of prejudice and discrimination can be found in the following protected categories in accordance with DoDD 1350.2, *Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program* and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act as amended:
 - a. Race
 - b. Color
 - c. Religion
 - d. Sex
 - e. National origin
 - f. Age
 - g. Disability

10. The DoD Human Goals Charter (2014) states

...We strive:

To make military service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion or national origin. To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

Executive order 13087 has made it illegal to discriminate against Federal civilians because of sexual orientation.

11. The DoD Human Goals Charter (2013) further states:

...We strive:

To provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, or genetic information, without reprisal and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.

G. How Prejudice and Discrimination Can Manifest

1. In-group versus Out-group

- a. In-group (most like me) = In-group bias
 - b. Out-group (least like me) = Out-group homogeneity
2. Social Learning and Conformity
- a. Laws, regulations, and norms of segregation or unequal access, which maintain the power of dominant groups over subordinate ones
 - b. Mass media - Media's portrayal of racial and ethnic groups may be a person's principal source of information. If the media communicates primarily in stereotypes and the viewer has little opportunity for personal contact with members of that minority, the probability of the stereotype becoming the reality to the viewer is high.
 - c. Educational system - Schools share responsibility for socializing groups of young people in particular skills and values in our society.
 - d. Structure and functioning of work organizations.
 - e. Actively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Verbally or physically harassing target group members
 - 2) Telling oppressive or offensive jokes
 - 3) Perpetuating stereotypes
 - 4) Avoiding "out group"
 - 5) Considering prejudice and discrimination to be a thing of the past
 - f. Inactively contributing to prejudice and discrimination:
 - 1) Condoning or accepting the status quo
 - 2) Ignoring acts of discrimination
3. Integrated Threat Theory - perceived group threat or perceptions of threatened group interests occur when in-group members see an out-group as posing negative consequences to the interests of their in-group.
- a. Realistic Threats - threats to political, economic, physical or material well-being of in-group
 - b. Symbolic Threats - perceived threats to in-groups morals, values, standards, beliefs and attitudes

- c. Intergroup Anxiety - fear about negative outcomes for self, such as being embarrassed, rejected or ridiculed
- d. Stereotypes - when expectations are negative, conflict or unpleasant interactions are likely to be anticipated

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented:

- A. Define power.
- B. Identify the types of power.
- C. Identify the misuse (abuse) abuse of power.
- D. Define privilege.
- E. Recall the types of privilege.
- F. Recall social dominance theory (dominant group privilege).
- G. Recall the strategies to recognize and address the negative effects of power and privilege.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
December 2014

EOA 3100

RACISM



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson is designed to ensure that each student can form the necessary framework to understand sources, causes, forms, and contemporary manifestations of racism, racial discrimination and related intolerance issues. Emphasis is placed on the different definitions of race and the significance of the social definition of race. The instructor will combine an overview of the lesson plan 3100 Racism lecture's key points with small group activities designed to reinforce these key points and strengthen the learner's comprehension of how this knowledge impacts the duties of an EOA.

Recommended Reading

1. *Historical Overview of Racism in the Military*
2. *American Anthropological Association Statement on "Race"*

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® Slide Presentation–Racism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how racism impacts the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

Enabling Learning Objectives	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define race.	K	CRT
B. Define racism.	K	CRT
C. Describe types of racism.	K	CRT
D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.	K	CRT
E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.	K	CRT
F. Recognize racist behavior.	K	CRT
G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.	K	CRT
H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.	K	CRT
I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.	K	CRT
Total Lecture Time:		
The Introduction and Summary should each take approximately 10% of the total formal lecture time. K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

RACISM

A. Define Race

1. *“A division of human beings identified by the possession of traits that are transmissible by descent and that are sufficient to characterize persons possessing these traits as a distinctive human genotype”* (DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, p. 19).
2. A group of people who are generally considered to be physically distinct in some way (e.g., skin color, hair texture, or facial features such as size and shape of the head, eyes, ears, lips, nose, color of eyes) from other groups and are generally considered by themselves and/or others to be a distinct group (Farley, 1995).
3. In October 1997, the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) announced the revised standards for federal data on race and ethnicity. The categories for race are now:
 - a. American Indian or Alaska Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - e. White

Note: Ethnicity:

- Hispanic or Latino
- Not Hispanic or Latino

B. Define Racism

Common elements of racism:

1. Prejudice and discrimination based on differences.
2. A belief in the superiority of one over another.

C. Describe Types of Racism

Types

1. Individual Racism: Belief that one’s own race is superior to another (racial prejudice) and exhibits behaviors that suppress the inferior race (racial discrimination).

- a. Examples of *racist attitudes* include bigotry, belittling, and jealousy.
 - b. Examples of *racist beliefs* include racial stereotyping, classifying people according to race, and thinking that some races are better than others.
 - c. Examples of *racist behavior* include violence, name-calling, and discrimination in hiring practices.
2. Institutional Racism: Takes the form of the practices, customs, rules, and standards of organizations, including governments that unnecessarily disadvantage people because of their race, color, or ethnicity.
- a. Consists of established laws, customs, and practices that systematically reflect and produce racial inequalities in U.S. society.
 - b. Is embedded in policies that have generally become accepted as normal, and may or may not have been intentionally written to practice racism.
 - c. More subtle, less visible, and less identifiable than individual acts of racism. Managers may not be racists as individuals, but they may discriminate as part of carrying out their jobs, without being aware their role is contributing to a discriminatory outcome.

D. Recognize the Difference between Intentional and Unintentional Racism

Forms of Racism (Kinder & Sears, 1981)

1. Intentional or unintentional racism due to social relationships between people which are structured by perceived biological and/or cultural differences.
2. *Intentional racism*: conscious act, usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.
3. *Unintentional racism*: unconscious act not usually motivated by prejudice or intent to harm. It is still damaging. Prejudice underlies the end result.
4. Examples include:
 - a. A White waiter who serves a Hispanic patron last even though the Hispanic person put an order in first. This could be *intentional or unintentional racism* depending on whether or not the waiter was aware of what she/he was doing.
 - b. A police officer who handles an African American suspect much more roughly or the bombing of a Black church describe *intentional or conscious racism* because they are motivated by prejudice or intent to harm.

- c. A teacher's conveyance of beliefs/prejudices can be *unintentional or unconscious*. A lack of understanding of the student's background leads the teacher to misjudge the student through his or her own cultural lens. As a result, the student does poorly in the class.

E. Recognize the Difference between Overt and Covert Racism

1. *Overt racism*: blatant, obvious, and almost always meant to harm; can lead to mental and physical injury, violent destruction, or even death (Scarville, 1997).
2. *Covert racism*: hidden, usually subtle, difficult to document treatment, which proves harmful to members of subordinate racial groups (Scarville, 1997). Originates within established and respected forces in society, therefore, receives far less public condemnation.
 - a. Often oblivious to the victim, but not as overt as traditional forms of racism.
 - b. Can be individual or institutional.
 - c. More widespread in the United States today than overt racism, but is still very damaging.
 - d. Includes sabotage, tokenism, and is almost always intentional.

F. Recognize Racist Behavior

1. Definition of Racist
 - a. A person who believes that a particular race is superior to another (Oxford Dictionary, 2010).
 - b. Someone who does not like or respect people who belong to races that are different from their own and who believes their race is better than others (MacMillan Dictionary, 2010).
2. Racist Behavior (Gaertner and Dovidio, 1986)
 - a. All racist behavior falls into the sociological phenomena of groups and power dynamics. It is a tool for domination and social control, a psychological tool for dominating one group over another.
 - b. Racist behavior can be:
 - 1) Directed toward an individual or group.

- 2) Intentional (conscious).
 - 3) Unintentional (unconscious).
 - 4) Based on skin color, ethnicity, or race.
 - 5) Perpetrated by an individual and/or an institution.
- c. Examples of racism include graffiti, racial and ethnic slurs, jokes, intimidation, and physical violence.
3. Contemporary Models
- a. Subtle racism appears nonracial on the surface.

Beneath surface are negative attitudes and stereotyped beliefs that affect personal interactions. In organizations, subtle racism has a negative impact on interpersonal relations and breeds institutional racism.
 - b. Forms of Subtle Racism: Traditional, Symbolic, Modern, and Aversive.
 - 1) Traditional: Individual with traditional racist attitudes who acted out bigoted beliefs. Racial attitude measures were comprised of items attempting to assess the presence of prejudice, hostility, and derogatory beliefs.

After about 1965, however, standard racial attitude measures had two problems. First, by the middle 1960's, most White people knew the socially desirable answers so that the then standard items were more likely to trigger politically correct responses than valid attitudes. Second, that generation of items did not correlate well with what should have been racially relevant behavior, for example, reported voting intentions or hiring decisions. Replacement items were then developed. The new items that correlated best with racially relevant behavior were those of an abstract, moral tone, or items that used code words or symbols for blacks. These items were thought to tap a new form of racism called "symbolic racism." (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414–31)
 - 2) Symbolic: Abstract, moral tone, code words, or symbols for races. New surveys tapped into this new form of racism. Replacement items were developed that correlated best with racially relevant behavior (Kinder, 1981, pp. 40, 414–431).
 - 3) Modern: Symbolic racism renamed as "modern racism" (1978) to emphasize the contemporary nature. The principal tenets of modern racism are:
 - a) Discrimination is a thing of the past; blacks now have the freedom to compete in the marketplace and to enjoy those things they can afford.

- b) Blacks are pushing too hard, too fast, and into places where they are not wanted.
 - c) Tactics and demands of activists are unfair.
 - d) Recent gains are undeserved.
 - e) Prestige granting institutions of society are giving blacks more attention and status than they deserve.
 - f) Racism is bad.
 - g) Beliefs of modern racism do not qualify as racist because they are alleged to be empirically grounded (McConahay, 1986, pp. 91–126).
 - h) Those whose beliefs are described as modern racism do not define their own beliefs and attitudes as racist.
- 4) Aversive: Around 1986, the concept of “Aversive Racism” began to emerge. According to this orientation, many white Americans with strong egalitarian values simultaneously have negative feelings and beliefs about blacks. Attitudes need not be consistent and in this case may be the result of conflict between cognition and socialization. Aversive racists put high value on egalitarian beliefs; contradiction between those feelings and racial attitudes was handled by excluding the racist feelings from awareness. Typically avoid close contact with minorities or communicate their underlying negative attitudes in subtle, rationalizable ways. Negativity likely to be demonstrated in discomfort, uneasiness, fear, or avoidance of minorities rather than in outward hostility. Difficult to document aversive racism through the techniques of behavioral research. (Gaertner, 1986, pp. 61–89)

4. Contemporary Views on Racism:

- a. Many U.S. Americans have widely divergent views on whether a problem even exists.
- b. Most minorities see racism as a problem and many feel it has gotten worse.
- c. Racism is often invisible to many White Americans in the U.S. for several general reasons:
 - 1) They suffer less from it.
 - 2) They do not attribute their misfortune to race.
 - 3) They do not always see the suffering that minorities endure.

5. Acting Out

- a. Gordon Allport's (1979) five intensity levels of hostile actions:
 - 1) Antilocution
 - 2) Avoidance
 - 3) Discrimination
 - 4) Physical Attack
 - 5) Extermination
- b. *Antilocution* – Most people who have prejudices talk about them to like-minded friends and occasionally with strangers (e.g., bad-mouthing, name calling), but many never go beyond this mild degree of hostile action.
- c. *Avoidance* – As prejudice becomes more intense, it leads to avoiding members in the disliked group—even if inconvenient. Prejudiced person does not directly harm the disliked person or group; takes on the burden of accommodation and withdrawal. Examples of avoidance include maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, or asking for a transfer).
- d. *Discrimination* – Prejudiced person makes detrimental distinctions by actively excluding all members of the group in question from certain types of employment, residential housing, unequal pay for equal work, giving awards or job assignments based on race, political rights, educational or recreational opportunities, churches, hospitals, or other social privileges.
- e. *Physical Attack* – Majority group vandalizes, burns, or destroys minority group property and carries out violent attacks on individuals or groups. Emotional prejudice leads to acts of violence or semi-violence. Examples of physical attacks include knockout games, unwanted family of another race may be forcibly ejected from a neighborhood or so severely threatened that they leave in fear; this was seen in Nazi Germany during WWII. Gravestones in cemeteries may be desecrated or other property vandalized.
- f. *Extermination* – Majority group seeks extermination or removal of minority group. Examples of extermination include the Wounded Knee Massacre in 1890, an event that ended the last of the Native American Indian wars in American history, marks the ultimate degree of violent expression of prejudice; the Final Solution towards the later part of WWII killing millions of Jews by the Nazis in Germany; Ethnic Cleansing in Bosnia; and Saddam's attempt to exterminate the Kurds in Northern Iraq.

G. Describe Internal and External Factors that Contribute to Racism

1. Internal Factors:

- a. Lack of understanding of the history, experiences, values, and perceptions of ethnic groups other than one's own.
- b. Stereotyping members of an ethnic group without consideration of individual differences within that group.
- c. Ethnocentrism - judging other ethnic groups according to the standards and values of one's own group.
- d. Assigning negative attributes to members of other ethnic groups.

2. External Factors:

- a. Family, peers, and friends are very important influences on the development of individual racism.
- b. Social visibility – differences in physical appearance are easiest differences to identify and use for discrimination.
- c. Contact – the amount and kind of contact develops racial thinking; ideas tend to be vague and partially attributable to ethnocentrism.
- d. Mass media – television, newspapers, magazines, radio, and the Internet—major sources of stereotypical images.
- e. Unequal power – when groups of unequal power interrelate, the stronger group tends to dominate the weaker group. The dominant group resists sharing its powers.
- f. Competition – occurs when two or more individuals are striving for the same, and sometimes scarce, resources; certain groups look at other groups as a threat if they obtain control of one or more of the resources.

H. Identify Historical Events that Contributed to Racism in the Military

1. The “Three R Syndrome”

- a. Reject – Minorities were not allowed to enlist in the armed services at the onset of periods of hostilities.
- b. Recruit – When the need for military personnel increased because of manpower demands and insufficient numbers, minorities were recruited, usually during a conflict and after

enormous casualties. After induction, most minorities were segregated, poorly trained, and/or relegated to low levels or hazardous jobs.

- c. Reject: When hostilities were over, the units were disbanded and the racial minorities were released from any requirements to serve, despite any desire to continue service. In some cases, minorities were denied veterans' benefits.

2. Impact of the "Three R Syndrome"

- a. In colonial times, laws excluded minorities from being provided with arms and/or ammunition. Basis of this was fear of slave revolts that would upset the colonists' economic security and way of life and reverse the roles.
- b. Militia Act of 1792 restricted militia enrollment to only free and able white male citizens.
- c. Marine Corps (1798) adopted a policy forbidding the enlistment of Negroes, Mulattos, and American Indians. Policy remained in effect until 1942.

3. Quota systems

The U.S. Navy had a quota of 5% Blacks until it was forced to be lifted during the Civil War because of a massive personnel shortage.

4. Segregation

- a. Hispanic men were placed in either White or colored units based on their skin color.
- b. Navy Steward's Branch included 72% of all African Americans in the Navy during WWII.
- c. Even after the Fair Employment Practices Commission was established in 1941, the Marines continued to operate segregated basic and field trainings.
- d. Japanese Americans serving in WWII were restricted to the European Theatre due to the leadership's allegations of disloyalty and belief they could not be trusted to fight the Japanese in the Pacific Theatre.

5. Hazardous Duties

- a. American Indians fought both for and against the United States during various conflicts, serving as infantrymen, code talkers, sharpshooters, guides, guerrillas, and spies.
- b. Port Chicago Naval Base, California. July 17, 1944: 202 African American enlisted men were killed and another 233 were injured when two transport vessels loading ammunition suddenly exploded. This accounted for almost 15% of all Black naval casualties during WWII. Protesters were tried and sentenced for mutiny.

- c. In WWI, Filipinos served as dishwashers, custodians, bed-makers, and valets.

6. Historical Examples

- a. Minorities could only serve in the lower pay grades.
- b. Some White officers sacrificed higher rank because they refused to command Black men.
- c. An institutional climate of acceptable discrimination allowed individual racism to flourish.

Desegregation: President Harry S. Truman ordered the desegregation of the Armed Services in July 1948, with Executive Order 9981. The order declared equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the Armed Services with regard to race, color, religion, or national origin. Also established the Gillem Board to determine the best way to integrate the Services.

I. Identify Strategies to Combat Racism in the Military

1. Combating Racism

- a. Awareness – Groups are aware and are making others aware of the existence of individual and institutional racism in its contemporary and subtle forms. Within the unit, celebrations such as National American Indian Heritage Month and Black History Month help promote awareness of the contributions these groups have made to the military and the United States.
- b. Education – Awareness is facilitated through education. Courses, small group discussions, workshops, guest speakers, and movies provide educational opportunities for the unit. Topics related to racism can be addressed, including how racism dehumanizes people, the tremendous financial costs of racism, and contemporary racism.
- c. Participation – An inclusive model of decision-making that is representative of all people promotes diversity and aids in the reduction of racial stereotyping. Active commitment by leadership to initiatives that encourage members of all groups to take advantage of programs and services on base, such as mentoring programs, special interest clubs, and other organizations will also combat racism.
- d. Legislation – Federal, state, and local programs and laws written to ensure equal opportunity for all U.S. citizens. **DoD Directive 1350.2 defines the policy of nondiscrimination in the military.** It sets the standard for all programs, chain of command, responsibilities, and etc. for equal opportunity. Legislative programs and laws

simultaneously provide benefits for significant parts of the majority and for deprived minorities.

- e. Mass Media – Media programs have had positive effect in reducing prejudice. It is an excellent medium to attack prejudicial attitudes and prevent discrimination. Public service announcements, public relations materials, and advertisements that positively depict the diversity of the military and that encourage everyone from all walks of life to enlist are beneficial.
- f. Change – There have been significant positive changes for most racial groups in this country. However, there is still a long way to go to ensure equal opportunity is afforded to all groups. Through proactive actions EOAs can be change agents or champions of changes.

2. Leadership

- a. Leaders set standards that create an environment for everyone to excel free of hostility, intimidation, and unfair treatment. Climate and behavior of an organization is an indicator about the attitudes and actions demonstrated by leaders.
- b. Leadership actions to effectively reduce and eliminate racist behavior:
 - 1) Establish policies prohibiting racist behaviors and racial discrimination.
 - 2) Provide thorough investigations of informal and formal complaints.
 - 3) Adhere to established timelines for complaint investigations.
 - 4) Enforce penalties against offenders.
 - 5) Enforce penalties against unit commanders or other superiors who allow racist behaviors to continue.
 - 6) Ensure information moves up the chain of command on problems and incidents relating to racist behaviors.
 - 7) Protect those who make complaints by ensuring reprisal is not occurring. Ensure all information is a need to know basis.
 - 8) Publicize the availability of hotlines for complaints.
 - 9) Publicize the availability of complaint channels.

- 10) Take extra steps beyond mandatory requirements to understand and correct underlying issues or problems.
- 11) DEOCS

SUMMARY

The following topics were covered in this lesson:

- A. Define race.
- B. Define racism.
- C. Describe types of racism.
- D. Recognize the difference between intentional and unintentional racism.
- E. Recognize the difference between overt and covert racism.
- F. Recognize racist behavior.
- G. Describe internal and external factors that contribute to racism.
- H. Identify historical events that contributed to racism in the military.
- I. Identify strategies to combat racism in the military.

END OF LESSON

DEOMI
366 Tuskegee Airmen Drive
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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
December 2014

EOA 3200

SEXISM



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Sexism is the discrimination against people based on their sex rather than their individual merits. It can refer to three subtly different beliefs or attitudes namely the belief that one sex is superior to the other; the belief that men and women are very different and that this should be strongly reflected in society, language, as well as the law. Sexism can also refer to simple hatred of men (misandry) or women (misogyny). This lesson will emphasize the importance of objectivity, fairness, openness, and avoidance of a personal agenda in the job of an EOA. It is important for an EOA to have some skepticism and to approach problems with empathy rather than sympathy.

Recommended Reading

History of Women in the Military

References

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Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOA Study Guide
2. DEOMI Presentation Skills Handbook

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint® Slide Presentation–Sexism
2. Computer, screen, and speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how sexism impacts the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Identify the foundation of sexism.	K	CRT
B. Define sexist behavior.	K	CRT
C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.	K	CRT
D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.	K	CRT
E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.	K	CRT
F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

SEXISM

A. The Foundation of Sexism

1. Definition of Sexism

Sexism is a belief and attitude that one sex is superior to the other, thereby justifying sexual inequalities. Sexism is a prejudice, which may lead to discrimination based on a person's sex.

2. Sexist Attitudes

May stem from traditional stereotypes of gender roles and may include the belief that a person of one sex is intrinsically superior to a person of the other.

- a. A job applicant may face discriminatory hiring practices, or (if hired) receive unequal compensation or treatment compared to that of their opposite-sex peers. Extreme sexism may foster sexual harassment, sexual assault, and other forms of sexual violence (Doob, 2012).
- b. Although both men and women can be target and victims of sex discrimination, a vast literature show that sex discrimination in the Unites States is overwhelmingly a matter of men targeting women (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995 p.39).
- c. It has been 50 years since the United States Commission on Civil Rights has examined civil rights in the military. The Commission has authority to examine questions related to sexual assault in the military because the issues involve both sex discrimination and the denial of equal protection in the administration of justice.
- d. The issue of sex discrimination involves female Service members, who represent 14 percent of the military population, and the likelihood that they are over five times more likely to experience some form of sexual assault, as defined by the DoD, than their male counterparts (Under Secretary of Defense, 2013).

3. Gender Role and Gender Typing

Gender role socialization is the first aspect of the development of sexism. It is established during our socialization process (McDowell, 1986, p. 168)

- a. Socialization – All encompassing educational process from which values, goals, beliefs, attitudes, and gender roles are acquired. It is an elaborate process by which individuals become distinctive and actively functioning members of the society in which they live. It is the primary method of learning culture.
- b. Gender typing – A socialization process by which children, at an early age, learn appropriate gender roles (Corsini, 1987, pp. 1028).

- 1) Reinforced by family, peers, and the environment
 - 2) Continues throughout an individual's lifetime
 - c. Gender roles – Behaviors, interests, attitudes, skills, and personality traits a culture considers appropriate for males and females (Corsini, 1987, p. 1027).
4. Values and attitudes

Sexism can also be attributed to our values, which enforce our attitudes.

- a. Values – represent something important in our existence; a type of belief, centrally located within our self concept, about how we ought or ought not to behave.
- b. Attitude – as a state of mind or feeling with regard to some matter: a disposition.
- c. Prejudice – An antipathy based upon faulty and inflexible generalization. It may be felt or expressed. It may be directed toward a group as a whole or toward an individual because he/she is a member of that group.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \textit{Values} \\
 + \\
 \textit{Attitudes} \\
 (\textit{Unreasonable and negative}) \\
 = \\
 \textit{Prejudice}
 \end{array}$$

B. Sexist Behavior

1. Definition of Sexist behavior is defined as verbal and/or nonverbal behaviors that convey insulting, offensive, or condescending attitudes based on the gender of the respondent. (Fitzgerald et al., 1988).
2. Dr. Allport's Levels of Intensity

Consider how these levels can be aligned to sexist behavior when acting out prejudice.

- a. Antilocution – Catcalls, bad mouthing, name calling, Examples: babe, chick, the old lady, beefcake, and stud-muffin.
- b. Avoidance – Joining all male/female clubs, maintaining separate work areas, leaving the job, asking for a transfer.

- c. Discrimination – Unequal pay for equal work, establishing all male/female clubs, giving awards or job assignments based on gender.
 - 1) Sex discrimination is defined as treating individuals differently in their employment specifically because of their sex (e.g., unfair or unequal access to professional development resources and opportunities due to a member’s gender). It is illegal to create artificial barriers to career advancement because of an individual’s sex. *Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members (WGRA)* is conducted by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC).
 - 2) Examples of blatant sex discrimination include sexual harassment, sexist language and jokes, physical violence, and other forms of obviously unequal treatment in the family, employment, politics, religion, law, and other areas (Benokratitis & Feagin, 1995, p.39)
- d. Physical attacks – Rape, spouse abuse, sabotage of another’s work, vandalizing property.
- e. Extermination – Killing your spouse, ignoring or pretending they do not exist.

C. Influences that Perpetuate Sexism

1. Mass Media and Stereotyping Allow Sexism to Continue

From a historical perspective, sexism has been perpetuated in many ways.

a. Mass Media

Historically, the mass media portray females as either sexual objects or as people who fight too hard in order to survive in “a man's world.”

b. Stereotyping

Stereotypes may or may not originate in a kernel of truth, they aid people in simplifying their categories, they justify hostility, and sometimes they serve as projection screens for our personal conflict. However, there is an additional and exceedingly important reason for their existence. They are socially supported continually revived and hammered in by our media of mass communication—novels, short stories, newspaper items, movies, stage radio, and television. (Allport, 1979, p. 200)

2. Societal Influences that allow sexism to continue

a. Behavior.

Historically, boys were encouraged to compete from early childhood. They learn that competition is ok and that winning is important. Until recently, girls were more likely to participate in activities which stressed service and cooperation. As a result, studies have

shown that women today tend to react differently to competition than men. Sometimes they will withdraw from competitive situations. Given a choice, they are more likely to set up a cooperative system, rather than a competitive one. They also tend to be more concerned with fairness and will try to equalize relationships, even when they are not equal. For example, they may give credit where it isn't due (Strauss, pp. 17–19; Bem, pp. 19–20).

- b. Ability: It could be said that women and men have different abilities and aptitudes.

Men's and women's bodies are different because of the reproductive design. Differences based on productivity, however, do not generalize to the ability to shoot a gun or wash a baby. Most studies done, do not take into account the effect of lifetime gender role training. (Burke, pp. 192–193)

- c. Psychology/Personality

Some people perceive that factual biological differences result in psychological or personality differences. For example, women are emotional, dependent, won't make calm, logical decisions, women have mood swings—unreliable for positions of responsibility. In a 1995 Newsweek cover story, *The New Science of the Brain: Why Men & Women Think Differently*, the author, Begley, concluded that the “overlap between men's and women's scores on just about every psychological test is huge. Any randomly chosen woman might do better at a ‘male’ skill than a man and vice versa.” She also stated a Yale study which found that, in one particular experiment, “42 percent of the women's brains “worked like the men's.” Perhaps the most arresting implication of the research is not that there are undeniable differences between males and females, but that their differences are so small relative to the possibilities open to them (Burke, pp. 189–192).”

- d. Ignoring, speaking for, clarifying, and interrupting

Discounting input by giving the impression that the speaker has nothing important to say is usually unable or unprepared to respond or is incapable of getting the message across.

- e. Pro-Sexism

Accommodating sexist behavior by reinforcing or encouraging it, rather than questioning, checking, or opposing it. People are pro-sexist for a number of reasons. Some people are socialized to accept it; some go along to be more acceptable—sometimes because it will help them gain power and make more effective changes. Whatever the reason, it is often not an easy choice. Regardless of the intention, a person who is pro-sexist must

understand that the message will be that sexist behavior is ok. (Rhode, 1997, pp. 30–32; 36–37; 63–65)

3. Cultural Influences that Allow Sexism to Continue

From childhood on, many males and females in our culture are taught to exhibit certain behaviors.

The preference for biological rather than cultural explanations is suggestive of accounts once offered. To experts around the turn of the century, an “innate sexual disqualification” rather than “social prejudice” was obviously to blame. Similar, if more subtle, cultural binders remain, much of the research and even more of the media coverage concerning “real differences” present contested findings as established facts. Yet the point on which there is greatest consensus is that experts have reached no consensus on these issues. (Rhode, pp. 28-29)

4. Institutional Roles Influencing the Continuance of Sexism

1. Job role labels—There is such a strong gender association with some jobs—we use labels that set others apart (women doctor, male nurse, female service member) and expect men to do certain jobs and women to hold certain jobs.
2. Unnecessary division—Actor: one who acts, why then say actress? Then there is the waiter, but waitress. Men on airplanes/not stewards—all flight attendants
3. Media—Has continued to turn sexual images of both women and men into entertainment.

D. Historical Events that Contributed to Sexism in the Military

1. Historical Events

Historically, sexism has been perpetuated in the military. To demonstrate the historical behavior, let’s use the Three R Syndrome, first introduced in the racism lesson.

- a. Reject: Army regulations did not allow women to enlist, and so many women masqueraded as men in order to serve their country.
- b. Recruit: Spanish American War 1898—When the United States formally intervened to aid in Cuba’s quest for independence from Spain, only men were recruited for an Army that would fight the Spanish American War. Before the war barely got off the ground, an epidemic of typhoid fever spread through the Army camps. The medical treatment facilities were unsanitary and understaffed for handling the large number of sick and wounded. Because the Army was unable to recruit enough men to provide medical

treatment, Congress authorized the Army to appoint women as Army nurses under contract, but without military status. Some 1,500 women were recruited and served for approximately four years.

- c. **Reject:** It was emphasized that the nurses were civilian contract workers and not to be confused with soldiers who cared for the sick. Although medical care was much more organized and effective under direct military control, most Army personnel opposed giving military status to women.
- d. **Recruit:** There is evidence that Army leaders wanted women workers other than nurses, but the Secretary of War would not permit it. General John J. Pershing, Commander of the American Expeditionary Forces in Europe (AEF), however, proceeded without authorization and issued a call for women to serve as military switchboard operators. Approximately 7,000 women applied, but only those who could speak French were considered. The 233 who were accepted for service took an enlistment oath, purchased uniforms, and completed two weeks of training in communications and self-defense before being sent to France. They became known as the “Hello Girls.”
- e. **Reject:** The Hello Girls were praised in the newspapers for their bravery and they were awarded service medals when the war ended. Then, without warning, they were sent civilian service termination letters instead of honorable military discharges because (despite what the women were told when they were recruited) the Army still considered them contract civilians.
- f. **Recruit:** In 1920, the Army Reorganization Act granted military nurses the status of officers with “relative rank” from second lieutenant to major, but they were not given the rights and privileges generally accorded those ranks.
- g. **Reject:** In 1925, the 1916 Naval Reserve Act was changed to read “male citizens” instead of “citizens” as enlistment qualifications. Women could no longer enlist in the Navy and Marines without Congressional approval. The number of women in the Services continued to decline.
- h. **Recruit:** World War II 1941–1945—When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the Services once again began recruiting women. Recruitment of women was a big undertaking. Posters urged women to join the Services and “free a man to fight.” In 1942, the War Department was still in desperate need of women to fill support roles and free men for combat. Amid much controversy, Congress passed legislation to form the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC).
- i. **Reject:** President Truman signed the Women’s Armed Services Integration Act of 1948. Women finally had permanent military status and opened the door for women to serve in peacetime and provided a means for mobilizing women in the event of war. But, the number of women on active duty could not exceed 2 percent of the force, the number of high-ranking female officers in each service branch was limited, and certain career fields were not open to women, particularly those where there was a potential for combat. That

same year, the President signed the Selective Service Act of 1948, authorizing a peacetime draft of men. There was then less incentive for recruiting women to fill the military ranks in peacetime, and their numbers dropped. When the conflict began in Korea, all of the Services stepped up their recruiting efforts, but they were unsuccessful in getting the numbers they wanted. By 1951, only 1% of the total military force was female, even though a goal was set for the maximum 2%.

- j. Recruit: Finally, on November 8, 1967, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed Public Law 90-130, which removed restrictions on the careers of female officers in the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps. The law eliminated the 2% cap on the number of women serving and the ceiling on the highest grade they could achieve. Later in 1978, the WAAC was disestablished and the women became part of the regular Army.

2. Current Policies

- a. Opportunities for servicewomen have increased dramatically since 1948, when the Women's Armed Services Integration Act of 1948 gave women a permanent place in the military services. Your required reading should have made you aware of this fact up to today's progress. Let's talk about DoD policy leading this issue.
- b. In February 1988, the DoD adopted a Department-wide policy called the "Risk Rule," that set a single standard for evaluating positions and units from which the military service could exclude women. The rule excluded women from noncombat units or missions if the risks of exposure to direct combat, hostile fire, or capture were equal to or greater than the risk in the combat units they supported. Each service used its own mission requirements and the Risk Rule to evaluate whether a noncombat position should be open or closed to women.
- c. The National Defense Authorization Act for fiscal years 1992 and 1993 repealed the prohibition on the assignment of women to combat aircraft in the Air Force, the Navy, and the Marines Corps. The act also established the Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces to study the legal, military, and societal implications of amending the exclusionary laws. The Commission's November 1992 report recommended retaining the direct ground combat exclusion for women.
- d. In January 1994, the Secretary of Defense, in response to advice from the Implementation Committee, rescinded the Risk Rule. In DoD's view, the rule was no longer appropriate based on experiences during Operation Desert Storm, where everyone in the theater of operation was at risk. The Secretary of Defense also established a new DoD-wide direct ground combat assignment rule that allows all service members to be assigned to all positions for which they qualify, but excludes women from assignments to units below the brigade level whose primary mission is direct ground combat.
- e. The purpose of this change was to expand opportunities for women in the services. Additionally, the Secretary stipulated that no units or positions previously open to women would be closed. At that time, the Secretary issued a definition of direct ground combat

to ensure a consistent application of the policy excluding women from direct ground combat units.

E. Factors that Impact the Full Integration of Women in the Military

1. Stereotypes that Impact Full Integration

- a. Psychological – Don't have the killer mentality, can't handle stress, emotional, mood swings, too feminine (i.e. perceived as weak, not taken seriously, given office jobs) or too masculine (i.e. labeled lesbians; Herbert, pp. 68–73)

- b. Physical – For example women are the weaker sex and have no endurance

All services physical fitness tests are based on age and gender. Men willingly accept the differing age standards that affect them, but complain about the lower standards for women (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52).

- c. Pregnancy issues – During contingencies the ability to deploy pregnant women is restricted by policy. Under some conditions, pregnant women can participate in field exercises, but they cannot deploy overseas or out to sea. In the Navy, women are removed from the ship when they are 20 weeks into a pregnancy. The effect of this “unplanned loss” depends on how long it takes to get a replacement. (Harrell, 1997, p. 39)

Service men say that policies for pregnancy adversely affect their units. Some accuse women of intentionally getting pregnant in order to avoid deployments. Men complain they must do more work because of the limitations doctors put on pregnant women and blame individual women personally rather than service policy. (D'Amico, 1999, p. 52)

- d. Leadership issues – For example, no man would follow a woman into battle; and women can't make logical decisions.
- e. Sexual harassment – As reported in the 2012 *Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*, 23% of women and 4% of men indicated experiencing sexual harassment in the last twelve months. The report also states that 47% of women and 15% of men indicated experiencing sexist behavior (DMDC, 2012a, *2012 Workplace and Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members*)
- f. Teasing and offhand comments – Although the law does not prohibit simple isolated incidents that are not very serious, harassment is illegal when it is so frequent or severe that it creates a hostile or offensive work environment or when it results in an adverse employment decision such as the victim being fired or demoted. (EEOC.gov/laws/types/sex.cfm)

- g. First names – When ranks/last names are used for members of one sex versus the other, it implies superiority of one sex over another, establishes a power relationship, shows disrespect towards, or discounts members of one sex. Women are often caught in the grip of a paradox. They are far more often called by their first names and touched by men. (Feldman,1993, p. 24)

2. Sexism and Ego Defense Mechanisms

Remember when you learned about ego defense mechanisms in the Socialization lesson? Now, let's associate some of those mechanisms into the Sexism lesson.

- a. Denial – “There is no way she outdid me in the push-ups” or “No way, she returned fire with her weapon, before I did!”
- b. Projection – “If she didn't dress so provocatively, she wouldn't get so much attention.”
- c. Rationalization – “Boys will be boys.” “It's expected that the men in my shop unload the truck when supplies are delivered, most items are too heavy for the women to carry.” “I was not promoted because of a quota that promote unqualified candidates specially women”

F. Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military

1. EOA Responsibilities/Strategies to Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexist Behaviors in the Military

- a. Self-Analysis/Self-Awareness – Know self. “How has Sexism influence/affected me?” “What behaviors do I displayed that may be interpreted as sexist?”
- b. Model behavior
 - 1) Role model – Walk the talk. Acknowledge and understand difference, don't group people and assume they all have the same characteristics; this will reduce your stereotyping.
 - 2) Challenge – challenge inappropriate behaviors
 - 3) Advocate for EO – Advocate fair treatment. Deal with standards, qualifications, and a person's ability to meet them, rather than perceptions and beliefs about what is appropriate.
- c. Keep current on EO issues/information
- d. Education and training – train at all levels

2. Leadership Strategies that will Prevent and/or Eliminate Sexism in the Military
 - a. Policy and administration – Development and implementation of legislation, laws, and policies that do not discriminate on the basis of gender
 - b. Prevention – Periodic climate assessment, education/training awareness
 - c. Set the example – Organizational culture from top to bottom
 - d. Mission – Fully utilize all personnel. Zero tolerance for negative impact of sexism on mission readiness.

SUMMARY

The following topics were covered in this lesson:

- A. Identify the foundation of sexism.
- B. Define sexist behavior.
- C. List influences that perpetuate sexism.
- D. Describe historical events that contributed to sexism in the military.
- E. List factors that impact the full integration of women in the military.
- F. Identify strategies to prevent and/or eliminate sexism in the military.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
December 2014

EOA 3050

SEXUAL HARASSMENT



FOR TRAINING PURPOSES ONLY

DO NOT USE ON THE JOB

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

The references cited in this lesson are used for training purposes only and support the training objective. Referenced material from non-Federal Government sources may not be used for any purpose other than training.

Unless specifically identified as a Department of Defense or other U.S. Government source, DEOMI does not endorse the content of any specific reference material, or the organization that is the source of the material.

Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Understanding sexual harassment and recognizing harassment behaviors is vital for an EOA. As an equal opportunity (EO) professional it is important that you recognize sexual harassment, understand the impact it has on individuals and the organization collectively in a military setting, and apply strategies to prevent sexual harassment in your unit.

Recommended Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint Slide® Presentation – Prejudice and Discrimination
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide know how prejudice and discrimination impact the military with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define sexual harassment.	K	CRT
B. Describe types of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.	K	CRT
D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.	K	CRT
E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.	C	CRT
<p>K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation</p> <p>Note: Breaks are subject to change and flow with classroom dynamics. For every instructional hour, ten (10) minutes is allocated as break time. (50 minutes of instruction, 10 minute break)</p>		

Activity	Purpose	Performance Measure
Sexual Harassment vignettes	To identify sexual harassment in the workplace	ISDE
<p>Note: Break times are at the discretion of the instructor/facilitator. Recommend 10 minute breaks for every one hour of lecture/facilitation.</p>		

SEXUAL HARASSMENT

A. Definition of Sexual Harassment

The term sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or

Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or

Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as abusive work environment harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. Workplace is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment. *Title 10 United States Code (U.S.C.) § 1561, Complaints of Sexual Harassment: Investigation by Commanding Officers*

1. The term "sexual harassment" is a form of sex discrimination that involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:
2. Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person's job, pay, or career, or
 - a. In the context of this definition, *explicit* is a full precise expression in the form of verbal, nonverbal, or physical behavior(s). In other words, things being said or acted upon or demonstrated in a clear, overt, and open manner that are "clearly out of bounds."
 - b. *Implicit* means implied or inferred behaviors that are not clearly expressed, but are understood. These behaviors can also be verbal, nonverbal, or physical in nature. Implicit behaviors are closely associated with the subtleties of sexual harassment and often take the form of innuendoes. Examples include hints of something improper, indirect remarks, or gestures suggesting impropriety.

Third party sexual harassment means that the victim does not have to be the only person affected by the harassment behavior, but could also be anyone affected by the offensive behavior in the defined “workplace”—“an expansive term for military members that includes conduct on/off duty, 24 hours a day” (DoD Directive 1350.2).

3. Submission to or rejection of such conduct by a person is used as a basis for career or employment decisions affecting that person, or
4. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual’s work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.
 - a. A “hostile environment” occurs when service members or civilians are subjected to offensive, unwanted, unsolicited comments and behaviors of a sexual nature. If the behavior in question has the purpose (intent) or effect (impact) of unreasonably interfering with their work performance, then the environment is classified as “hostile.” A “hostile environment” brings the topic of sex or gender differences into the workplace. It does not necessarily include the more blatant acts of *Quid Pro Quo*. Rather, it normally includes those actions in the “gray areas” or the nonviolent behaviors which are gender based.
 - b. Assessing whether the behavior is appropriate or offensive must be done from the perspective of the recipient, not the alleged harasser. The primary concern is the victim’s perspective and not the intent of the alleged harasser. While the intent (purpose) of the alleged offender is given consideration, the effect (impact) of such behaviors on the subject or recipient may sometimes cause the intent to be irrelevant.
5. This definition emphasizes that workplace conduct, to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim does perceive, the work environment as hostile or offensive. “Workplace” is an expansive term for military members and may include conduct on or off duty, 24 hours a day.
 - a. Work environment is defined according to DoD Directive 1350.2, 2003, 20. It is the workplace or any other place that is work-connected, as well as the conditions or atmosphere under which people are required to work.
 - b. The Reasonable Person Standard Test has two components:
 - 1) Objective portion

The objective test requires a hypothetical exposure of a “**reasonable person**” to the same set of facts and circumstances—How would a reasonable person under similar circumstances react or be affected by such behavior?

If such “reasonable person” perceives the harassing behaviors as creating an intimidating, hostile or abusive work environment then the objective test has been met.

2) Subjective portion

The subjective test requires that the victim or subject perceives the harassing behaviors as intimidating or hostile or as creating an abusive work environment.

6. Any person in a supervisory or command position who uses or condones any form of sexual behavior to control, influence, or affect the career, pay, or job of a military member or civilian employee is engaging in sexual harassment.

The definition of sexual harassment emphasizes supervisory and command responsibilities. Some examples of supervisory and command responsibilities include:

- a. Examining his/her own behaviors
 - b. Providing an environment free of intimidation, hostility and psychological stress
 - c. Controlling social interactions so that they do not interfere with productivity
 - d. Taking corrective action(s) whenever sexual behavior is displayed
 - e. Holding everyone responsible and accountable for their actions
 - f. Establishing and enforcing behavioral standards
 - g. Taking disciplinary action as appropriate
 - h. Examining the totality of the circumstances (e.g. nature of advances, and context of occurrence)
7. Similarly, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature in the workplace is also engaging in sexual harassment.

B. Types of Sexual Harassment

1. Quid Pro Quo

In a “*Quid Pro Quo*” sexual harassment situation, the person who is the harasser is usually a person who is in a position of power (e.g., supervisor, manager, and instructor). The victim is usually a person who feels s/he must respond to the sexual advance in order to gain something in return. It is important to note that it is not necessary for the victim to respond

or act upon the sexual advance for the sexual harassment offense under “*Quid Pro Quo*” to apply.

2. Hostile Environment

For workplace conduct to be actionable as “abusive work environment” harassment, it need not result in concrete psychological harm to the victim, but rather need only be so severe or pervasive that a reasonable person would perceive, and the victim perceives, the work environment as hostile or offensive.

C. Behaviors that Constitute Sexual Harassment

1. Verbal

Verbal behavior refers to comments made to, about, and in the presence of a person. For example:

- a. Turning work discussions into sexual topics
- b. Sexual connotations or innuendoes while referring to someone as honey, baby, hunk, stud, darling, etc.
- c. Telling lies or spreading rumors about a person’s personal sex life.
- d. Telling jokes or stories and making comments with sexual connotations
- e. Making sexual comments about a person’s clothing, body, or sexual activities
- f. Asking questions about a person's sexual life, fantasies, preferences or history
- g. Whistling or making catcalls at someone
 - 1) Although behaviors are not blatant or overt in nature, if they convey overtones or undertones that are suggestive in nature, it might result in sexual harassment. In terms of service policies and regulations, either suggesting or encouraging a subordinate to wear shorter or tighter clothing could also result in sexual harassment.
 - 2) It is difficult to determine the nature of the behavior that would constitute sexual harassment. Although a behavior may be very much unprofessional, if behavior does not have a sexual connotation, it does not constitute sexual harassment.

2. Non-verbal

According to the definition of sexual harassment, any military member or civilian employee who makes deliberate or repeated *unwelcome...gestures...* of a sexual nature is engaging in sexual harassment (DoDD 1350.2) Some examples are:

- a. Paying unwanted attention to someone by ogling or staring at their body
- b. Displaying sexually suggestive visuals (e.g., centerfolds, calendars, cartoons)
- c. Items depicting sexual parts of the body (e.g., ashtrays, coffee cups, figurines)
- d. Sexually oriented entertainment in organizations, base facilities, or officially sanctioned functions
- e. Sexually suggestive gestures with hands or through body movement (e.g., blowing kisses, licking lips, winking, grabbing crotch, lowering pants, raising skirts, etc.)
- f. E-mails, text messages, or any type of electronic communication that is sexual in nature.

3. Physical

Physical behavior refers to unwanted touching of an individual. For example:

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

D. Effects of Sexual Harassment

1. Work Related

The Supreme Court has recognized that harassment in the workplace is a violation of the Civil Rights Act, and although past cases have clarified employer responsibilities for preventing and correcting harassment, many other issues are uncertain.

Determining when social interaction becomes “unwelcomed” sexual harassment, and just how severe or widespread offensive conduct must be to constitute a hostile work

environment is not very clear. In the rest of this section we will examine in more detail individual, organizational, and economic effects of sexual harassment in the workplace.

a. Individual

- 1) Studies have shown that some of the negative job ramifications for victims of sexual harassment include:
 - a) decreased job satisfaction
 - b) decline in job performance
 - c) decreased motivation
 - d) decreased motivation
 - e) decreased morale
 - f) increased absenteeism
 - g) lowered productivity
 - h) impaired relationships between co-workers
- 2) As a result, commanders should not merely be concerned with whether steps have been taken to ensure that an affirmative defense can be raised in the event that a sexual harassment complaint is filed. Rather, they should address whether mechanisms are in place for evaluating the extent that employees perceive conduct of a sexual nature is offensive and the effect those perceptions have on their self-esteem and work performance.

b. Organizational

- 1) Many emotional factors may result when employees return to the workplace after filing a complaint, such as a rise in retaliatory actions. Types of organizational withdrawal include avoiding work duties (work withdrawal) and job turnover, retirement, etc. (job withdrawal). Some of the organizational effects of sexual harassment resemble individual effects and include:
 - a) lower productivity
 - b) damaged reputation
 - c) emotional factors
 - d) organizational withdrawal

- 2) Understanding the impact that sexual harassment can have on your unit will help you to help your commander improve command policy regarding filing and processing sexual harassment complaints and help design prevention programs.
- 3) Improving job attitudes will mediate the influence that sexual harassment has on organizational withdrawal.

c. Economic

- 1) The costs of sexual harassment to the economy are staggering. The EEOC has estimated that the monetary cost of sexual harassment for civilians in fiscal year 2011 was \$52.3 million. The costs to the military include things such as:
 - a) lost duty time
 - b) lost productivity
 - c) decreased unit morale/cohesion
 - d) mission accomplishment
 - e) medical treatment
 - f) reassignment costs
 - g) family impacts
 - h) suicide
- 2) Imagine the economic impact of the time spent on inquiries/investigations including investigators, the alleged harasser, the complainant, witnesses, and others, training stand-downs, unplanned losses such as the harasser and/or the complainant.

2. Effects on the Victim

a. Psychological

- 1) A victim is often not only affected by the sexual harassment itself, but also other related stress such as workplace gossip and a disrupted work history. Sexual harassment victims experience a wide variety of symptoms, including:
 - a) Decreased self-esteem and self-confidence
 - b) Difficulties with trust

- c) Depression
 - d) Anxiety
 - e) Fear of rape
 - f) Increased fear of crime in general
 - g) Seemingly “contradictory” emotional responses to harassment
 - h) The victim may regard sexual harassment as a shameful experience, which may lead to social isolation and/or alienation from co-workers who may have experienced similar harassment.
- 2) Those who experience sexual harassment may also experience intangible emotional costs inflicted by anger, humiliation, frustration, withdrawal, and dysfunction in work and family life.

b. Health-Related

In addition to the psychological abnormalities caused by sexual harassment, researchers have documented a variety of physical health complaints. Common physical health complaints include:

- 1) Headaches, neck and back pain
- 2) Gastrointestinal disturbances
- 3) Tiredness/fatigue
- 4) Sleep disturbance
- 5) Weight loss and loss of appetite
- 6) Dental-related problems

c. Individual/Victim Coping Strategies

1) Detachment

To cope with sexual harassment, both victims and harassers may discount or invalidate the victim’s claim that sexual harassment has occurred or is occurring. A victim may minimize the situation by treating it like a job or deciding that the incident was really not important.

2) Denial

The most common form of discounting that victim's use. This means pretending the situation is not happening or trying not to notice that sexual harassing behaviors are taking place. Denial may take the form of trying to forget about the situation or incident in order to put the incident behind him/her.

3) Relabeling

Involves offering excuses for the harasser or interpreting the behavior as flattering. For example, "S/he is not really like that... S/he did not mean to harass me... S/he was only joking... Maybe I'm being a little too uptight."

4) Avoidance

The victim may ask to be transferred, use frequent leave, or go to sick call frequently to avoid the harassing situations.

E. Strategies to Combat Sexual Harassment

The commander and other leaders within your unit must have the attitude that sexual harassment is a serious problem that interferes with productivity and that it will not be tolerated.

Prevention is the best tool and as an EOA you play a pivotal role by assisting the commander with policy awareness, training, command climate assessments, complaints processing, and overall advisory assistance concerning the prevention of sexual harassment.

1. Proactive Strategies

Commitment from the top makes a difference, and when senior management is perceived as making the prevention of sexual harassment a top priority, this attitude of seriousness will be passed down and throughout the entire unit. The best approach will be positive and oriented toward addressing the issue or concern. Sexual harassment programs should be direct and not overly threatening, and should include everyone—employees at all levels. Proactive sexual harassment prevention strategies include the following:

- a. Addressing and stopping existing sexist or other behaviors of a sexual nature that may create an atmosphere conducive to sexual harassment. In most cases, employees will stop behaving in ways that offend others if they are informed about their behavior in private and in a respectful, non-threatening way.
- b. Ensuring organizational policy letters are up-to-date, outlining procedures on what to do in the event sexual harassment occurs. A written, posted policy statement regarding sexual harassment is a strong indicator of top management support.

- 1) Using bulletin boards for passing on information concerning prevention of sexual harassment. Bulletin boards must be visible to all members of the public (e.g., organizations, services agencies, and any other location that is visible to the public). Most important, be familiar with DoD, EEOC, and your Service's regulations and policies on sexual harassment.
- 2) Conducting sexual harassment prevention trainings, such as: workshops, seminars, guest speakers, symposiums, informal and formal group discussions, etc.). During the training, have individuals role-play in situations, and discuss individuals' differences in culture, personal space, socially accepted behaviors, and internalized values (enculturation).
- 3) Conducting unit climate assessments on a regular basis. Climate assessments are tools that assist commanders at all levels in determining their human relations climate. The program identifies those human relations factors, both positive and negative, that may affect mission readiness such as unit morale, equal opportunity and treatment, interpersonal relationships, and communications.

2. Reactive Strategies

- a. Once a sexual harassment complaint has been filed, there are reactive strategies you will need to assist your commander with:
 - 1) Ensure all actions/complaints are dealt with in a timely manner.
 - 2) Conduct appropriate follow-up actions and check for reprisal or retaliation.
 - 3) Based on reactive measures, you need to reengage and reemphasize proactive strategies.
- b. If you do nothing, most likely nothing will be done. The system is for you so use it. You will learn more about complaint processing procedures in your service specific training. Always refer to your Service's policies and procedures for specific guidance.

3. Techniques

Service members are encouraged to try to resolve acts of sexual harassment or to report them to the chain of command or other appropriate agencies. In order to do this, Service members must be trained on a variety of strategies they can use to prevent or resolve sexual harassment in the unit or work area. The following strategies can be a valuable tool in dealing with sexual harassment:

a. Direct Approach

- 1) Write down thoughts before approaching the individual involved. Confront the harasser and tell him/her exactly what behavior is offensive and unwanted and that it

must stop. Avoid verbal attacks. Instead, use common courtesy staying focused on the behavior being addressed and its impact. In most cases, the alleged harasser will stop behaving in ways that offend others if he/she is informed about offensive behavior in private, respectful, and non-threatening way.

- 2) Individuals should let the harasser know how they feel.
- 3) Individuals should let the harasser know that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues.

b. Indirect Approach

Send a letter to the harasser stating the facts (i.e. an objective description of the incident), specific behaviors that are offensive and unwelcome, personal feelings about the inappropriate behavior, expected resolution, and that his/her behavior(s) will be reported to the chain of command if the behavior continues. Subjects of sexual harassment should keep a copy of the letter for record in the event an informal/formal complaint is subsequently required.

c. Third Party Approach

- 1) Request assistance from another person (i.e. intermediary). Ask someone else (a co-worker, supervisor, or leader) to talk to the harasser on your behalf, or to accompany you to resolve the conflict.
- 2) A third party or intermediary does not speak for the subject. Instead, he/she relates specifically what behavior the subject wants stopped, and makes clear that continued behavior will result in reporting the incident to the chain of command.

d. Report the Harassment to the Chain of Command

- 1) *Chain of Command:* Report the behavior to immediate supervisor or others in the chain of command and ask for assistance in resolving the situation. The decision to report an incident of sexual harassment is often viewed as a last resort by most of the subjects. However, reporting does have its place even when the subject has been successful in stopping the harassment. The letter to the harasser becomes a valuable tool in the process of reporting sexual harassment to the chain of command.
- 2) *Filing an Informal/Formal Complaint:* Details of filing an informal/formal complaint are described in respective service regulations and instructions.
- 3) *Use Resources Appropriate for Your Branch of Service.* Familiarize yourselves with the details of your respective service policies on the prevention of sexual harassment and grievance procedures. Other sources of assistance include:

- a) Local EO/EEO Office

- b) The Inspector General (IG)

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented:

- A. Define sexual harassment.
- B. Describe types of sexual harassment.
- C. Recognize the behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.
- D. Describe the effects of sexual harassment.
- E. Describe strategies to combat sexual harassment.

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
December 2014

EOA-6100

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT



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STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

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This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

Workforce diversity and inclusion are critical components of a 21st century workforce. Inclusion and diversity training is one tactical component of a diversity strategy. Diversity Management training provides the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and tools to assist Service Members in the professional behaviors needed in a diverse and inclusive working environment. This is important for creating and sustaining change that fosters a more creative, inclusive, respectful, and productive workforce and workplace.

It is critical for the student to understand how important their role is in contributing to a diverse and inclusive workforce. As an Equal Opportunity Advisor, you must support your organization and command to identify in the aggregate the diversity within the DoD to enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness. Within this lesson, instructors must first define diversity management. Instructors must ensure students recognize the differences between Affirmative Action, EO/EEO, and Diversity Management. Students must also comprehend the barriers to diversity and describe some strategies to support diversity in the workplace. The 'Logic of Behavior' activity will follow the lesson and be conducted in the small group room. The students will answer three questions as a group and post them on Chart Packs. The purpose of this activity is to explore the realities of majority/minority status.

Students are also expected to demonstrate appropriate 'social skills' during activities. These skills are associated with 'affective' objectives (see Plan of Instruction) and evaluated using DEOMI's Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation (ISDE) form. Ensure ISDE #3 is placed on the schedule AFTER this lesson and activity.

Strategy

The “Individual Diversity” lesson must be taught prior to this lesson. In this lecture the instructional strategy is based upon a traditional and experiential instructional process. Traditional learning instructional materials are prepared to support the lecture and large group discussion. An experiential learning process allows the learner to participate in structured activities as the primary tool in learning appropriate behaviors expected of an EOA. Based upon these instructional strategies, instructors use their knowledge and expertise to motivate the student to demonstrate their knowledge and skills, as well as practice behaviors expected of Equal Opportunity Advisors.

Required Reading

None

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Student Instructional Material

DEOMI EOA Study Guide

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint Slide® Presentation–Diversity Management 6100
2. “Who’s On Your Team” Video (Used as Attention step in the Introduction)
3. Computer w/monitor

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, and a study guide comprehend how diversity management can enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT).

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELOs)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
A. Define diversity management	K	CRT
B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management	C	CRT
C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace	C	CRT
D. Identify the barriers to diversity management	K	CRT
E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management	K	CRT
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application CRT = Criterion Referenced Test SGE = Small Group Experience ISDE = Interpersonal Skills Development Evaluation		

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE**A. Diversity Management**

1. Definition of diversity management according to Military Leadership and Diversity Commission (MLDC)

Definition of Diversity Management: The creation of an equitable and inclusive environment that enhances the contribution of all members to fulfill the organization's mission; where differences are recognized, understood, and valued; and is accomplished through communication, education, policies, programs, selection, retention, mentoring, leadership, and individual accountability. (MLDC, 2013)

2. Definition of diversity management according to DoDD 1020.02

The plans made and programs undertaken to identify in the aggregate the diversity within the Department of Defense to enhance DoD capabilities and achieve mission readiness (DoDD 1020.02, 2009).

3. USAF Diversity Policy

The Air Force will develop and maintain comprehensive diversity initiatives to enhance the all-volunteer Total Force, to include active duty, Guard, Reserve, and civilians. The initiatives will:

- a. Ensure all qualified personnel are welcome in America's Air Force.
- b. Educate and train all personnel on the importance of diversity, including mutual respect, thus promoting an Air Force culture that values inclusion of all personnel in the Total Force and views diversity and inclusion throughout the workforce as a force multiplier in accomplishing the mission of the Air Force.
- c. Ensure that all personnel in the Total Force understand they are valued and have the opportunity to achieve their full potential while contributing to the mission of the Air Force.
- d. Establish effective diversity training, mentoring, and professional development that provide the tools for personnel to navigate career progression.
- e. Provide cultural awareness training to enhance organizational capabilities.
- f. Assess and report progress on these initiatives

4. ARMY Diversity Policy

The Army's future plans are reflected in a vision to become the national leader in embracing the strengths of diverse people in an inclusive environment by investing and managing talent, valuing individuals, and developing culturally astute Soldiers and civilians who enhance our communities. The Army will pursue an aggressive, but comprehensive strategy that assures:

- a. Leader commitment.
- b. Managed talent across our diversity.
- c. The best available diversity training and education.
- d. Inclusive environments sustained by informed leaders.

5. USN Diversity Policy

The Department of the Navy Diversity Policy Statement released in August, 2007. We value our people. Our commitment is the foundation for building and maintaining a high quality workforce. We fully expect our leaders to demonstrate this commitment by aggressively eliminating barriers to success for all our people and seeking new ways to diversify talent pool. In our continuous pursuit of excellence, all personnel will share responsibility ensuring that the talents and capabilities of each member are recognized, valued, and used in a manner that contributes to mission accomplishment. In an era when our flexibility, adaptability, critical thinking are paramount to our readiness, a well-managed, highly diverse workforce is imperative to achieving operational excellence.

6. USMC Diversity Policy

The Commandant of the Marine Corps released the following diversity policy: Our leaders must ensure that all Marines, Sailors, and civilians are provided equal opportunity to develop their skills, advance, and contribute to the overall effectiveness of our Corps. By encouraging everyone who is part of our Marine Corps team to reach his or her full potential, we allow our Corps to capitalize on the wide variety of talents and ideas available.

7. USCG Diversity

Diversity Strategic Plan

This Diversity Strategic Plan challenges Coast Guard men and women, active duty, reserve, civilian and Auxiliary, to join in changing the face of our Service to better reflect the diverse fabric of American society. Our recent record of excellence across our mission set, combined with a strong legacy of superior service, has resulted in the Coast Guard achieving unprecedented relevance in the minds of the American people. To

ensure that we remain a premiere organization, it is imperative that we continue to progress toward the strategic goal of constructing a workforce that is reflective of our Nation's diverse composition. Our people are our greatest strength and we must capitalize on that fact by establishing an inclusive environment that respects and values the perspective of diverse individuals, acculturating those influences, and combining them with our proven core values to build our workforce of the future. In this way, we can achieve our goal of organizational excellence and continue to be the nation's front line maritime safety and security agency. By including representation, ensuring equal access, and providing opportunity to all facets of our society, we will continue to achieve relevance in the minds of the American public whom we so ably serve.

B. Recognize the Difference Between Affirmative Action, EO (MEO), EEO, and Diversity Management

1. Affirmative Action

Affirmative Action focuses on prevention and/or correcting discriminatory practices concerned with numbers of minorities and women. It is an attempt to rectify past discrimination against certain groups of people. It requires that organizations affirmatively seek them out; however, it does not set goals or require that individuals be hired.

2. Military Equal Opportunity (MEO)

Equal Opportunity in the military is based upon policy. The DoD MEO Program shall:

- a. Promote an environment free from personal, social, or institutional barriers that prevent Service members from rising to the highest level of responsibility possible. In this environment, Service members shall be evaluated only on individual merit, fitness, and capability. Unlawful discrimination against individuals or groups based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin is contrary to good order and discipline and counterproductive to combat readiness and mission accomplishment and shall not be condoned.
- b. Use the chain of command as the primary and preferred channel to identify and correct unlawful discriminatory practices; process and resolve complaints of unlawful discrimination, including sexual harassment; and ensure that human relations and MEO matters are taken seriously and acted upon as necessary.
- c. Identify and resolve MEO problems through formulating, maintaining, and reviewing MEO action plans with established objectives and milestones, including a process for accountability in personnel management.
- d. Provide periodic, mandatory education and training in human relations and MEO at installation and operational unit commands, during pre-commissioning programs and

initial entry training, and throughout professional military education systems as part of the overall effort to achieve MEO within the Department of Defense.

- e. Ensure that all on-base activities and all off-base activities are available to all military members and their families regardless of race, color, religion, age, disability, sex, or national origin as permitted by law and DoD policy.

3. Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO)

Equal Employment Opportunity is based upon law. Unlike affirmative action, EEO laws are used as deterrents to future wrongs and as corrective action if a wrong is committed. The DoD Civilian EEO Program shall:

- a. Maintained within the Department of Defense as an essential element of readiness vital to the accomplishment of the DoD national security mission.
- b. Develop and implement programs to promote diversity and ensure EEO in the DoD civilian workforce at all grade levels, in every occupational series, and in every major organizational element, in accordance with EEOC and OPM guidance and consistent with law, specific circumstances, and the needs of the Department of Defense.
- c. Ensure civilian EEO program activities for the DoD workforce are integrated fully into the civilian personnel management and data systems.
- d. Prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on race, sex, color, national origin, age, religion, disability, or reprisal for previous EEO activity through the establishment of a discrimination complaint processing and resolution system in accordance with EEOC guidance; and prohibit unlawful employment discrimination based on marital status, sexual orientation, status as a parent, genetic information, limited English proficiency, political affiliation, or other prohibited non-merit factors through other separate discrimination complaint processing and resolution systems when required by applicable laws and regulations.
- e. Identify and eliminate barriers and practices that impede EEO for all employees and applicants for employment, including sexual and non-sexual harassment in the workforce.
- f. Identify and eliminate barriers at work sites, including architectural, transportation, and other barriers affecting people with disabilities.

4. Diversity Management Policy

- a. In August of 2011 Executive Order 13583 was signed into order by the President of the United States in order to promote the federal workplace as a model of equal opportunity, diversity, and inclusion. Previous steps were taken to promote a diverse federal workforce, for example:

- 1) Executive Order 13171, October 2000 ordered to promote Hispanic employment in the federal workforce
 - 2) Executive Order 13518, November 2009 ordered to promote Veterans employment in the federal workforce
 - 3) Executive Order 13078, March 1998 ordered to promote individuals with disabilities in the federal workforce
- b. Managing Diversity is different from Affirmative Action
- 1) Managing diversity focuses on maximizing the ability of all employees to contribute to organizational goals. Affirmative action focuses on specific groups because of historical discrimination, such as people of color and women.
 - 2) Affirmative action emphasizes legal necessity and social responsibility; managing diversity emphasizes business necessity.
 - 3) In short, while managing diversity is also concerned with underrepresentation of women and people of color in the workforce, it is much more inclusive and acknowledges that diversity must work for everyone.
 - 4) The U.S. Federal Government has stated, “To realize more fully the goal of using the talents of all segments of society, the Federal Government must continue to challenge itself to enhance its ability to recruit, hire, promote, and retain a more diverse workforce.

C. Benefits of Diversity in the Workplace

1. Workplace Benefits
 - a. Increases management skills to meet rapidly changing market conditions, reduce turnover, increase productivity, and improve image, reputation and brand
 - b. Strengthens advocacy competence and confidence for addressing issues
 - c. Builds trust with all team members
 - d. Sharpens skills to inform, inspire and initiate conversations to involve all team members in the inclusion process
 - e. Fosters team work innovation by advancing, refining and implementing creative ideas

2. Technology Benefits

- a. Advances in technology and the advent of a global economy are bringing the people of the world closer together than ever before. As a result, businesses, educational systems and other entities are investigating ways to better interact with everyone. This includes being able to attract and retain the best and most qualified workers.
- b. Technology can increase diversity in the workforce through global connections. These connections can increase the participation of under- represented groups in all organizational settings.
- c. Networking technologies have made both asynchronous and real-time communications between different regions and countries feasible, and have created new forms of work and collaboration.

D. Barriers to Diversity Management

1. Poor Communication

As the DoD maintains its global initiatives, the workforce becomes more linguistically and culturally diverse. You may find yourself working with individuals whose native language is not English. In order to avoid confusion and a lack of teamwork, which can cause low morale; organizations need to implement openness, so every federal employee can discuss ideas, challenges, and strategies to overcome this barrier.

2. Stagnate Service Culture (Organizational Culture)

Organizations, such as the Department of Defense, with its long history and established cultures may not recognize the need for diversity in their organization. Senior leaders may not understand the need for diversity, especially if the organization is already excelling in its mission. To overcome these smokescreens, everyone; especially senior leaders, must recognize the benefits of a diverse workforce and develop strategies to increase diversity in the workplace.

3. Inadequate Skill Development

Skill preparation and career planning can also be barriers to diversity. Different cultures, societies and countries do not necessarily prepare their workforce in the same manner. Individuals from different cultures have vastly different values, including working values, which can cause conflict within the organization. (University of California at Berkley's National Center for Research in Vocational Education)

Proper assessment of all incoming workers and additional training can combat this barrier to diversity in the workplace.

4. Inaccurate Perceptions

- a. Threat- In today's environment, people may be embarrassed to show ignorance about other cultures, may not want to invest time and energy in learning about those cultures, or may perceive diversity initiatives as a threat to job security. (Barak, 2005)
- b. Failure-The thought or belief that you cannot succeed because others like you have not succeeded.

5. Prejudice and Discrimination

The main barriers have to do with managers' and employees' attitudes and behavior. Specifically, prejudice (biased views) and discrimination (biased behaviors), either overt or covert, are at the core of the barriers for implementing inclusive policies in the workplace.

E. Strategies for Implementing Diversity Management

1. Diversity Management Strategies

- a. Commitment to Change - "Perhaps the single most important element of successful management improvement initiatives is the demonstrated commitment of top leaders to change." (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para 2)
- b. Leadership Responsibility - Leaders and managers within organizations are primarily responsible for the success of diversity management. (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para 2)
- c. Resources - They must provide the visibility and commit the time and necessary resources. (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para 2)
- d. Communication - Communicate the organization's support for diversity in newsletters, policy statements, speeches, meetings, and Web sites. (GAO 2005, pg. 7, para 2)

2. Top Diversity Management Practices (GAO Report 2005, pg. 4 and 8)

- a. Top Leadership Commitment: A vision of diversity demonstrated and communicated throughout an organization by top-level management.
 - 1) Implement a policy on EEO and diversity management, which states the organization "must offer opportunities for all persons to develop to their full potential in the pursuit and support of science with diversity management integrated into all facets of the" organization. (National Institute of Health; NIH)
 - 2) Leads by example.

- 3) Discusses the importance of diversity in public meetings and to the employees.
- 4) Writes an article on diversity for the organization's newsletter.
- 5) Provide leadership and a working environment that enable all to reach their full potential. (U.S. Coast Guard; USCG)

b. Strategic Plan

Diversity needs to be part of an organization's strategic plan. Have a diversity strategy and plan that are developed and aligned with the organization's strategic plan. (GAO 2005, pp. 4 and 9)

- 1) Enabling goal stating, "To recruit, develop, and retain a competent, committed, and diverse workforce that provides a high quality service..." (Department of Veterans Affairs; VA)
- 2) Enabling goal stating, "Will recruit, support, and retain a knowledgeable, diverse, engaged, and continuously learning workforce." (VA)
- 3) Objective goal stating, "Ensure a high quality, diverse and motivated workforce." (Federal Drug Administration; FDA)
- 4) Strategic Action Plan stating three strategic goals:
 - a) "Eradicate discrimination in the workplace by enforcing federal EEO laws, regulations, and policies;
 - b) Promote inclusion and diversity in all levels of the workforce; and
 - c) Empower individuals so that they may participate and contribute to their fullest potential."

c. Diversity Linked to Performance

The understanding that a more diverse and inclusive work environment can yield greater productivity and help improve individual and organization performance. (GAO 2005, pg 4 and 10)

d. Measurement

A set of quantitative and qualitative measures of the impact of various aspects of an overall diversity program. (GAO 2005, pp. 4, 10, and 11)

- 1) Quantitative workforce data can evaluate the effectiveness of the organization's diversity management efforts and progress it is making in those efforts.

- 2) Qualitative data be can derived from interviews, focus groups, and surveys for identifying employee perceptions, i.e., questions on climate, organization commitment, promotions, job satisfaction, supervision, etc.
- 3) Measure progress in the diversity strategy by reviewing sick leave, complaints, grievances, accessions, and attrition. (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration; NOAA)
- 4) Identify successes and areas that need improvement, and develop a process for action planning. (NOAA)
- 5) If an issue cannot be resolved, elevate it to the next management level to see if it can be resolved there. (Director, NOAA)

e. Accountability

The means to ensure that leaders are responsible for diversity by linking their performance assessment and compensation to the progress of diversity initiatives. (GAO 2005, pp. 4 and 15)

- 1) Leadership submits narrative descriptions of accomplishments for the year, including a narrative for a critical element that promotes EEO and workforce diversity programs. (NIH)
- 2) Executives write a narrative describing action they had taken in relation to complying with relevant EEO laws, regulations and organizational policies as well as monitoring a subordinate manager's EEO and diversity management programs. (NIH)

f. Succession Planning

An ongoing, strategic process for identifying and developing a diverse pool of talent for an organization's potential future leaders. (GAO 2005, pp. 4 and 17)

- 1) Implement a Web-based individual development plan system for individuals who are already in management positions to identify their skills, training, areas of expertise, and areas of development focus. This system ensures that all potential candidates for higher level or more specialized jobs are following a plan to enable them to fill vacant positions and lead the organization into the future. (U.S. Postal Service)
- 2) Forecast the need for potential future leaders. Develop a process for identifying high-performing nonsupervisory employees and provide those employees with a formal mentoring program, experiential leadership opportunities, and exposure to all facets of the organization's operations. (VA)

g. Recruitment

The process of attracting a supply of qualified, diverse applicants for employment. (GAO 2005, pp. 4 and 19)

- 1) Develop a recruitment tool kit to include various recruitment sources for minorities and diverse populations by state, with a list of minority-serving institutions, and professional minority organizations. (Federal Aviation Administration; FAA)
- 2) Develop a Web-based recruitment source that provides multicultural recruitment advertising and exposure in promoting employment opportunities nationwide. (FAA)

h. Employment Involvement

The contribution of employees in driving diversity throughout an organization. (GAO 2005, pp. 4, 20, 21, and 23)

- 1) Develop a Diversity Advisory Board (DAB) with an advisory council that focuses on people. The strategic plan has four objectives. (National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST))
 - a) Increased awareness of diversity values and sensitivities by the senior management, managers, and staff.
 - b) Retention of existing diversity and work-life enhancement.
 - c) Active promotion of outreach and creation of a visible network of connections or routes to the organization.
 - d) Recruitment and workforce planning for enhanced diversity.
- 2) Have a mentoring program for new or young employees and especially for retaining minorities and that the mentoring program is consciously trying to foster relationships. (NIH)
- 3) Create a community outreach program initiatives by educating the community about the agency and the functions it performs. (NIST)
 - a) Actively reach out to local schools through mentoring and tutoring programs that help students with their class work, raise their awareness of scientific careers, and increase community involvement.

- b) A student Volunteer Program which provides high school and college students a learning experience and exposure to career opportunities by volunteering in your organization
- i. Diversity Training to Inform and Educate Management and Staff
 - 1) Set up interactive training modules on EEO and diversity management available online to all
 - 2) Conduct diversity refresher training each year

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented:

- A. Define diversity management
- B. Recognize the differences between affirmative action, EEO/EO, and diversity management
- C. Recognize the benefits of diversity in the workplace
- D. Identify the barriers to diversity management
- E. Identify strategies for implementing diversity management

END OF LESSON

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STUDENT GUIDE
EOA COURSE
December 2014

EOA 6250

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT



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Reference materials from non-Federal sources are included in this material solely to expose students to varying points of view and to generate discussion.

This lesson will provide the education needed to develop the occupational knowledge required to perform the duties of an Equal Opportunity Advisor (EOA). The content of this lesson is designed to increase student knowledge while generating academic discussions and debate. The content of this lesson should not be taken out of context.

Lesson Overview

This lesson develops the student's skill set in performing an organizational assessment to evaluate the human relations climate within an organization. The organizational assessment allows EOAs to provide the commander with an insight into his or her command from an objective perspective. The lesson will detail the evaluation process associated with understanding the human relations climate, and it must be taught toward the end of the course. Students will be required to recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment, the process associated with an organizational assessment, identify the planning and preparation strategies associated with an organizational assessment and the different organizational assessment tools, as well as, analyze and interpret organizational assessment data. This includes determining recommendations or solutions based on the interpretation of the data.

Recommended Reading*Organizational Assessment Overview***References**

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 19. United States Coast Guard. (May 2010). *COMDTINST M5350.4C, Coast Guard Civil Rights Manual*. Washington, DC: Homeland Security.
- Zhang, J., & Liu, Y. (2010). Organizational climate and its effects on organizational variables: An empirical study. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2), 189–201.

Student Instructional Material

1. DEOMI EOARCC Study Guide
2. Attachments/Handouts
 - a. Inbrief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records and Reports Information and Scenario Worksheets
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Outbrief Checklist
3. Job Aides (CD Inventory)
 - a. Inbrief Checklist
 - b. Commanders Guidance
 - c. Interview Process
 - d. Interview/Observation Worksheet
 - e. Records & Reports
 - f. Sample OA Final Report
 - g. Outbrief Checklist
 - h. DEOCS Trifold
 - i. Syntheses steps and process

Audiovisual Aids and Equipment

1. PowerPoint Slide® Presentation–Organizational Assessment
2. Computer, screen, and audio speakers
3. Video: Ordering a DEOCS

Terminal Learning Objective

Given examples, non-examples, handouts, and a study guide, analyze organizational assessment data to appraise an organizational climate with no less than 70% accuracy on a criterion referenced test (CRT). Students are also required to obtain a “GO” rating on the criterion checklist during the capstone activity.

Enabling Learning Objectives

ENABLING LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ELO)	Level of Learning	Performance Measure
G. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment.	K	CRT
H. Recognize the organizational assessment process.	C	CRT
I. Explain the planning and preparation strategies associated with an organizational assessment.	C	CRT
J. Identify organizational assessment tools.	C	CRT
K. Analyze and interpret organizational assessment data.	AN	CC
L. Identify DEOCS Request Information.	K	
		Total Time:
M. Demonstrate the organizational assessment process.	A	CC
Total time:		
The Introduction and Summary should each take approximately 10% of the total formal lecture time.		
K = Knowledge C = Comprehension A = Application AN = Analysis CRT = Criterion Referenced Test		
W = Written Assignment SGE = Small Group Experience PE = Presentation Evaluation		

Note: Breaks are subject to change and flow with classroom dynamics. For every instructional hour, ten (10) minutes is allocated as break time (50 minutes of instruction, 10 minute break).

Activity	Purpose	Associated ELO
<p>Capstone Activity</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Analyze and interpret organizational assessment data. 2. Develop an inbrief (homework). 3. Conduct an inbrief. 4. Conduct analysis/translate data (OA Data provided). 5. Create report (Executive Summary with findings, recommendations, issues, concerns, action plan, etc.) 4. Prepare an outbrief (Homework). 5. Conduct an outbrief. 	<p>Provide knowledge and skills associated with DEOCS analysis and organizational assessment strategies.</p>	<p>E, F, and G</p>
<p>A = Application C = Cognitive - The number associated with the letter is the line item within the Enabling Learning Objective</p>		

ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT

A. Foundational Objectives of an Organizational Assessment

To better understand the nuances of an organizational assessment, we must first look at its objectives (Purpose, Factors, Basis, and Types). First, a description of an *Organizational Assessment*:

1. Organizational Assessment

- a. An *Organizational Assessment* is a *systematic* procedure to gather data about an organization. It provides insight as to how the organization is functioning to meet its mission. (*Commander Handbook, Chap 4*)
- b. The perception of one's work environment is the concept of organizational climate (Zhang & Liu, 2010). This is the foundational tenet of an organizational assessment.
- c. The climate of an organization directly relates to retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment by employees and managers alike. It provides both positive and negative insight into the commands climate.
- d. Organizational Assessment is based on process and procedures used by commanders to obtain a "snapshot" of an organization (unit). It presents information on the perceptions members have in areas like; organization effectiveness, EO/EEO, and SAPR.

2. Purpose of the Organizational Assessment

- a. The main purpose of conducting an organizational assessment is to gather information on an organization to assist managers (commanders, etc.) in clarifying the positive and negative views of an organization by its members. These findings are used to formulate action plans to improve the organization's climate.

Organizational climate involves the perception of the atmosphere and behaviors (Norton, 2008; Zhang and Liu, 2010). Luthans et al. (2008) found that organizational climate has a significant bearing on the effectiveness of an organization.

- b. The products associated with an organizational assessment will help manager's implement effective action plans to achieve solutions toward accomplishing organizational objectives that impact mission readiness. The organizational assessment will:
 - 1) Assist commanders at all levels in assessing the command's EO climate.
 - 2) Provide commanders insight into other personnel issues that may impact unit effectiveness.

- 3) Identify positive and negative factors that may affect mission readiness.

3. Factors Associated with an Organizational Assessment

a. Climate factors

Organizational Assessment within the DoD measure climate factors associated with:

- 1) Organizational Effectiveness,
- 2) EO/EEO/ Fair Treatment,
- 3) Perceptions of Sexual Harassment/Discrimination, and
- 4) Sexual Assault Prevention & Response (SAPR).

These factors or topic areas breakdown into more specific areas that address a variety of interpersonal and human relations areas that impact mission readiness.

b. Command's Climate factors align with:

- 1) Mission Readiness (Effectiveness)

If you don't know where you are, a map won't be much help! An organizational assessment is like a snapshot of your organization's current capability to accomplish its mission.

- 2) Workplace Relations (Climate Assessment)

A key component of high performing organizations is the ability to retain committed and engaged employees. To accomplish this, organizations must understand what matters most to their employees, and support their needs. Employees who are satisfied with their work environment tend to be more motivated, creative, and productive.

c. Control Factors

Consideration should also be given to some controlling factors that help define the OA process.

- 1) Time
- 2) Space
- 3) Personnel
 - a) Military members

- b) Civilian members
- c) Host nation employees
- 4) Current OPTEMPO
 - Availability of personnel
- 5) Unit Location
 - Accessibility
- 6) Automation capabilities
 - Internet bandwidth; feasibility of conducting survey online versus requiring paper version
- 7) Survey team size
 - The EOA describes the specific capabilities of the OA team when selecting a strategy.
- 8) Other (Other factors that might impact the assessment process)
 - a) EOA's experience and/or training
 - b) Commander/leadership commitment
 - c) Unit members' perceptions of the EO program
- d. Positive Climate Factors

An organizational assessment identifies climate factors that affect mission readiness.

An organization's health encompasses a set of measurable factors residing in the work environment, based on the collective perceptions of the people who work in the environment.

Some measurable factors include:

- 1) Staff morale (positive)
- 2) Training and professional development
- 3) Work force demographics (inclusive)

- 4) Reenlistments
 - 5) Leaders' management skills and how they influence the perceptions, morale, and behaviors of employees
- e. Negative Climate Factors

Among other things, an OA can identify climate factors that diminish mission readiness.

There are indications that a command climate is not healthy in ways that could impact the mission.

- 1) Prevalence of sexual or racial jokes
 - 2) Polarization of groups
 - 3) Poor personal appearance
 - 4) Poor military comportment (behavior/attitude) -
Lack of discipline
 - 5) Increased number of unauthorized absences
 - 6) Low morale
 - 7) Low trust in leadership
4. The Basis of Organizational Assessment

There are many reasons (basis) to conduct an "Organizational Assessment" they are:

- a. Commander-requested
- b. Directed by higher authority
- c. Following regulatory requirements:
 - 1) Army= AR 600-20 Chapter 6 (30 days after assuming command, six month point, annually thereafter)
 - 2) Navy= OPNAVINST 5354.1F (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - 3) Air Force=AFI 36-2706 (120 days after assuming command,, annually thereafter)

- 4) Marines=MCOP 5354.1D (90 days after assuming command, annually thereafter)
 - 5) Coast Guard= COMDTINST M5350.4 within 120 days after change of command and annually thereafter.
- d. An OA *IS NOT* required
- a) In place of a complaint/incident clarification/investigation
 - b) To determine the competency level of an individual
 - c) As a mechanism to terminate employment
5. The Types of Organizational Assessments

There are various assessment options in the scope of an OA.

a. Informal

An OA can be based on an informal process such as an:

- 1) Out-and-About
- 2) Daily Observations

b. Formal

A more formal process, which uses pre-prepared assessment tools and follows strict guidelines include:

- 1) Surveys (DEOCS)
- 2) Interviews

Requirements for conducting OAs vary among the Services. Typically, an OA is required soon after a new commander assumes command (e.g., 120 days) and then at some specific point thereafter (e.g., annually).

Service	Informal	Formal
Air Force	Out-and-About	DEOCS
Army	Daily Observations	DEOCS
Navy	Daily Observations	DEOCS
USCG	Daily Observations	DEOCS
USMC	Monitoring Command Climate	DEOCS

B. The Organizational Assessment Process

1. The Organizational Assessment Process

The organizational assessment process begins with activities to determine the health of the organization.

As an EOA, it is your job to assess the organization to fully understand its climate. This assessment can be conducted in many ways including document review, organizational sensing, focus groups, interviewing, and/or surveying.

The OA process normally includes tasks such as:

- Planning and Preparation (Assessment Strategy)
- Data Gathering (to include, not inclusive)
 - ✓ Observation of individuals/groups
 - ✓ Surveying individuals
 - ✓ Interviewing individuals/groups
 - ✓ Reviewing records and reports
- Analyzing and interpreting information and data
- Creating Organizational Assessment reports

Action plans may also be created.

The most efficient way to conduct an assessment is to collect data from a sufficiently representative sample of the population.

a. Sampling

The key to selecting unit members for interviews, observations, and records and reports review is to obtain a representative demographic mix of the unit. There are times when specific demographically-unique groups should receive additional attention (e.g., after

revealing particularly negative perceptions of climate factors in the survey). At other times, it is more appropriate to randomly sample (e.g., personnel records and organization reports).

Operational commitments may affect how effectively this data may be sampled. *For example*, reviewing records may be far more feasible when the organization is situated in-garrison versus deployed, etc.

The **decision-makers** determine if further assessment is needed or if the assessment goals have been met. If they have not been met, the decision is made to continue or expand the assessment process.

1) Common “Sampling” considerations include:

- a) Sampling a population: How do we sample people (population)? Because you will have several different candidate groups of people to observe, you must decide on which people you wish to focus your observation. Results from the survey can help direct your decisions.
- b) Sampling over time: When should observations be conducted? Is one observation sufficient or should I go back in a week or a month to see if the behavior has changed? If the target behavior is rare, it may require multiple observations to determine its prevalence in the workplace.
- c) Sampling location: Where should the observer be located? A unit observer in the field versus in a unit in garrison, is the behavior the same? Again, results from the survey can help direct your decisions
- d) Sampling over events: During which specific events should the observer be present? For example, does the survey suggest that during an all hands event, the audience is uninterested and distracted? Are people engaging in inappropriate conversations during breaks or lunch?

As an EOA, you will be sampling a subset of the population at various or specified times at a location at various events or functions.

2. Fundamental Steps in the OA Process

The following steps are common in conducting an organizational assessment.

- a. **Step 1: Make Contact**—Bringing together the assessment team with the organization being assessed (aligned with the inbrief).
- b. **Step 2: Create a Contract**—A meeting between commander and assessment team to determine the expectations and discuss the methods of assessment, and required

personnel and resource assistance. Discuss the commander's needs and concerns. For example:

- 1) Advise commander on assessment tools and the strengths/limitations of the assessment.
- 2) Provide commander with a copy of the survey instrument for review. Identify what additional questions will be included in the survey.
- 3) Approximate time frame required for the assessment.
- 4) Describe how the survey will be distributed and collected.
- 5) Request appointment of liaison officer or senior commissioned officer to serve as a point of contact.
- 6) Establish the specifics for the outbrief. Getting this information up-front will make preparing and providing the assessment findings at the outbrief easier.
 - a) Date & time- although this may change depending on how long it takes to complete the entire assessment, still schedule with CC--reschedule if required.
 - b) Location- Commander's office? Conference room?
 - c) Equipment needed for outbrief, (e.g., projector) availability can depend on the location.
 - d) Commander's preference- formal briefing vs. table-top.
 - e) Attendees- who from the command will attend the outbrief
- c. **Step 3: Gather Data and Information-** Gathering all the data from the four primary sources (i.e., surveys, observations, interviews/focus groups, and information from command records and reports).
- d. **Step 4: Analyze Data-** This is where all the data is processed and interpreted to identify validated concerns for the commander.
- e. **Step 5: Report Assessment Results-** After all data have been analyzed, the results are conveyed to the commander in an understandable and useful manner.

All findings and recommendations from the team must be presented in a way that maintains confidentiality of individuals participating in the assessment. The commander makes the final determination as to the **courses of action** taken as a result of the assessment.

The following are a few of the more common outcomes identified following a climate assessment. In the OA report, leaders expect to see data identifying:

- 1) Unit strengths to be maintained and unit weakness to be remedied.
 - 2) Members' and leaders' perceptions about command/unit climate.
 - 3) Current status of EO program execution.
 - 4) Leaders' effectiveness in performing EO duties and responsibilities.
 - 5) Indicators of institutional or personal discrimination.
 - 6) Indicators of behaviors that constitute sexual harassment.
 - 7) Issues and concerns for developing EO training.
 - 8) Determination of training needs.
 - 9) Assessment scope and sequencing of events.
 - 10) Resources and required time schedules.
 - 11) Assessing effectiveness of previously-implemented initiatives designed to enhance unit climate.
- f. **Step 6: Follow-up** – After changes or recommendations are implemented, a follow-up assessment should be conducted to determine their effectiveness, as well as, identify any modifications needed. This may also include another climate assessment.

C. Planning and Preparation Strategies Associated with an Organizational Assessment

Planning and preparing for an organizational assessment will normally include: Pre-planning strategies; planning considerations; planning details; written agreement and reports; inbrief and outbrief preparations.

1. Preplanning

As an EOA, you should be well prepared to conduct an OA.

Working and communicating with leaders and managers is critical in the OA process.

- a. Always create an OA strategy before conducting an assessment.

- b. In planning an assessment strategy, EOAs must be aware of OA guidance and have some idea of what leaders seek to learn.
- c. Having a clear picture of the desired outcome will help define the processes and resources necessary to conduct the assessment.
- d. The scope of the OA will, at times, be limited by the resources available.
- e. During the planning phase, the commander and EOA should adopt specific strategies and sequence to follow during the assessment process.
 - 1) These strategies should not be established as hard and fast rules, but should serve more as a guide throughout the assessment process.

2. Planning Considerations

There are many variables and elements that can impact the OA planning and preparation process. These are the factors that can affect the OA process.

These include the OA team, commander's goals, resources available, etc.

a. The OA Team

The OA team may consist of a single individual or can include a team consisting of several members. The number of team members will vary according to local mission, priorities, and staffing.

b. The Assessment Domain

- 1) Sample population (People)
- 2) Intangible factors
- 3) Organization (Mission/Goals)
- 4) Technology
- 5) Commander's goals
- 6) Environment
- 7) Resources

c. Other Considerations

- 1) Conditions under which the assessment is being conducted.

2) The desired outcome (assessment expectation).

3. Planning Details

When developing your OA strategy there are certain areas that require specific and sometimes detailed attention:

a. Leadership

The assessment must include all levels of the organization; most important is leadership influence and impact on the organization.

b. Focus

Keep the assessment focused on the organization.

c. Method(s)

1) Use more than one method to gather information:

2) Examples:

a) Surveys (DEOCS)

b) Interviews

c) Observations

d) Records & Reports

Use the “Keep It Short and Simple” (KISS) principle.

As part of your *assessment strategy*, prepare the inbrief and consider strategies for the outbrief.

4. Preparing the inbrief

The inbrief should identify leadership expectations and intent, along with any other guidance given to the EOA. A well prepared inbrief will include the following:

a. Purpose (inbrief)

The purpose of the inbrief is to identify the commander’s expectations, guidance, and intent beyond Service requirements.

b. Elements included in the inbrief

Identify which OA tools may be practical/ required for the level of assessment.

- 1) DEOCS
- 2) Interviews (individual and/or group)
- 3) Observations
- 4) Records and reports data review
- 5) Report format

c. Reason for the assessment

- 1) Requested
- 2) Mandated by higher headquarters
- 3) Service requirement

The EOA solicits from the commander any specific needs or concerns that may require additional assessment efforts, such as:

- 1) Unit cohesion
- 2) Interpersonal relationships
- 3) Communications
- 4) Family member issues
- 5) Supplies
- 6) Facilities
- 7) On-installation activities
- 8) Educational opportunities
- 9) Training
- 10) Fraternalization

d. Other assessment considerations:

- 1) Mission
 - 2) Organizational structure
 - 3) Work center locations
 - 4) Duty hours and shift work
 - 5) Demographic composition of unit personnel
 - 6) Time commitment required to complete OA
 - 7) Unit specifics
- e. Established Timelines (Beginning to End)

A well prepared inbrief will include established timelines to begin and complete the organizational assessment (beginning to end)

Each Service has its own timelines to complete an organizational assessment. During Service-Specific training, you will learn more.

Service	Timelines
Air Force	Command Specific/CO discretion
Army	Command Specific/CO discretion
Navy	Command Specific/CO discretion
USCG	Command Specific/CO discretion
USMC	Command Specific/CO discretion

Finally, provide the commander the opportunity to review the assessment instrument and other assessment methods.

Provide the commander a sample of:

- Questions asked during interviews
- Sample LDQs/SAQs

Request the commander appoint a liaison officer or senior NCO to serve as a point of contact for the OA team.

5. Develop a Written Agreement to Conduct the Assessment

The main purpose is to establish the expectations and scope of the OA.

- a. Written Agreement

Document the commander's specific requirements, needs, and concerns in written form. **Depending on the Service**, the EOA and the commander may opt to create memorandums describing how the OA will be administered (to include the appointment of a liaison).

The agreement should be filed in the appropriate unit continuity folder.

b. Agreement Factors

Information contained in the agreement is not all inclusive. There may be other factors that are crucial depending on the Service needs.

Areas to be considered in an agreement include:

- 1) Scope of assessment
- 2) Assessment tools and methods to be used include (**surveys, interviews, observations, records, and reports.**)
- 3) Computer access/usage
- 4) Shift work considerations
- 5) EOA interactions between unit liaison and key unit leaders
- 6) Survey timeframes (start and stop dates)
- 7) Interview facilities (individual and/or group)
- 8) Areas for observation (locations, activities)
- 9) Necessary records and reports for review
- 10) Possible limitations

Once the inbrief has been planned and presented to the command, and the command has accepted the plan, then it's time to conduct the assessment.

As you conduct the assessment, start thinking about the outbrief.

6. Plan the Outbrief

An outbrief is required after all OA information has been collected, analyzed, tabulated, evaluated, and administratively processed. The outbrief may contain a synopsis of the survey analysis report, comments gathered from the survey, relevant trend data, interview information, and observation data.

- a. Purpose of the outbrief: To provide a clear and accurate report of the assessment information to the commander. The outbrief also helps the command
 - 1) Understand your analysis of the data.
 - 2) Work through his or her initial response to that data.
 - 3) Determine how the organization will deal with the issues identified from the assessment.
 - 4) Determine who will be responsible for completing each of the identified remedial actions.
 - 5) Better understand and define the EO Program and the EOA's various roles. The commander can use this opportunity to comment on EOA's job, and recommend or request modifications, amplifications, clarifications, and/or evaluate what the EOA has done. The commander may say something like:
 - a) "Thank you very much, you've done a good job and did everything I asked you to do and identified issues that the command was not aware of."
 - b) "You missed the mark—I asked you to do this and obviously you didn't review the contract and you didn't address those things we talked about. I need you to go back and look into what we talked about the first time."
 - c) "This has brought something very interesting to light – now I might need some follow-up sooner than we talked about initially. We are going to take some corrective actions and look closer at your recommendations, but I think because of the seriousness of this we need to look at this again in another 2-3 months."

7. Steps in Preparing for the Outbrief

- a. **Step 1.** Decide the type of visual aids to use. This is important because providing numbers and statistics, as well as, any interpretation of information is critical to any illustration.
 - 1) PowerPoint presentation
 - 2) Graphs, tables, and other visual aids to illustrate findings
- b. **Step 2.** Develop briefing document and written report
 - 1) Organize your final document (order of tabs) - The documents in the final package for the commander should be in a sensible and meaningful order.

- 2) Keep in mind as you create this final product that the commander will have a copy of this entire report at the outbrief. The documents should be arranged in an order that the commander can follow as you provide the assessment feedback. Below is a suggested flow (Report Elements):
 - a) Cover letter (a.k.a. Executive Summary)
 - b) Survey results (climate factors, Locally Developed Questions)
 - c) Written comments from survey (Short Answer Questions and Written Comments)
 - d) Interview results
 - e) Observation results
 - f) Records & reports results
 - g) Miscellaneous/Additional Info
 - h) Plan of Recommended Actions
 - 3) **Supporting documentation:** Should be included in package provided to the unit commander
 - a) Survey results (DEOCS) – Data compiled and put into easily-interpreted tables, charts, and graphs (demographic information, climate factor averages, etc.)
 - ✓ Summary of prominent themes from written comments– the actual handwritten (or typed) comments that the survey-taker adds
 - b) Interview results – prominent comments/concerns from group/individual interviews
 - c) Observation results – EO assessment concerns as observed from major activities, behaviors, and occurrences
 - d) Records & Reports results – EO assessment concerns during review of organizational records and reports
 - c. **Step 3.** Test equipment – ensure compatibility
 - d. **Step 4.** Practice brief – rehearse oral presentation
 - e. **Step 5.** Develop list of possible commander questions – anticipate questions
8. After the Outbrief

After the outbrief, provide one copy of the report to the commander and one copy for the EO office.

- a. Disposition (filing report): Respective Service will provide disposition instructions and direct how to file and maintain the documents (e.g., file documents in locked container and destroy after 2 years, 3 years, etc.,).
- b. Mark assessment packet F.O.U.O. (For Official Use Only)

9. Follow-up (Action Plans)

- a. Make plans for future assessment to track changes in command climate. This should be made before leaving the command and agreed upon by commander.
- b. Provisions for adjustments should be discussed.
- c. Review past assessments and check progress.
- d. Employ a problem-solving process/model (e.g. APIE) to ensure problems, issues, and concerns are addressed.

D. Organizational Assessment Tools

Organizational assessment tools are survey instruments and other data collection methods used by Equal Opportunity Advisors and practitioners to assess a unit's organizational climate.

Types of measurement tools include: surveys, observations, interviews, and review of unit records and reports.

The instruments are used to collect data on a variety of variables ranging from individual well-being to unlawful discrimination.

1. Surveys (DEOCS) - Surveys are a set of questions for obtaining self-reported information about the attributes, beliefs, opinions, behaviors, or other characteristics of a population (Edwards, 1997, p. 1).
 - a. The purpose of using surveys:
 - 1) Gathering information.
 - 2) Improving communication.
 - 3) Monitoring and evaluating the effects of organizational change. (Edwards, 1997, p. 2-4)

b. Advantages of using surveys

- 1) Anonymity encourages openness--if you eliminate the fear of attribution/retribution people will be more open (Edwards, 1997, pp. 36–37).
- 2) Provides accurate information about major organizational issues (Rosenfeld, 1993, p. x).
- 3) Monitors effectiveness of new interventions (Rosenfeld, 1993, pg. x).
- 4) Involvement leads to ownership/commitment to decisions—lets individuals know that their input was important and used in the decision making process (Rosenfeld, 1993, pp. x–xi).

c. Disadvantages of using surveys

- 1) Complexity – Survey administration requires specialized knowledge and skills (Rosenfeld, 1993, p. 4).
- 2) Time consuming – An urgent need for a particular type of information might not allow for adequate time for survey development (Rosenfeld, 1993, p. 4).
- 3) Overuse – Overuse of surveys may have long-term negative effects (Edwards, 1997, p. 5).
- 4) Expensive – Cost of developing a survey in-house may be prohibitive (Rosenfeld, 1993, p. 4).

d. Factors to consider before the survey administration process

- 1) Who: The target population is the ideal group of all individuals who possess knowledge and views pertinent to the survey content. Remember to get approval from Service/civilian union (Rosenfeld, 1993, pp. 55–56).
- 2) What: What is an acceptable number of responses? There is no magic number. Most response rates reported in published research literature range from 35–80%. The higher the response rate, the better the data reflects the sentiments of the total population. (Edwards, 1997, p. 92)
- 3) Where: Where will the survey be conducted?
- 4) When: When should the survey be conducted (e.g., regulatory requirements)?

2. DEOCS 4.0 Factors (23 Total)
 - a. Organizational Effectiveness (OE)
 - 1) Organizational Commitment
 - 2) Trust in the Leadership
 - 3) Organizational Cohesion
 - 4) Leadership Cohesion
 - 5) Job Satisfaction
 - 6) Diversity Management
 - 7) Organizational Processes
 - 8) Help Seeking Behaviors
 - 9) Exhaustion/Burnout
 - 10) Intention to Stay
 - 11) Organizational Performance
 - b. EO/EEO/Fair Treatment
 - 12) Demeaning Behaviors
 - 13) Favoritism
 - 14) Racial Discrimination
 - 15) Sex Discrimination
 - 16) Religious Discrimination
 - 17) Sexual Harassment
 - 18) Racist Behaviors
 - 19) Sexist Behaviors
 - 20) Age Discrimination (civilian only)

- 21) Disability Discrimination (civilian only)
- 22) Hazing/Bullying
- c. SAPR
 - 23) Sexual Assault Prevention and Response
- 3. Observation: The act of recognizing and noting a fact or occurrence often involving measurement with instruments (Webster p. 802).
 - a. The **purpose** of observation in organizational assessment
 - 1) A means to observe a unit during its usual daily activities in real time.
 - 2) Observation can be directed at hypotheses testing (e.g., to determine if specific behaviors occur in the workplace), hypothesis formulation (e.g., to identify why certain sentiments were expressed in the survey), or description (e.g., whether the workplace environment is cooperative, competitive, hostile, etc.). Observations can be adapted to realize any of these ends by making a different set of choices concerning recording methods.
 - 3) Observation time should be flexible and adaptable to minimize organization disruption.
 - b. Advantages of using observation as a data collection method (I pp. 6–8)
 - 1) Provides data about behavior itself, rather than reports of behavior. Observation data have relatively high face validity. While people in the organization may doubt the validity of questionnaire responses and may attempt to deny the validity of interview data by arguing that people did not answer truthfully, well-documented observational data can accurately identify workplace behaviors that indicate interpersonal dynamics and practices that can impact morale, productivity, and retention.
 - 2) Using a real-time data collecting device rather than a retrospective collection device. Self-reports mostly describe behavior that has occurred in the past. Because people tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later, their reports of those events can become distorted. Observation deals with behavior that is occurring now. People tend to reinterpret earlier events in the light of what occurred later.
 - 3) It's a flexible method: In all but the most structured observation schemes, the observer can modify what he or she is observing, as the situation requires. While structure is helpful for producing measurable data, it introduces the danger of selective observation. The respondent enjoys behavioral flexibility, but you really don't. In observation, you can change your collection methods if the dynamics of the

arena change. Observation, therefore, enables one to discover existing patterns of behavior previously unknown to the people in the organization.

- 4) It removes the temptation for the respondent to provide biased answers. It does not depend on the willingness of the respondent to honestly complete the questionnaire or contribute during an interview.
- 5) It reduces selective learning. The observer is able to make an objective analysis of the behaviors occurring in the organization that was not previously known by leadership.

c. Disadvantages of using observation (I pg 6-8)

- 1) Interpretation/coding required to use data. As observations move away from the more structured formats, interpretations and coding must be used in order to compile the data. This process is time-consuming and requires some skill. If you hire an expert or outside consultant, it can become expensive. Thus, as with interviews, coding and interpretation can be expensive, requires time, and can be a source of bias.
- 2) Observer bias. Less structured observation also has a tremendous potential for observer bias. Observers must be adequately trained so that different observers will see the same things when viewing an event. There are several techniques that can be used to avoid observer bias. One of the less formal ways is by making several observations of a particular group activity over a period of time and seeing if the inferences about that activity are the same across different periods of time. This will provide a little insight into what is being written and what is being assumed, thereby exposing observer bias.
- 3) Expense: When all these factors are added up – training, sampling, coding, etc., effective observation becomes a potentially expensive proposition. However, many times there is simply no substitute for having a trained observer on the scene.
- 4) Lack of privacy: This disadvantage primarily affects those individuals being observed.

4. Interviews – a conversation designed to gather information for a specific purpose (Shipley 1996, p. 1).

a. Two types of interviews:

- 1) Individual: Carried out in a private face-to-face, one-on-one situation between the interviewer and the interviewee
- 2) Group (focus group): Carried out with a group of people using one or more interviewers

b. Purpose of conducting an interview

- 1) Collect data for diagnosis - Interview data supplements and expands data gathered by surveys, reports, and observations.
- 2) Clarify data generated - Interviews assist the EOA in checking his/her understanding sources of perceptions held by the members of the organization being assessed.
- 3) Increase personal ownership of the diagnosis - Because individuals are personally involved in the diagnosis through the face-to-face interview, they have the tendency to develop a feeling that what they have to say counts in the diagnosis.
- 4) Examine situations - Examine a specific problem, conflict, or issue concerning the interviewee and explore various possible resolutions.

c. Advantages of individual interviews

- 1) Flexibility: A skilled interviewer can search out relevant issues that appear or develop as the interview progresses. This may yield valuable information.
- 2) Involvement: One-on-one interviews may produce a greater sense of involvement and commitment among interviewees and lead to more direct and honest answers.
- 3) Clarity: Since the interviewer takes an active role in helping the respondent understand questions, there is less chance the questions will be misunderstood.
- 4) Intimacy: One-on-one interviews are intimate; therefore, they may lead to more direct and honest answers.

d. Disadvantages of individual interviews:

- 1) Time: Individual interviews that involve a large number of interviewees can take a great deal of time..
- 2) Sample size: As pointed out before, time limitations make it difficult to interview a large number of people. This may limit the final sample size (or representation of the group) and the breadth of information obtained. The process of drawing conclusions from limited samples may then be difficult; thus, affecting the validity of the interviews.
- 3) Validity: Such things as the interviewer's lack of experience, improperly used techniques, questionable interpretation, and small sample sizes may invalidate the data. Also, responses from interviewees may not be honest, and different individuals may directly contradict each other.

- 4) Training: It is far easier to teach a person to administer a survey than to be an effective one-on-one interviewer.
- e. Advantages of group interviews:
- 1) Time: Because more than one person is being interviewed, more information may be gathered using the same amount of time devoted to an individual interview.
 - 2) Determine commonality of perception: If numerous people share the same perception, this may help validate the perception. At the same time, commonly-held perceptions may be the product of organizational folklore, and not possess any basis in fact (i.e., group think).
 - 3) Valuable information: The group interaction will often provide elaborated responses and encourage the sharing of ideas, including proposed solutions. One comment may serve as a lead-in to other comments or information critical to the assessment.
 - 4) Formal communication check: The group interview can provide a check on the information channels and patterns in a unit, by revealing how well or poorly information gets passed.
- f. Disadvantages of group interviews may include
- 1) Trust: If there is no trust between the group and the interviewer, among the group members themselves, or within the organization, the interview will not likely produce valuable information.
 - 2) Expectations: Some members of the group may see the interview as an opportunity to expose others for policy violations. Such conversations are categorically off limits, and any such comments require the facilitator to stop the interview, remove the individual, and contact leadership about the allegations..
 - 3) Threat: A senior member may perceive a group interview as a threat to his/her position or program.
 - 4) Limited interviewer skills: The success of a group interviewer depends on the interviewer's skills in handling group situations, behaviors, and dynamics. The interview team must maintain respect/rapport and engage in effective listening, while accurately capturing the predominant perceptions and concerns expressed by the group.
5. Records and Reports – Used to collect hard or quantitative data about the command. These data are used to validate or invalidate perceptions identified using other data sources.
- a. Significant information is stored a variety of formats

- 1) Performance Ratings (Level of mission accomplishment)
 - 2) Unit Status Reports – (Absentee rates)
 - 3) Accident Rates
 - 4) Discipline Rates (Article 15 and UCMJ actions)
 - 5) Complaints
 - 6) Military Affirmative Action Plans
 - 7) Awards and Decorations
 - 8) Promotions
 - 9) Duty Officer/NCO logs (billets activities)
 - 10) Training Schedules (EO emphasis)
- b. Advantages of records and reports
- 1) Unchangeable (if available)
 - 2) Easily expressed for comparison (ratio, percentage, etc.).
 - 3) Easily accessible
 - 4) Easily interpreted and compared with other data sources.
- c. Disadvantages of records and reports
- 1) May not be available
 - 2) May not be accurate.
 - 3) May require extensive search of records to obtain needed data.
- d. Sample use of Records and Reports data
- 1) Can be expressed in mathematical percentage (%) or proportions.
 - 2) Proportion of the total number of cases multiplied by 100.
 - 3) Great to use for comparisons among groups. This is a way of comparing groups to each other and the entire organization.

E. Analyze and Interpret Organizational Assessment Data

The proper analysis of *surveys, interviews, observations, and unit records and reports* is critical in helping command leadership understand the command climate.

If statistics are misinterpreted, individual/group interviews mishandled, or records and reports improperly evaluated, then the assessment results may be skewed, which can impair efforts to improve organizational climate and improve mission readiness.

1. **Goal of data analysis:** To process data collected to create current, accurate, and reliable information about the organization that enable commanders to assess organizational climate and make better decisions. (Hellriegel, Jackson & Slocum, 2005)
2. Purpose for analyzing data – Identify organizational strengths and areas that need improvement
 - a. **Strengths:** Data that suggests a strong majority of unit members express favorable views about an issue or organizational practices or policies.
 - b. **Areas of improvement:** Data that suggests a sizeable minority (i.e., 20% or more) of the unit members harbor unfavorable views about an issue or organizational policies or practices.
 - c. **Areas of “Zero” Tolerance:** Data that suggests that zero tolerance behaviors (e.g., sexual harassment and other forms of discrimination may be occurring). While legal prohibition of certain behaviors automatically categorize them as zero tolerance (e.g., discrimination and sexual harassment), commanders may elect to deem any behavior identified in the assessment as a zero tolerance area (e.g., lack of preparedness for wartime duties).
3. Five ways to analyze data
 - a. **Statistical Inference:** Using the data obtained from a sample of the population to characterize the entire organization. For example, having a sufficient number of the organization’s members complete the climate survey allows one to infer the results of the survey as reflect the sentiments of the entire organization).
 - b. **Favorability Analysis:** An analysis of how many favorable, neutral, and unfavorable responses were obtained from items in the survey, or other assessment tools. For example, polling numerous interview groups about their perception about a particular issue can reveal the percentage of those who respectively view the issue favorably, neutrally, or unfavorably.
 - c. **Norm Differences:** The difference between the numerical results from your unit compared with service norms. For example, the DEOCS uses a color coding scheme to identify unit and subgroup averages that are below (red), near (blue), and above (green) Service averages.

- d. Content Differences: The differences in results among content areas of the assessment (e.g. readiness versus concern for members, level of concern exhibited by NCOs versus officers, etc).
- e. Trend Differences: The differences in results for your unit between different time periods. Data of this sort requires at least two organizational assessments, and helps identify whether climate factors are improving, staying the same, or getting worse.

4. Fundamental Analysis

When conducting an organizational assessment, DEOCS is an important survey tool to use. It is critical that an EOA fully understand the application and analysis of the DEOCS.

Note: There may be times when respondents will enter inaccurate information, whether by design or unintentionally, thus creating inaccurate demographic breakouts on the report. Also, in those cases where respondents fail to respond or when using the paper survey leave errant pencil marks, the computer will report these as missing cases.

a. DEOCS Results:

Properly setting up the DEOCS, with or without sub-breakout reports, is critical to your success. The EOA needs to know the unit to be assessed, what their mission is, and the best way to survey them (online or paper survey).

Going to www.deocs.net will provide you the information needed to conduct your survey. If you have additional questions or would like to discuss sub-group breakouts, LDQs or SAQs, contact the **DEOCS Support Team** (contact information will be provided at the end of the lesson).

Become familiar with the DEOCS. The DEOCS **report** provides data in the following order:

- 1) Demographic data
- 2) Experiences of discrimination by protected category
 - a) Experiences of discrimination based on Race/National Origin/Color for majority and minority respondents
 - b) Experiences of discrimination based on gender by male and female respondents
 - c) Experiences of sexual harassment by male and female respondents
- 3) Actions taken following discrimination and sexual harassment

- a) Actions taken by minority/majority, men/women, and military/civilian respondents who experienced discrimination
- 4) Satisfaction with issue resolution after taking action following discrimination
- 5) Barriers to reporting discrimination
 - a) The incident would not be taken seriously
 - b) The incident would not be believed
 - c) Lack of privacy/confidentiality
 - d) Fear of reprisal
 - e) Lack of support from chain of command
- 6) Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (SAPR)

Overall unit summary averages for seven (7) SAPR factors

- a) Perceptions of Safety from Sexual Assault
 - ✓ At home
 - ✓ On base/post/station
- b) Chain of Command Support
- c) Publicity of SAPR Information
- d) Unit Reporting Climate
- e) Perceived Barriers to Reporting Sexual Assault
- f) Overall Unit Prevention Climate (Bystander Intervention)
- g) Prevalence of Respondents Observing High Risk Situations and Responses

The SAPR section also identifies *Restricted Reporting Knowledge* and *Subgroup SAPR Average Comparisons*

- 7) Subgroup Organizational Effectiveness (OE) factor comparisons
- 8) Subgroup Equal Opportunity (EO) factor comparisons
- 9) Overall unit summary averages for OE factors
- 10) Overall unit summary averages for EO factors
- 11) Summary of responses to survey items

12) Responses to Locally Developed Questions (LDQs)

13) Responses to Short Answer Questions (SAQs)

14) Written Comments

- a) Organizational Effectiveness Section comments
- b) Equal Opportunity/Fair Treatment Section comments
- c) Discrimination/Sexual Harassment/SAPR Section comments
- d) General Written comments

b. Interpreting the DEOCS

As already discussed, a command climate assessment is not just surveying an organization. Commanders need a clear understanding of their unit members' perceptions, and different methods are needed to accomplish this.

It is the EOAs job to identify the positive and negative factors that affect that climate and, by extension, the mission. **In almost every case, EOAs will start the assessment process by administering the DEOCS.**

- 1) Compare the sample of DEOCS respondents to the population of the unit. Are some groups underrepresented? Are some groups overrepresented?
- 2) Beginning with the demographic data, you can see how many members of your organization completed the DEOCS. Moreover, you can see who in your organization completed the DEOCS, in terms of group membership. This can be important, not just because it shows who completed the DEOCS, but also who didn't.
 - a) If only a small percentage of the organization participated in the DEOCS, your confidence in the results will be lower than if you had a large majority of the organization complete the DEOCS.
 - b) Likewise, when one group essentially fails to participate, that by itself should be considered. For example, you should expect that, all things being equal, majority and minority members will complete the DEOCS in a manner that was proportionate to their respective group representation in the organization.
- 3) Portions of the DEOCS are color coded. Looking at the color coded matrixes helps identify which subgroups harbor negative perceptions toward specific SAPR, OE, and EO climate factors.

- a) This should help you identify the composition of future focus groups (e.g., junior enlisted, women, etc.), along with what questions to pose (e.g., obtaining a low average for *Trust in Leadership* among multiple groups would invite a question such as, “How does leadership encourage trust?”

Color Coding Scheme for Overall Unit Summary

- ✓ Unit and subgroup averages for each factor compared against Service average
 - **Red** (*Below Service Average*): At or below bottom 20% of Service averages
 - **Blue** (*Near Service Average*): Between bottom 20% and top 20% of Service averages
 - **Green** (*Above Service Average*): At or above top 20% of Service averages
 - 4) Depending on the LDQs selected, additional information might be available that supports climate factor findings. For example, if the overall average for *Trust in Leadership* is low, it is sensible to expect unfavorable responses to “My immediate supervisor sets the right example with his/her actions.”
 - 5) SAQs can also provide amplifying information to climate factor data. The value of SAQs is that they help reflect members’ sentiments (i.e., positive or negative), as well as, examples of behaviors that lead to these perceptions.
- c. DEOCS Report Summary:

Once the survey is complete, you must begin your analysis of the report, beginning with the demographics and working your way through the report.

The key to moving forward with the assessment is identifying both the positive and negative findings within the main subject areas:

- 1) Perceptions of Discrimination/Sexual Harassment
- 2) SAPR
- 3) Organizational Effectiveness
- 4) EO/EEO/Fair treatment

d. DECOS Analysis

Analyzing the DEOCS is always going to start with the demographics to ensure you have a valid representation of the unit.

- 1) You should break the DEOCS into the main subject areas starting with Perceptions of Discrimination/Sexual Harassment: determine what categories are being selected and what demographics are associated with those categories. Review action taken,

- satisfaction, and barriers to provide the commander more than just basic data. Finally, review comments areas to validate or find examples of discrimination that can help explain perceptions.
- 2) The SAPR section displays a tremendous amount of information. Start by reviewing the unit summary of all seven factors. This will give you a snapshot of how each factor is trending. After the unit summary data, the section takes each factor one at a time and displays specific data regarding that factor and the questions associated with them. This breakdown will be shown graphically, through a table, and generally by demographic. Analyzing this section will simply take the EOA to read the presented data in that section and make note of any inconsistencies or trends.
 - 3) Section V, Climate Factor Subgroup Comparison (SAPR, OE, EO). This area displays color coding broken-down by factor and demographic grouping. Identifying scoring in this area is very easy; however, the EOA has to be able to explain scoring. Caution must be given to this section as many people will simply look at the three displays and assume everything is told on these three pages. EOAs must be able to connect section V, VI, VII to gain a clear picture or view of the respondents' perceptions.
 - 4) Section VI, Overall Unit Summary will show you how the unit surveyed compares to their Service. This again will help you validate the previous section by showing whether the organization as a whole garnered an average rating for any factors. Average scores are displayed to the right of the bar chart. The actual cut-scores are viewable underneath each factor display. The Service average is the mean within the "Near Service Average." This display allows commanders to see how close or far away they are from the next level (average).
 - 5) Section VII, Response to Survey Items displays a favorable/unfavorable breakout for each question by factor. Additionally, it allows you to assign an overall percentage to each question and factor. Age and Disability Discrimination only display federal civilian responses.

Analyzing all data is crucial to understanding the unit's perceptions. Once the data portion of the report has been analyzed, you have to turn your focus to the LDQs, SAQs, and written comments.

- 1) The final areas within the report to review include the LDQs, SAQs, and additional comments. While reviewing the latter two sections, you want to look for comments that help explain climate factor findings (e.g., below average scores and above average scores). This way, when you inform or brief the commander on positive and negative finds revealed by the survey, you can provide specific comments associated with those areas. This will also assist you with developing interview/focus group questions.

- 2) Your comment analysis should focus on clarifying survey results to allow for a better understanding of responses. Additionally, survey and comment analysis helps you to determine what focus group/interview questions are needed to validate findings. Finally, when presenting your findings to the commander, it is much easier to lump your comment analysis into themes. Meaning, you take the top 2-3 most common responses.
- 3) Comments are provided verbatim and cannot be modified. There will be occasions when comments reveal UCMJ violations. These comments should be brought to the commands attention for action.

e. Interviews and Focus Group Analysis:

All interview/focus group questions should be developed based on survey results, commander's guidance, and/or observations you've made while conducting the assessment.

To ensure accurate feedback is captured, the EOA needs to take careful notes during the interview/focus group. After all the interviews and focus groups are conducted, start identifying themes.

Issues or concerns identified during *Interviews* or *Focus Groups* can verify and validate other information and data collected. During your analysis:

- 1) Comprehensively view the information. It is normally easy to see a pattern (themes) emerging.
- 2) Identify all data that relate to common patterns/themes (SH, trust in leadership, favoritism).
- 3) Determine if data validates or invalidates survey results or observations. Combine and catalogue related patterns from all sources
- 4) Choose valid themes to report

f. Records and Reports Analysis:

After completing the survey and conducting observations, requesting records and reports may—or may not—be required depending on results from other assessment areas.

If the survey and observation results reveal primarily positive findings, and the areas of concern cannot be better understood by reviewing reports, then there is no need to request or review any documents. If the assessment results, command directives, and/or local commander require you to review certain documents, then you will need to request and review those documents.

Analyze records and reports to clarify survey results and/or interview comments.

- 1) Awards
- 2) Decorations
- 3) Training Opportunities
- 4) Promotions
- 5) Etc.

-Reviewing records and reports is not always necessary

-Commander notification

-Not an investigative tool

-Used to validate survey or respondents perceptions.

g. Final Analysis:

The final analysis consists of consolidating data from all assessment tools. The DEOCS survey will always be the primary means of gathering information and determining the unit's positive and negative perceptions.

Results and findings are now pulled together to provide leadership with a means to address any negative concerns that impact the mission or continue the positive trends.

- 1) DEOCS – identified concern areas through survey responses and comments
- 2) Observations – observed behaviors or spoke to unit members
- 3) Focus Group/Interviews – clarified or validated survey, observation, and/or the commander's concern areas.
- 4) Records and reports – clarified or validated survey/observation concerns.

Results are reported or briefed depends on your Service Specific requirements. This will be explained during the Service Specific portion of the course.

Commander outbriefs and/or reports should provide information that was obtained or observed during your assessment. Your brief or report should speak to the totality of all four assessment areas, and how each area either validates or invalidates the survey results, comments, interviews, or the unit commander's initial perceptions.

Showing a complete picture and providing both positive and negative findings will display your objectivity, competency, and skill as an EOA.

F. Identify DEOCS Request Information

DEOCS.Net

All information regarding the DEOCS can be located at www.deocs.net

- 1) DEOCS request video
- 2) Downloads
- 3) “Request Now” – New Assessment

G. Demonstrate the Organizational Assessment Process

After data have been gathered, reduced, merged, and analyzed (or diagnosed) for the command you are assessing, the next step is to prepare for the feedback session with the commander.

SUMMARY

The following topics were presented:

- A. Recall the foundational objectives of an organizational assessment.
- B. Recognize the organizational assessment process.
- C. Explain the planning and preparation strategies associated with an organizational assessment.
- D. Identify organizational assessment tools.
- E. Analyze and interpret organizational assessment data.
- F. Identify DEOCS Request Information
- G. Demonstrate an organizational assessment process.

END OF LESSON

Attachments

1. Organizational Assessment (DEOCS Analysis and Capstone Activity)
2. DEOCS Questionnaire
3. DEOCS Report (Example)