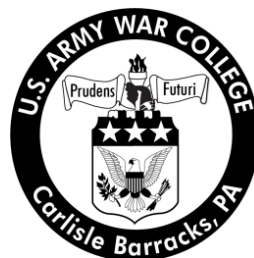


Strategy Research Project

Exploring the Complexities of Army Civilians and the Army Profession

by

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Department of the Army Civilian



United States Army War College
Class of 2013

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REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE				Form Approved OMB No. 0704-0188	
The public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average 1 hour per response, including the time for reviewing instructions, searching existing data sources, gathering and maintaining the data needed, and completing and reviewing the collection of information. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing the burden, to Department of Defense, Washington Headquarters Services, Directorate for Information Operations and Reports (0704-0188), 1215 Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington, VA 22202-4302. Respondents should be aware that notwithstanding any other provision of law, no person shall be subject to any penalty for failing to comply with a collection of information if it does not display a currently valid OMB control number. PLEASE DO NOT RETURN YOUR FORM TO THE ABOVE ADDRESS.					
1. REPORT DATE (DD-MM-YYYY) xx-03-2013		2. REPORT TYPE STRATEGY RESEARCH PROJECT		3. DATES COVERED (From - To)	
4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE Exploring the Complexities of Army Civilians and the Army Profession				5a. CONTRACT NUMBER	
				5b. GRANT NUMBER	
				5c. PROGRAM ELEMENT NUMBER	
6. AUTHOR(S) Dr. John E. Lapham Department of the Army Civilian				5d. PROJECT NUMBER	
				5e. TASK NUMBER	
				5f. WORK UNIT NUMBER	
7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Colonel Michael V. McCrea Department of Command, Leadership, and Management				8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER	
9. SPONSORING/MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) U.S. Army War College 122 Forbes Avenue Carlisle, PA 17013				10. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S ACRONYM(S)	
				11. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S REPORT NUMBER(S)	
12. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT Distribution A: Approved for Public Release. Distribution is Unlimited.					
13. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES Word Count: 9,950					
14. ABSTRACT The U.S. Army is both a military department and a distinctive profession. The Army performs most of its institutional Army responsibilities in the generating force bureaucracies and its landpower missions in the operating force military formations. Further, the Army continues to face substantial U.S. national security challenges in a time of budget instability and with mandates for significant efficiencies garnered from business transformation. Based on a decade of conflict, the Army executives and senior leaders recently established a revamped the Army Profession composed of two main communities of practice: the Profession of Arms and the Army Civilian Corps. Given this setting, the purpose of the paper is to explore the myriad complexities and provide a synthesis regarding Army civilians as part of the changing Army and the Army Profession. The research uses various perspectives, such as how civilians fit in the greater federal civil service, where civilians perform and contribute to the Army, what it means to be professional, what are cultural commonalities and differences, what are professional and bureaucratic leaders, and what cultural implications may exist for the Army in the future.					
15. SUBJECT TERMS Army Civilian Corps, Bureaucracies, Professions, Leadership, and Culture					
16. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF:			17. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT UU	18. NUMBER OF PAGES 60	19a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE PERSON
a. REPORT UU	b. ABSTRACT UU	c. THIS PAGE UU			19b. TELEPHONE NUMBER (Include area code)

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Abstract

Title: Exploring the Complexities of Army Civilians and the Army Profession

Report Date: March 2013

Page Count: 60

Word Count: 9,950

Key Terms: Army Civilian Corps, Bureaucracies, Professions, Leadership, and Culture

Classification: Unclassified

The U.S. Army is both a military department and a distinctive profession. The Army performs most of its institutional Army responsibilities in the generating force bureaucracies and its landpower missions in the operating force military formations. Further, the Army continues to face substantial U.S. national security challenges in a time of budget instability and with mandates for significant efficiencies garnered from business transformation. Based on a decade of conflict, the Army executives and senior leaders recently established a revamped the Army Profession composed of two main communities of practice: the Profession of Arms and the Army Civilian Corps. Given this setting, the purpose of the paper is to explore the myriad complexities and provide a synthesis regarding Army civilians as part of the changing Army and the Army Profession. The research uses various perspectives, such as how civilians fit in the greater federal civil service, where civilians perform and contribute to the Army, what it means to be professional, what are cultural commonalities and differences, what are professional and bureaucratic leaders, and what cultural implications may exist for the Army in the future.

Exploring the Complexities of Army Civilians and the Army Profession

It is DoD policy that: A diverse cadre of highly capable, high-performing, and results-oriented civilian leaders shall be developed and sustained to lead effectively in increasingly complex environments, ensure continuity of leadership, and maintain a learning organization that drives transformation and continuous improvement across the enterprise.

—DoD Instruction 1430.16 (2009)¹

The United States continues to face profound challenges in an uncertain, ambiguous, and often-dangerous global environment requiring capable and responsive military forces whose actions are in concert with other facets of national power.²

Strategic military success relies on the ability of its military and civilian professionals to interrelate, perform, and transform in Joint, Interagency, Intergovernmental, and Multinational (JIIM) settings.³ Significant national security challenges for the United States include violent extremist organizations such as al-Qaida, nuclear proliferation and cyber threats, budget instability and the prospect of more deep spending cuts.⁴

At the same time, the Congress and the Department of Defense (DoD) executives are mandating considerably better business management and improved performance. Specifically, the DoD leadership expects the Army and its other military departments to operate effectively, efficiently, and responsively in its endeavors.⁵ Realizing results from business transformation requires that military and civilian leaders perform effectively and efficiently in bureaucratic organizations and military formations.

In a long tradition of service to the United States, the Army exists to prepare continually, deter credibly, and engage decisively in assigned military matters. Recent descriptions of the Army purport a dual nature. The Army is a military department, a bureaucratic institution, and part of the larger Armed Forces. Concurrently, the Army is a distinctive military profession, a group of trusted members, and a noble calling.⁶ In this

dual environment, military leaders concomitantly operate under constitutional *civilian* authority on one hand and oversee Army *civilians* in the Army bureaucracy on the other.

At the heart of the Army are its highly dedicated uniformed members who stand ready to defend the United States against its enemies, and who strive to uphold the highest moral standards at all times.⁷ By law, the Armed Forces consist of the Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, Coast Guard, and a few other constituents of the greater uniformed services. The Army uniformed members form the Profession of Arms.⁸

However, Army military members are not alone. They depend on a variety of non-lethal support from Army civilians who provide long-term continuity and important skills, normally away from the battlefield, but sometimes in forward deployed military organizations and during contingency operations.⁹ The symbiotic relationship and necessity for Army civilians is apparent in generating land combat power and providing support for homeland security.¹⁰ By law, Army civilians are part of the United States civil service, not the uniformed services.¹¹ The Army Civilian Corps is the group that signifies civil servants.¹²

Recently, the Army senior leadership reexamined the Army as a profession based on a decade of conflict predominantly in the Middle East and with an eye to the future.¹³ The result is a new construct that expands the traditional Profession of Arms from military officers alone to an Army profession that includes noncommissioned officers and soldiers, as well as the Army Civilian Corps. For civilians, the new change includes the Army intent that, “Army *civilians* become *multi-skilled leaders* of the 21st Century who *personify the warrior ethos* in all aspects, from *war-fighting support* to *statesmanship*, to *business management* [italics added].”¹⁴

At the personal level, if an outsider asked a soldier, “what do you do?” the uniformed member would probably answer, “I *serve in* the Army.” If the outsider asked the same question of an Army civilian, she or he would likely respond, “I *work for* the Army.” Similarly, the United States Code (USC) and DoD instructions characterize Soldiers as *members of* the Armed Forces and Army Civilians as *employed by* the Armed Forces.¹⁵ The simple generalization and different language in the law and regulations suggest that subtle, deeply engrained distinctions and cultural biases may exist between the Profession of Arms and Army Civilian Corps: differences the Army might find difficult to overcome by simply designating civilians in the Army Profession.

The formation of the Army Profession against the backdrop of different subcultures and identities, severe federal budget cuts, and mandatory business transformation puts a new focus on the Army civilian. Accordingly, the purpose of the paper is to explore the complexities and provide a synthesis regarding Army civilians who are now part of the Army Profession. The focus uses several perspectives ranging from how civilians fit in the greater federal civil service system, where civilians perform and contribute to the Army, what it means to be professional, what cultural commonalities and differences exist, what distinguishes professional and bureaucratic leadership, and what may need to change for success of the profession and the Army.

The flow of the paper begins with the general setting from which the Army members discharge their responsibilities and conduct missions in the operating force and the generating force, including Army Transformation aspects. Next is an introduction to the public bureaucracy model for the federal government. A brief explanation of civil-military relations and the Army Civilian Corps closes the first section.

The second section contrasts institutions, organizations, and bureaucracies. The third main section looks at the meaning and relationships among occupations, careers, and especially professions. Public leadership, professional and bureaucratic leader types, forms the fourth section, including a few variations of bureaucratic leadership, military leadership in general, and federal management and supervision.

The fifth section covers the facets and different levels of culture and identity. The sixth section focuses on the Army and the Army profession in terms of developmental models, management systems, and professional attributes essential for military and civilian members. Recommendations and conclusions complete the paper. Figure 1 depicts many of the key areas explored in the paper regarding Army civilians and the Army Profession.

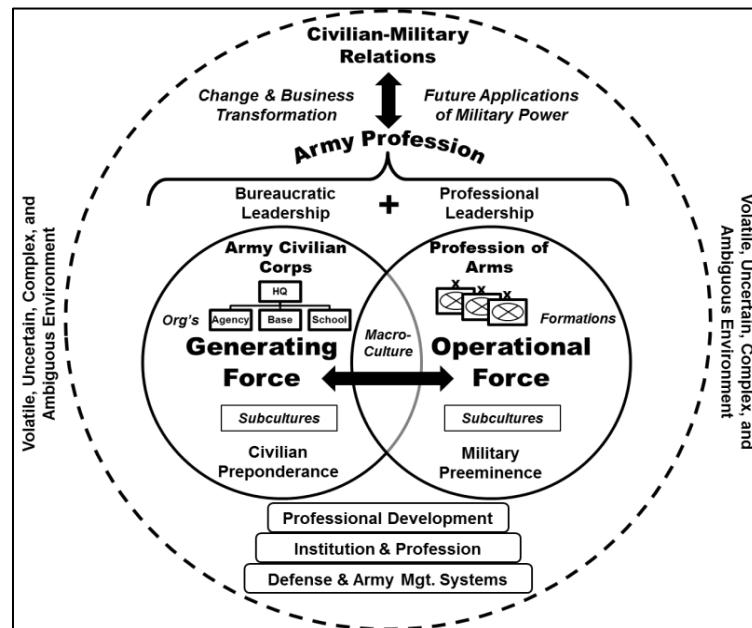


Figure 1. The Army Profession and Several of its Key Relationships.

Some viewpoints and terms are necessary for better understanding the paper. Although debate exists and despite differences in the literature and practice, the terms and practices of leaders, managers, and administrators overlap,¹⁶ and both capable

leadership and competent management are necessary for advancing the Army as an institution and in transforming its organizations.¹⁷ Further, the Army and other federal agencies use the title *manager* for many of its civil service positions—it is not useful to criticize civilians as being managers instead of leaders.¹⁸ The use of the terms leadership (leaders), management (managers), and administration (administrators) is interchangeable in this paper.¹⁹ Other substitutions are public manager or public administrator with bureaucratic leader, and Army civilian with Army Civilian Corps.

Further, the term bureaucracy is positive because bureaucracies favor stable and consistent administration, accountability via hierarchy, and accumulation of expertise and specialization.²⁰ In fact, contemporary endeavors of any size and culture have bureaucratic elements to some degree and bureaucracies continue to have relevancy in the twenty-first century.²¹ Unfortunately, many individuals have common misconceptions that view bureaucracies as habitually slow and wasteful, conformist, overly standard and routine, and inflexible and resistant to change.²² The fact is that managers and not bureaucracies create problems, especially when leaders pursue power and status instead of supporting their organizations, and when they protect their positions and careers rather than focusing on their missions and associated programs.²³

Setting the Stage

The following information reflects the backdrop from which to explore the complexities of Army civilians and the Army Profession. Key to this paper is an understanding of the role of civilians in the federal civil service and the Army, as well as the environment in which the Army and Army Profession exists. Therefore, the discourse begins with an overview of the operational Army and institutional Army, Army Transformation, the public bureaucracy model, and the Army Civilian Corps.

Operating Force and Generating Force

The Army employs landpower as part of the United States national security strategies. The Army's three strategic roles are to prevent conflict, shape the international security environment, and win decisively. The Army dynamically conducts its unified land operations in fluid ways that combine offensive, defensive, and stability tasks, as well as defense support of civil authorities. For success, the Army continually adapts its landpower capabilities and performs its missions in JIIM environments.²⁴

Through Title 10, USC, the Congress regulates the Armed Forces including its intent and requirements for the Army.²⁵ The DoD executives specify the following responsibilities and functions for the Department of the Army: structuring, manning, equipping, training, sustaining, deploying, stationing, funding, and readiness.²⁶ In preparing and executing its landpower roles, the Army divides its focus into two conceptually discrete, yet interconnected categories.²⁷

One category is the operational Army or operating force. It is with the operational force that lethal, combatant, and integral support activities take place. As an operational Army, uniformed elements perform unified landpower operations usually within the joint authority of geographical or functional combatant commands.²⁸

The other category is the institutional Army or generating force. The generating force consists of a wide-array of Army organizations whose primary mission is to generate and sustain the operational Army's capabilities for employment by joint force commanders. Generating force organizations have inherent capabilities built on day-to-day, business-like functions and processes that are also operationally relevant since current and future unified land operations rely heavily on such unique capabilities. The reality is that boundaries between the operational and generating forces are not fixed,

no single label applies to the many diverse generating force organizations, joint and Army generating forces increasingly overlap; and generating force support is necessary from crisis response and expeditionary efforts to enduring operations and support to civil authorities.²⁹ Army civilians are at the core of the generating force production.

Army Transformation

The Government Performance and Results Modernization Act of 2010 mandates better agency business management in the form of improved strategic plans; performance plans and performance reporting; prioritization of strategic goals; and transparency of programs, priority goals, and results. Targeted primarily to the generating force, the Army executives mandated increased efficiency and innovation in the form of business transformation activities. As the Secretary of the Army noted, “The drive to reform the Institutional Army is less about improving the bottom line and more about doing things better, faster, and smarter while taking advantage of technology, knowledge, and experience available to us.”³⁰

Though arduous, business management improvements permit a better focus on supporting ongoing military operations overseas, expanding stewardship and accountability across the Army, preserving readiness and capabilities during downsizing, and modernizing prudently in anticipation of future threats.³¹ Since organizations are socio-technical, individuals and groups must constantly adapt to change and smooth internal turbulences within the technical or operating core. Civilians play key roles in applying innovative business practices, technical expertise, and change leadership for revolutionary and incremental improvements.

Public Bureaucracy Model

Public institutions contain human subsystems, sub-groups whose vital functions determine in different ways what the bureaucracy does or does not do, and how well it performs assigned tasks.³² For national security matters, the United States federal bureaucracy model centers on the formulation of strategic options, implementation of policies, and countless actions occurring below the top level of elected leaders and political appointees. Bureaucratic politics should result in positive coordination, collaboration, or bargaining during routine and crises situations.³³

In the public bureaucracy, three primary subsystems compete for influence and power in performing various tasks and applying different strategies: (a) political appointees, (b) professional careerists, and (c) general civil servants. Two smaller subsystems are in place in the form of collective bargaining units and contractors. The political appointees occupy top-level policymaking billets, hold no or little tenure, and serve at the pleasure of the chief elected official responsible for them.³⁴ The Secretary of Defense, Secretary of the Army, and their appointed staff members are examples. The discussion later about civilian-military relations (CMR) generally occurs between (a) elected officials and their political appointees and (b) with the military senior careerists.

Professional careerists are experts with specialized training and experience—this key group comprises the senior elites. Often with direction of the political appointees, but not always, the professional careerists influence institutions and organizations. The civilian senior executive service and military officer corps (flag and line officers), specialists and technicians (lawyers and doctors), and administrators (general staff members, accountants, and human resource managers) are exemplars. Professionals

are essential, have longevity, influence policies, and retain a special standing attained through performance and reputation.³⁵

Further, the typical civil servants are members of the bureaucracy within an established merit system comprised of competitive placement, examination, and evaluation. Although progressive pathways exist within federal career programs, civil servants can seek out advancement in other federal agencies and departments. However, the longevity of the civil servants in the same organization or department often results in long-term views of business as well as criticism of quick fixes and flavor-of-the day changes from political appointees and revolving heads of organizations.³⁶

Moreover, the subsystems have individual cultures, interacting subcultures, and identities. The subsystems are not necessarily a homogenous group or without internal conflicts in the institutions to which they serve. Civil servants in bureaucracies generally do not benefit from the unity and cohesiveness found among the professional groups.³⁷

Civilian-Military Relationship

The subject of American CMR remains an ongoing, important topic found in military circles and in the literature. Fundamentally, American CMR forms the agreement about the allocation of responsibilities and prerogatives for the use of national military power. Specifically, CMR refers to the interrelationships and interactions among three areas of a state: the armed forces as an institution, the government, and the other parts of society with a strong military presence.³⁸

The CMR remains the foundation of our military and the Army Profession due to the constitutional mandate for civilian control of the military, its importance throughout our Nation's history, and its continued stewardship and appreciation for the future.³⁹ Tenets of a healthy CMR are mutual respect and shared responsibility based on four

components of the military culture: (a) clear executive leadership, (b) commitment to the corporate identity, (c) motivation for professional expertise, and (d) dedication to political responsibility. Corporate identity in this sense refers to the common symbols and overall image held by stakeholders about elements and practices of the same institution.⁴⁰

The Army Civilian Corps

The first civilian was present as part of the Army's inception in 1775 and there has been a civilian presence ever since. The Army established the Army Civilian Corps in 2006⁴¹ and civilians continue to support all facets of the Army by allowing uniformed members to perform innately military functions, by possessing critical skills, and by assuring continuity of operations for all components.⁴² Army civilians represent roughly 330,000 of the nearly 800,000 defense civilians presently in the workforce⁴³, or approximately one quarter of the 1.4 million persons in the total force. Civilians provide a full range of skills that complement the military occupational specialties in areas such as acquisition, human resources, engineering, and medical.⁴⁴

Army civilians comprise a mix of political appointees, full time and part time personnel, permanent and temporary personnel, excepted and non-excepted personnel, civilians serving on active duty and in the reserves, deployed civilians, and many other categories and groups.⁴⁵ Much of defense civilian positions fall under the authority and administration of Title 5, USC. By definition, civilians are employees appointed by someone in an official capacity in the Executive Branch, engaged in the performance of a Federal function under authority of law or an Executive act, and subject to the supervision of an official while engaged in the performance of the duties of a position.⁴⁶

The Army Civilian Corps' contributions to the Army have shifted from previously narrow, technical roles to that of increasing support particularly in the generating force,

but also to a lesser degree with the operational force. In the new paradigm, the Army civilian workforce performs in complementary, symbiotic ways with the military force. The principal role of Army civilians is the “lead and manage the design, development, and operation of the Army’s evolving management processes that articulate requirements, generate and manage resources, and deliver human capital and material to the Operating Force.”⁴⁷ Referring to the generating force, the Secretary of the Army noted the civilian cohort comprises 60 percent of the required positions and civilian responsibilities to prepare, train, educate, and support Army operational forces.⁴⁸ Army civilians include both appropriated fund and non-appropriated fund employees.⁴⁹

In consonance with the increased use of civilians beyond previous roles, the DoD policy advocates the designation of manpower requirements for DoD civilian performance except when military incumbency is necessary. The policy also proposes the provision of sufficient civilian manpower to provide a rotation base for assignment outside the United States and to develop competencies and skills that may not be taught or recruited directly from the private sector. Clearly, the DoD and Army executive leadership recognizes that civilians are part of the total force manpower mix.⁵⁰

Due to the blurring of the line between the generating force and operating force, the DoD directed the designation, establishment, and preparedness of a Defense civilian expeditionary force. The civilian expeditionary force is a blending of civilian talent to support military efforts during exigencies, including major combat operations. In the same fashion as for military forces, the DoD executives expect all its members to regard, respect, and recognize highly the contributions of the civilian expeditionary force.⁵¹ During Fiscal Year 2012, nearly 3,000 Army civilians deployed overseas.⁵²

Based on public law, the DoD executives also implemented policy whereby civilians accompanying the Armed Forces in the field during times of Congressionally declared war of contingency operations were subject to the Uniformed Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). The policy covers conduct outside the United States that would constitute an offense punishable for more than one year, as if the conduct would have taken place within the maritime and territorial jurisdiction of the United States.⁵³

Institutions, Organizations, and Bureaucracies

Institutions are the building blocks of society; organizations are collectives where people work.⁵⁴ Organizations exist because collective work creates more value than independent work.⁵⁵ Two strong principles that carry enormous weight in the design and understanding of organizations are hierarchy and bureaucracy. Hierarchy pertains to the vertical organization of tasks; bureaucracy refers to the control and execution of tasks.⁵⁶

Further, hierarchy, bureaucracy, and organizational culture have important social characteristics resident in institutions, organizations, and bureaucracies. Hierarchy and bureaucracy establish social relationships in organizations. Hierarchical social order advances and protects the interests of leaders, elites, supporters, and followers⁵⁷ In many cases, hierarchy also provides opportunities for advancement, increased salaries or wages, privileges and prerogatives, and a sense of purpose and security.⁵⁸ Given the military chain of command and other support channels, as well as distribution of authority through civilian managers and supervisors, it is necessary to understand the roles that institutions, organizations, and bureaucracies play in society and professions.

Institutions

Institutions are sets of activities to which individuals in a group attribute a symbolic function, both in a purely symbolic form or in a physical form.⁵⁹ Institutions

refer to a set of closely connected rules and practices that prescribes behavior on certain matters: religion, banking, marriage, and higher learning are representations of institutions.⁶⁰ The examples are diffused institutions concerned with general practices whose specific characteristics differ across time and place.⁶¹ Institutions are not haphazard and created on demand. Instead, institutions are living entities, seated in values and tradition, and have an impetus to develop.⁶²

Institutions, vital organizations that contain resources and operate through designated authoritative agents, have several features. First, the activities of the institution relate to a requirement of the society. Second, the formal structures of the institution hold the norms, values, beliefs, and assumptions of the society. Third, closely connected, well-defined rules and practices prescribe behavior for achieving specific purposes and implementing decisions. Further, the institution as an organization puts forth its best effort to add value to society through goods and services.⁶³ The Army and the Army Profession are institutions using the definition just provided.

Organizations

Organizations play essential roles in the modern world and their presence dominates most aspects of contemporary social life.⁶⁴ Organizations are some combination of highly formalized collectives, social systems seeking to achieve legitimacy and survival, and coalitions of participants with differing interests embedded in wider environments.⁶⁵ Social, political, and cultural processes shape and constrain organizations;⁶⁶ therefore, collectives create ceremonies and mythologies about their activities so their key constituents continue to permit the organization to operate and to provide confidence to its members.⁶⁷ As stated previously, most organizations have

some characteristics of hierarchy and bureaucracy.⁶⁸ Army formations in the operational force and business-like collectives in the generating force exist as organizations.

Bureaucracies

Bureaucracy is a model for administering organizations through positions and activities to service and sustain the collective.⁶⁹ Bureaucracies are complex systems of organization that govern collective efforts in pursuit of organizational objectives, including respect for the position and not the person.⁷⁰ Specifically, bureaucracies exhibit the principles of hierarchy, specialized tasks, division of labor, formalized rules and standard operating procedures, and record keeping. Public bureaucracies are mostly structures formed by politics, part of contemporary democratic governance, and essential for large-scale governmental tasks such as national diplomacy and defense.⁷¹

In addition, bureaucratic and professional constructs overlap because prevalent bureaucracies are prone to achieving societal legitimacy resulting in normative isomorphism. Organizational isomorphism is the imitation of another's structures, cultures, and strategies. Normative isomorphism, where professionals share common thinking and norms, often occurs through pressures from professions, such as legitimacy inherent in the licensing and accreditation, or transfer of members among institutions or organizations.⁷² Leaders should recognize the tendency for normative isomorphism when transforming Army organizations.

In contemporary organizations, social systems derive from bureaucratically managed social relationships of stratified positions reflecting superiors and subordinates. Bureaucratic forms vary in the proportion of administrative staff versus production and related personnel:⁷³ downsizing efforts require the application of clear objectives and smart criteria. Bureaucracies are also a solution for overcoming

problems of charismatic leadership: autocracy, irresponsibility, instability, cronyism, and impermanence.⁷⁴ As a military department, the Army should consider the full scope of its bureaucratic organizations when redesigning generating force capacities.

Occupations, Careers, and Professions

People perform in organizations doing jobs that are frequently knowledge work, technical, and complex. How civilian and military members as human resources fit into the profession is important. In exploring the Army and Army Profession from the civilian viewpoint, factors such as the dynamic nature of work, shifting culture, workforce diversity, quality of life, and economics help in understanding the civilian leaders, workforce, and its professional members.

Occupations

Occupations relate to the principle activities or sets of skills that a person does or uses at the workplace to earn money; occupations are highly correlated with income.⁷⁵ As the talents or specialties in a field of work—occupations also serve as the key indicators of workers' positions in the societal division of labor. The job requirements for an occupation provide a road map for those seeking to enter the occupation: organizations and workers use occupation classifications to enable communication about job content and for determining suitability of potential job applicants.⁷⁶ It is necessary for individuals to acquire formal education and on-the-job experience in developing sets of skills to enable success in different occupations.⁷⁷

Army civilians like their military counterparts, fall within an occupational series. The Army civilian occupations cluster in 31 career programs based on common technical functions, associated command missions, position knowledge, skills, and abilities.⁷⁸ The career programs support the Army intent for the career development of

individual civilian members via a process that promotes gaining knowledge, skills, and abilities within a career program through training, assignment, or self-development.⁷⁹

Careers

Careers are long-term jobs managed as formal occupations in organizational structures or as boundaryless choices by workers preferring self-management. Careers can follow various paths: functional path, industry path, or institutional sector. The functional path is hierarchical advancement within the same occupation and organization or federal department. Instead of a particular focus, the industry path follows broad industries or specialties such as healthcare, intelligence, information technology, and acquisition. For the institutional sector, the path normally means an orientation to work in either the private sector or the public sector.⁸⁰ Understanding human talent factors such as the aging workforce, stress and family life, benefits, and retirement come to bear when individuals self-manage and experts career-manage at the organization. The effects of cost-cutting, job redesign and security, changing organizational structures and processes, base closings, and other demands do shape long-term careers.⁸¹

Professions

Professions are organized occupational groups with some accepted claim to legal status, social status, or both.⁸² The word profession derives from the Latin word *profiteor*, the declaring in public of an individuals' formal commitment to serve in some manner towards social usefulness, suggesting a particular knowledge and code of values.⁸³ Beyond the existence of a social utility, professions and professionalism presume a social necessity for the greater society considered as a "professional mandate." The professional mandate is a call for support in response to occasional and

socially recurrent troublesome situations. The societal call for support warrants exceptional, specific knowledge and skills that enable experts to establish and manage processes as a way to normalize a given societal equilibrium.⁸⁴

Professions also have jurisdictional boundaries, the connections between the work performed and the professions. Jurisdictional boundaries often overlap, creating the need for space to negotiate or overcome friction.⁸⁵ Professions routinely operate through a class of educated careerists who possess and use specialized skills in a distinct field controlled and accredited by professional associations or other agencies.⁸⁶ Higher levels of skills and professionalization lean toward decentralized structures, because professionals and staff members cannot perform effectively nor sustain their motivation when constricted by constant, tight rules and instructions from higher levels of the organization or society.⁸⁷

Society and laypersons place their trust in professional members, necessitating that professionals be worthy of the trust, place their clients first, maintain confidentiality, and use their knowledge for constructive purposes. Performing in a professional manner most often results in positive rewards such as autonomy, authority, privileges, and high status.⁸⁸ Professions must also self-regulate themselves and change from within; otherwise, professionals cannot adequately respond to their clients' evolving needs, enforce standards of behavior essential for maintaining the confidence of constituents and members, and retain their status and commensurate rewards.⁸⁹ Thus, the term professional relates to membership in a distinct group that confers status, position, prominence, authority, and duties.⁹⁰

A related category is the paraprofessional. Paraprofessionals are support staff and technicians who work in professional fields, but who do not attain the high-level academic degrees and licensing requirements of a professional. Common terms found in the literature used for paraprofessionals are aides (aids), assistants, technicians, specialists, and associates.⁹¹

Scarce, valued, and accredited knowledge is a core trait of a profession.⁹² In the United States civil service, professional work requires knowledge in a specialized field of science or learning characteristically acquired through commensurate education or training equivalent to a bachelor's or higher degree. The professional work also entails the use of discretion, judgment, and personal responsibility for the application and study of an organized body of knowledge in the specialized field to make new discoveries and interpretations, as well as improve data and information, materials, and methods.⁹³

According to federal regulations, a profession is a calling that requires specialized knowledge and often long and intensive preparation—intensive study includes instruction in skills and methods, as well as undergirding scientific, historical, or scholarly principles. Members of a profession, via force of organization or concerted opinion, establish and maintain high standards of achievement and conduct, and commit its practitioners to continued study of the field. Consulting and advising with respect to subject matter expertise falls generally as the province of practitioners of a profession. For a fiduciary relationship, a profession manifests when the nature of the services provided causes the recipient to place a substantial degree of trust and confidence in the integrity, fidelity, and specialized knowledge of the practitioner.⁹⁴

At the occupational level, the government typically classifies its white collar civilian jobs as professional, administrative, technical, clerical, or other (PATCO) work. Professional and administrative work classifications have similarities such as analytical ability, judgment, discretion, personal responsibility, and academic degrees from a university. Specifically, professional work centers on major study or specialized field, and administrative work focuses on substantial study of management. The technical work category is similar to the paraprofessional in that technical work supports a professional or administrative field. Clerical work refers to general office or program support. The other kinds of work category relates to the few occupations that do not fit clearly into one of the other groupings—examples are fire protection and police occupations.⁹⁵ The DoD and Army human resource management segregates the civilian workforce by PATCO for white collar and educational level purposes.⁹⁶

Leadership

Professionals play a major role in providing services at public institutions, including representation as expert advisors and providing leadership in government.⁹⁷ Although differences exist between bureaucracy and profession, similarities are also prevalent. For instance, bureaucratic values such as an emphasis on members' technical qualifications are compatible with professional values.⁹⁸ For public leadership, variation and similarity are present in professional and bureaucratic leader types.

Professional Leaders and Professionals

Professional leaders believe in their need for autonomy, attaining expertise in abstract knowledge applicable to the profession, and identifying with other professionals and the profession. The leaders also have faith in fulfilling ethical obligations of selfless service to clients without self-interest or emotional leanings, committing to the

profession as a calling or life's work, and having conviction about self-regulation and collegial enforcement of standards.⁹⁹ Occasionally, tensions exist between policy makers and bureaucratic leaders on one side and professionals on the other. Policy makers and public managers attempt to establish control and order by reducing professional autonomy; at the same time, professional members seek to increase freedom of action and building the profession.¹⁰⁰ Such tensions could manifest in CMR and between leaders and civilians in generating force bureaucracies.

Further, some management experts prescribe dual tracks for the white collar workers: one track for administrators and another track for professionals, so the professionals can stay current in their specialty areas. Yet, other organizations rotate their professionals in and out of management positions during a career.¹⁰¹ Military officers and senior noncommissioned officers are examples of dual-tracking: as professional leaders in military formations and as bureaucratic leaders in Army institutions. Army civilians can also dual-track by pursuing management and supervisory positions, usually with the professional career track.

Bureaucratic Leaders: Servant, Entrepreneurial, and Steward Models

Max Weber in his seminal work described the bureaucratic leader as operating in conjunction with staff officials, supported by legal authority based on normative rules, and giving commands from hierarchical authority.¹⁰² Despite the suggestion that bureaucratic leaders apply non-expert knowledge in routine and repetitive situations,¹⁰³ public leaders ensure democratic accountability in decisions and actions through conformity to bureaucratic rules—conformity is not an impediment to the delivery of effective services.¹⁰⁴ As early as the 1970s, studies indicated that many leaders in bureaucratic organizations and public agencies were more self-directed, more open-

mindful, more personally responsible in moral standards, more receptive to change, and more flexible in problem solving.

The reason that bureaucratic leaders were better than their counterparts in the private sector was due to having a better education, experiencing more intellectually challenging assignments, and having increased freedom from arbitrary actions by superiors.¹⁰⁵ Research also shows that many societies and organizations encourage bureaucratic leadership because of preferences for formal rules and procedures, chains of command, and collective values and harmony. The same research shows that bureaucratic leaders emphasize results over process and they reward performance, value both assertiveness and competition, and stimulate innovation and initiative.¹⁰⁶

The servant leadership model resonates in public bureaucracies built on selfless service. Servant leaders empower followers instead of dominating them by keeping actions consistent with values, demonstrating trust, and engaging in honest and open ways. Servant leaders appreciate everyone in the organization—the leaders help others improve through better listening, empathy, and tolerance of others. To this end, they aid subordinates in becoming more knowledgeable, more autonomous, and more servant-like. A key quality of servant leaders is to develop and inspire followers to become leaders when the opportunity presents, a benefit to the profession and society.¹⁰⁷

In the same vein, two contrasting public manager leadership models can substitute for bureaucratic leadership: entrepreneurial and stewardship. The entrepreneurial leadership model in the public domain is decentralized, opportunistic, and considers the demands of the environment and the preferences of various stakeholder groups. Entrepreneurial leaders emphasize innovation and dynamism

based on some amount of unconstrained weight for traditional rules and sufficient trust from political leaders. Public leaders typifying the stewardship model take a more conservative approach and assure legitimacy through conformity to the wishes of their democratically elected politicians and accountability to established decisions and actions. The stewardship approach centers on public service, execution of policies, and continuity of public institutions and services.¹⁰⁸ The general challenge is attaining the best possible performance from the public organization when different managers have different ways of organizing and leading their people and controlling the resources necessary to conduct their tasks.¹⁰⁹ A skilled balancing or trade-off between entrepreneurial and innovation as well as stewardship and accountability appears necessary for effective leadership in the public domain.¹¹⁰

Military Leaders

Military leadership within the Army has roots in its history, loyalty to the nation and the Constitution, accountability to a formal chain of command, and appropriate autonomy to mission success. Army leadership follows a model comprised of attributes (what a leader is) and competencies (what a leader does). Army leaders, military and civilian, influence others and achieve objectives throughout three levels: direct, organizational, and strategic. Leaders at all levels attain unity, positive climates, and results. Army leadership is congruent with the principles and practices described in the public leadership types, professional and bureaucratic leadership, including the servant, entrepreneurial, and stewardship models.

Command for the Army refers to the lawful authority of military commanders based on rank or assignment. Command focuses on the authorities and responsibilities over military forces, including taking care of Soldiers and allocated resources.¹¹¹ The

philosophy of mission command—the exercise of authority and direction by the commander using mission orders to enable disciplined initiative within the commander’s intent—guides leaders in the execution of unified land operations.¹¹² Although Army civilians cannot exercise command, they can exercise general supervision over an Army institution or activity, when designated.¹¹³

Federal Managers and Supervisors (General Schedule)

As civilians in the federal government, managers and supervisors are explicit titles and the leaders holding these formal positions often exercise indispensable influence and power. Civilian managers exercise the broad authority vested in designated positions such as directing the work of an organizational unit; having accountability for the success of specific lines or staff functions; monitoring and evaluating the progress of the organization toward meeting goals; and making adjustments in objectives, work plans, schedules, and commitment of resources.¹¹⁴ Civilian supervisors exercise a more focused range of delegated authorities over subordinates in different levels of the organization. A first level supervisor personally directs subordinates without the use of other, subordinate supervisors. A second level supervisor directs work through one layer of subordinate supervisors.¹¹⁵

Leaders ultimately create, embed, evolve, and mold cultures. Since change is inevitable and contemporary large-scale organizations dynamic, leaders shape culture and culture influences developing leaders.¹¹⁶ For civilian managerial and supervisory leaders in the Army profession, it is necessary to understand and influence the organizational culture and identity, including finding ways to bond the civilian and military communities of practice, where possible. Military members can serve in

managerial and supervisory positions over civilians—in those instances, military leaders follow established rules and practices governing the administration of civilians.

Culture

Culture is deep, broad, stable, and complex;¹¹⁷ collective culture reflects a “shared orientation to social reality.”¹¹⁸ Although culture is somewhat abstract, it surrounds individuals, is within individuals, and takes on a group personality and character.¹¹⁹ Culture is also the training and refining of the mind, the collective mental programming that separates members of a group from another group.¹²⁰

Culture emerges through experiences, meanings, and learning; in addition, it appears through symbols, norms, and traditions.¹²¹ Culture manifests in the form of visible, yet often difficult to decipher artifacts; less obvious espoused beliefs and values; and invisible, unconscious underlying assumptions that form the ultimate source of values and action.¹²² Diverse cultures exist at several levels: (a) macroculture and multicultural entities at the national and multinational level, (b) organizational culture at the institutional and interagency level, (c) subcultures at various occupational groups or organizations and sub-elements, and (d) microcultures as microsystems inside or outside organizations.¹²³

Another way to describe culture is by the level or degree to which the cultural phenomenon is observable. The first level, artifacts, contains visible tasks, structures, and processes. The next two levels, espoused beliefs and underlying assumptions, are not easily observable. Espoused beliefs include goals, values, and ideologies. Underlying assumptions are the basic and readily accepted beliefs and mental models. Leadership is integral for initially setting and later changing culture.¹²⁴

The Army in general is a macroculture and the Army Profession now has two co-dependent subcultures. Operational formations and bureaucratic structures have idiomatic organizational cultures. Additionally, other distinctive professional, technical or paraprofessional, and clerical groups exist as occupational subcultures. Some of the occupational subcultures align with professions such as healthcare, legal, academia, and laboratory science. Microcultures might include surgical teams, acquisition integrated product teams, and cross-functional groups.¹²⁵

Identity also has ties to organizational culture. Identity reflects individuals' self-affiliation as a member of a group or category. Organizational identity points to a sense of whom and how a person perceives himself or herself—it is also how individuals define the organization.¹²⁶ Identity is distinct from culture because identity is conscious and culture is to a large part unconscious.¹²⁷

Moreover, cultural aspects of institutions form around the interactions of subcultures operating within the greater organizational culture. The subcultures share many of the assumptions of the organizational culture, but their shared assumptions derive from functional differentiation based on similarities of educational background, shared purpose and task, and collective experience. Subcultures can also represent common experiences of hierarchical levels and cross-functional occupational groups.¹²⁸

For the Army, military culture is pronounced and regimented through the Warrior Ethos, traditions, and demanding training. Military members rely on core shared ideas and values to guide them in the military use of force and extensive personal and familial sacrifices, including the giving of one's life for others.¹²⁹ The Army civilian subculture reflects a non-combatant, job-oriented, and less tightly integrated subculture. The

military professional subculture may not appreciate fully the fiat of civilian control over the military, or that civilians in the Army Profession are relative peers. Negative perceptions by external persons about the military during cross-agency collaboration should serve as notice about cultural biases—predispositions can go both ways.

Finally, studies of culture, when used properly, are feasible and helpful. Practical uses of cultural studies include identification of subcultures, testing of subcultures for fit to future strategies, identification of possible cultural conflicts during consolidations and organizational redesigns, and measurement of progress of cultural change over time.¹³⁰ Having explored several key aspects relating to Army civilians in the federal system and Army, the next area of importance builds on the information already presented and covers civilians as part of the Army Profession.

The Army and Army Profession

Achieving and sustaining excellence in a complex and rapidly changing world requires effective Army leadership as a military department and a profession. The challenge is to achieve an appropriate balance across the warfighting force and business areas.¹³¹ In October 2010, the Secretary of the Army and the Chief of Staff of the Army directed the Commander of the Training and Doctrine Command to execute a comprehensive review of the Army Profession in an era of persistent conflict.¹³²

After canvassing the Army and in thoughtful deliberations, the revamped Army Profession includes the following members: (a) the venerable profession of arms, uniformed members from all Army components, (b) the newly added Army Civilian Corps, non-uniformed Army Civilians, and (c) non-practicing veterans and retirees, honorable service as a condition. The primary focus for the Army Profession falls within the Profession of Arms and Army Civilian Corps communities of practice.¹³³ A

community of practice is a group of people that engages in a learning process with a common focus or interest, and who collaborate as well as share knowledge and experiences over an extended period, usually to find solutions.¹³⁴ Figure 2 represents the communities of practice within the Army Profession.

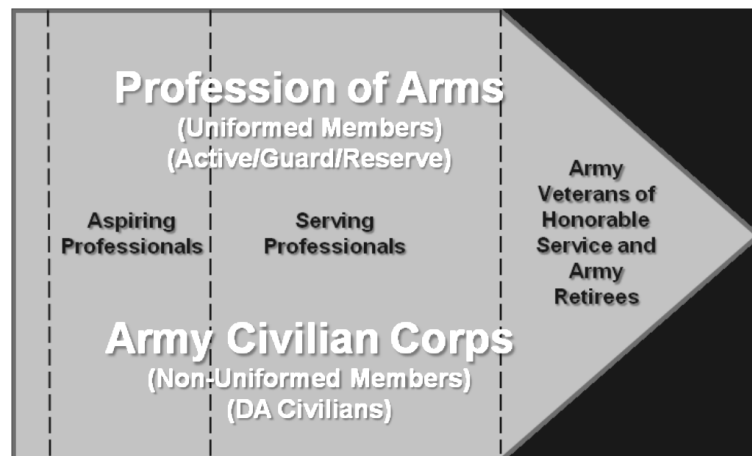


Figure 2. The Symbiotic Communities of Practice in the Army Profession.¹³⁵

The Army ultimately serves the American people, the society, and the United States Constitution through its elected officials. The Army Profession of Arms is well established and it parallels the growth of the United States. The military professional epitomizes selfless service and sacrifice, honor and duty, and courage and competency in accomplishing the mission. An element of the military profession is the expectation of its new members for almost immediate service and sacrifice.¹³⁶ At the senior level, the military professional is knowledgeable in the application of various instruments of national power, expert in the threat or use of force as an extension of state politics, and equally adept in non-kinetic aspects.¹³⁷

Military and Civilian Development and Management Systems

Separate military and civilian management systems exist for developing and administering the workforce. For example, military officers and noncommissioned

officers have evaluation systems that are somewhat different from civilian appraisal systems. Pay and allowances between the military and civilians can differ as well, although some common practices are in practice, such as when using the Joint Travel Regulations. Therefore, military and civilian leaders performing in Institutional Army organizations must have the requisite knowledge about the different civilian management systems to excel, especially in instances where several military and civilian personnel systems exist concurrently in the same organization.

Army Professional Development

Parallel with the public bureaucracy model, the Army profession has hierarchical divisions that include top, middle, and lower tiers. The military officer structure is a pyramidal and hierarchical form: progressive ranks and authority are at the top and situated in relatively few positions. The officer structure, includes warrant officers, starts at the at the company grade echelon, progresses through the field grade band, and culminates at the senior leader flag officer apex.¹³⁸ Military enlisted soldiers, the preponderance of the military force, have a similar pyramidal and hierarchical structure with progressive ranks and authorities culminating in the noncommissioned officer corps.¹³⁹ In most cases, Army civilians follow a hierarchical, career program structure of five broad progression levels: entry or intern, specialist or journeyman, intermediate, management, and executive.¹⁴⁰

In line with military officer and noncommissioned officer professional development models, the Civilian Workforce Transformation (CWT) endeavor is a vital program to transfigure the Army Civilian Corps members into more responsive, flexible, and capable professionals and leaders. The Army senior leaders expect the civilians to transform into an adaptive, agile, and requisite workforce to perform the Army missions

of the 21st century. The Army now manages its civilians using a lifecycle approach to produce and sustain an educated, trained, managed, and well-sustained civilian cohort.¹⁴¹ The lifecycle approach required a commensurate progressive and sequential leader development system. Accordingly, the Army implemented the Civilian Education System for developing all Army civilians throughout their careers.¹⁴²

Army Civilian Human Capital (Personnel) Systems

Several civilian personnel systems are in place beyond the more common General Schedule and Wage Grade, especially in the laboratory, acquisition, and intelligence communities. At the science and technology laboratory, a few personnel demonstration programs arose at the end of the last century. The programs applied new and different personal management concepts to streamline hiring processes, simplify position classification, establish pay for performance, and modify reduction in force procedures, among other improvements. The Personnel Demonstration Projects at the United States Army Research Laboratory and the United States Army Medical Research and Materiel Command are exemplars.¹⁴³

For the acquisition field, Congress passed legislation to improve the caliber of the personnel who manage and implement defense acquisition programs. Applying to civilian positions or military billets relating to DoD acquisition, the acquisition rules allow civilians greater opportunities for professional development and advancement. The establishment of the Defense Acquisition University and online management of the acquisition workforce are now part of the accepted business practices.¹⁴⁴

More recently, the Defense Civilian Intelligence Personnel System (DCIPS) came into existence. DCIPS is a single human resources system to strengthen the intelligence community's ability in meeting ever-changing demands, as well as provide better tools

to attract and retain high-quality employees. DCIPS derives its authority from Title 10, USC, and it uses a common excepted service civilian personnel authority for its civilian intelligence positions within DoD.¹⁴⁵ The next section relates to important attributes of the Army and the Army Profession.

Army Professional Attributes

Inherent in Army leadership and the Army Profession are qualities that serve as a bedrock. The Army leader attributes are character, presence, and intellect.¹⁴⁶ Attributes of professions are a code of values, judgment and personal responsibility, accredited knowledge, and self-regulation. It is worth noting that mid-level managers develop their leadership concepts based on organizational values and cultural shaping.¹⁴⁷

Ethos, Values, Character, and Discipline

Military and civilian members of the Army Profession take oaths of allegiance to the United States Constitution.¹⁴⁸ Uniformed members live a unique Warrior Ethos following the Soldiers' Creed and abiding by the UCMJ. At the same time, Army civilians perform under a supporting Civilian Creed and service ethos. Central to professions, ethos shapes the values and behaviors of its members, as well as clients, employers, and society.¹⁴⁹ In spite of differences between the military and civilian members of the profession, an expectation exists for exemplary conduct and selfless service grounded in ethos, character, and discipline.

Character in the Army stems from four core individual attributes: Army values, empathy, Warrior ethos and service ethos, and discipline. Army leaders of character continually develop themselves through study, reflection, experiential learning, communication, and feedback.¹⁵⁰ Title 10, USC, contains provisions about exemplary conduct for commanding officers and others to act honorably, remain vigilant about the

conduct of others under their command, to take action against dissolute and immoral practices, and advance the general health and welfare of the officers and enlisted persons under their command or charge.¹⁵¹

For Army civilians, Title 5, USC, Merit System Principles, outlines expected conduct and performance. First, all employees should maintain high standards of integrity, conduct, and concern for the public interest. Second, leaders should use the work force efficiently and effectively. Third, retention in office should occur based on the adequacy of their performance, correction of inadequate performance, and separation (termination) for failure to improve their performance or meet required standards. In addition, leaders should provide effective education and training to attain better organizational and individual performance.¹⁵²

Military and civilian members of the Army Profession perform under separate legal and administrative punishment systems. For the military, Army Commanders establish policies and standards for performance and they enforce lawful orders under the UCMJ and through Army Regulations.¹⁵³ For civilians, the Army has a table of penalties for infractions—misconduct and failure of performance—consisting of a suggested range of punishments for each of the various offenses committed. The table is a guide to discipline, not a rigid standard—authorities should consider matters of extenuation and mitigation, as they should for violations and infractions by military members.¹⁵⁴ First level (line) supervisors effect minor disciplinary measures, such as warnings and reprimands, recommending other action in more serious cases. Second level (line) supervisors review and approve serious disciplinary actions recommended by subordinate supervisors.¹⁵⁵

Autonomy and Delegation

Autonomy is a key part of a profession: autonomy as an institution and as an individual professional. Autonomy is a dimension describing the tendency to act independently without relying on others, work separately from others, or self-govern.¹⁵⁶ Autonomy, the distribution of power, is measurable indirectly by gaging the amount of delegation to the less powerful, and the amount of freedom the subordinates have to exercise.¹⁵⁷ Studies indicate that autonomous leaders do not inhibit performance improvements or an orientation for excellence. However, the leaders can inhibit pride, loyalty, cohesion, collective action, and distribution of rewards in their institutions.¹⁵⁸

Delegation generally refers to the many forms and degrees of power sharing by leaders to subordinates. Delegation involves assigning new or different tasks and responsibilities—it can mean specifying additional authority and discretion for tasks already performed by subordinates. The degree of delegation includes the amount of autonomy accompanying the delegation.¹⁵⁹ Similar to empowerment, delegation happens when leaders provide the ability for subordinates to make decisions freely and to own their work. Empowerment can occur separately or through a combination of structural and psychological mechanisms: one through hierarchy and the other by social relationships, respectively.¹⁶⁰

The military profession strongly believes in the need for autonomy and freedom in conducting military operations.¹⁶¹ To attain such autonomy, professions must demonstrate performance based on sound judgment, specialized application of talent, and adherence to ethical standards.¹⁶² As professionals, the Army Civilian Corps would seek sufficient and necessary autonomy and delegation to perform their work. Capable Army civilians would also expect to receive fair consideration for senior leader positions.

Certification

Certification, credentialing, and licensing are other hallmarks for a profession.¹⁶³

Certification is recognition given to individuals who have met predetermined qualifications set by an agency of government, industry, or a profession.¹⁶⁴ Regarding professional knowledge and certification, the contemporary view has shifted from the monolithic, slowly evolving, and internally owned knowledge to a more realistic practice based on conceptualization, critique, and reframing of externally generated knowledge and discovery. In application, professionals must become lifelong learners and knowledge-in-use practitioners grounded in the fundamentals of the profession, yet possessing and using adept skills of inquiry, analysis, and creativity.¹⁶⁵

Over the past few decades, several congressionally driven changes to the defense workforce have created new management systems and corresponding certifications. The areas are defense acquisition, financial, information assurance, and intelligence. Certification is the procedure through which a military service or DoD Component determines that an employee meets the education, training, and experience standards required for a career level in any acquisition, technology, and logistics career field.¹⁶⁶ The Defense Acquisition Workforce Improvement Act required the DoD to establish a process through which persons in the acquisition workforce would receive recognition as having achieved professional status. The financial community recently developed its certification program using the Acquisition workforce as a model.¹⁶⁷

The certification for information assurance (IA) intends to provide the information community with a baseline understanding of the fundamental IA principles and practices across several categories, specialties, and skill levels. Satisfying the certification requires a combination of formal training and experiential activities.¹⁶⁸ For the defense

intelligence community, workforce members must demonstrate frequently a specified level of knowledge or competence to achieve and attain an appropriate credential.¹⁶⁹

Recommendations and Conclusions

Culture and internal subcultures are deep, multidimensional, and multifaceted experiences requiring leadership focus and management of boundaries, growth, and survival.¹⁷⁰ Since culture is the interaction of group members in structures and with the members' environment,¹⁷¹ forming the Army Profession comprised of diverse communities of practice may not achieve success automatically or easily. Melding the two communities of practice requires a common language; group boundaries as well as criteria for inclusion and exclusion; development of norms of trust and compatibility; allocation of rewards and punishment; and resiliency in the form of explaining and responding to the unforeseen and unexplainable.¹⁷² Although an Army macroculture exists in the recently established Army Profession, the military and civilian communities of practice have dynamic subcultures. This fact is important for senior leaders because members who identify first with their own subculture are less likely to have shared values and strong member commitment to the greater macroculture.¹⁷³

Recommendations

Several topics requiring further consideration follow from the research conducted. Considering the lines of effort underway in the CWT,¹⁷⁴ the suggestions aim to stimulate a dialogue and possibly influence future Army senior leader decision making and initiatives. The groupings below relate to the important leader-culture dyad, because leadership and culture are inseparable.¹⁷⁵

Common Language and Conceptual Categories

Although a common language exists at the Army macroculture, the many subcultures and various microcultures have characteristic jargons and practices. Accordingly, it appears reasonable and viable to identify opportunities that propagate the common language of the Army macroculture and for the Army Profession. It appears reasonable that military and civilians become bilingual in the doctrine, regulations, and languages of both the operational force and generating force.

Moreover, the Army leadership should develop a 'Rosetta Stone' lexicon that combines common military doctrinal and similar business concepts used in the federal government bureaucracies. Leaders should also expand the Army Universal Task List beyond operational Army tasks to include pertinent generating force readiness tasks, especially since generating force organizations provide readiness reports based on assessments of critical business tasks and capabilities. Similarly, the Army should consider developing generating force functions that parallel the Warfighting Functions.

The two communities of practice in the Army Profession have common purposes, shared values, and selfless service, among others. However, laws, policies, practices, and supporting management systems separate the groups. Thus, it seems fitting that Army senior leaders influence Congress and the Executive Branch in redesigning the language of statutes and policies that reasonably unify the two groups. Further, Army leaders should take steps to integrate similar military and civilian management practices and information systems whenever opportunities, both incremental and new designs.

Group Boundaries and Criteria for Inclusion and Exclusion

The Army leadership already decided the composition of the Army Profession in general terms. The same leadership is fostering the development of civilians through CES and the CWT to parallel or align civilians with military practices. Yet, a recommendation is for the Army leadership to define more clearly who from the Civilian Corps is in the Army Profession. The current Office of Personnel Management literature, and DoD and Army human capital reports, on white collar employees separate work into PATCO categories suggesting the possibility that not all Army civilians may qualify as professionals. For that reason, the Army leaders should clarify what occupations are professional, paraprofessional, or not in the profession. Identification of rigorous certification standards for the groups is necessary.

Another suggestion is for the Army leadership to continue integrating military and civilian leadership development and professional education practices. Attendance and intermingling by both communities of practice in service schools and associated education venues should build a better understanding of different cultures and competencies. Therefore, the Army should better synchronize education and training opportunities to career progression timelines for both groups, including selection of civilians much earlier in their career to attend the senior service colleges. Stressing the importance of college degrees for civilians, providing adequate financial support, and promoting attendance at military courses offering curriculums common to military and civilian members appears reasonable for achieving an acceptable level of parity.

Distribution of Power, Authority, and Status

Influence, responsibility, and status are hallmarks of the military and civil service systems, albeit in somewhat different forms. Hierarchical authority, having a voice, self-

esteem, and rules of relationships are critical as well.¹⁷⁶ Additionally, leaders and culture are two sides of the same coin, suggesting that professional leadership might apply better to military operations and bureaucratic leadership to business-like practices. For the future, the Army leaders should objectively code as military the manpower positions that constitute inherently military work, and denote the work as civilian that is not military incumbency.¹⁷⁷ The Army leaders should continue to develop civilian leaders, place them in experiential assignments, and select them to head organizations in the institutional Army, especially in cases where a civilian presence makes sense.

Development of Norms of Trust and Sacrifice

Establishing peer relations, building trust, practicing openness, and seeking fairness are attributes for building trust and intimacy among the Army profession. Both the military and civilian members take oaths, have creeds, and follow the same Army values. Army civilians should know the explicit commitments and sacrifices expected of them to attain the trust of military members. It is important for the Army in general to understand military members' perceptions of civilians in the Army Profession, and vice versa. Once known, leaders in the Army Profession should take steps to overcome the biases and presuppositions from both groups. Further, Army leaders need to determine if civilians are part of the greater Army family, or if that designation applies only to uniformed members and their military families.

Allocation of Rewards and Punishment

Understanding what is right, what is expected, what is wrong, and what is subject to punishment are essential for good order, discipline, and the well-being of individuals and the larger profession. As mentioned earlier, attitudes and identity are important for healthy organizations and the Army Profession. Therefore, for both civilian and military

communities of practice, a recommendation is to establish, reemphasize, and enforce the consistent application of performance evaluations (appraisals), timeliness of honorary awards, and sharing knowledge about promotions and benefits—there should be only one standard. Just as when civilians come under the UCMJ when deployed with the Armed Forces in contingencies overseas, Army leaders should establish common or similar administrative and legal disciplinary actions for civilians and military members. At the least, Army leaders should educate the groups about similarities and differences.

Explanation of Change and the Unforeseen

Creating resiliency and avoiding anxiety during change, difficult times, and the unexpected are necessary aspects for healthy individuals and organizations. Resiliency elements include promoting physical fitness, intellectual capacity, mental health, spiritual wellness, and emotional stability.¹⁷⁸ The Army leaders should reemphasize and revise regulations governing civilian resiliency. Consider making some level of resiliency a condition of employment and provide requisite resources. In addition, undertaking cultural studies and longitudinal surveys of members of the Army Profession would aid in better identifying and tracking changes in subcultures, and understanding the conflicts that may exist in the macroculture, subcultures, and microcultures.

Conclusions

The nation demands nothing less than victory from its military. The manner in which government institutions perform, including the military, is of great concern to society. For professions, the society establishes bargains with the pertinent institutions and leaves solving consequential problems with the highly knowledgeable experts. For the Army, the trade-off with society is an almost taken-for-granted expectation of extraordinary promises and performances of ethicality and faithfulness.¹⁷⁹

Further, Congress and executive leaders expect improved effectiveness, better efficiency, and streamlined management practices from all federal agencies. The nation also expects its public servants to follow rules and sustain group harmony, fulfill obligations and duties, and seek performance improvement and excellence.¹⁸⁰ Accordingly, military and civilian leaders must strike the right balances between performance as an effective professional leader and efficient public manager.

Though the Army seeks commonality and professionalism in the macroculture, differences exist between military and civilian members as espoused in the law, culture and identity, practices, and management systems. If doubt exists about cultural inconsistencies concerning the military and civilians, an examination of the military pay exemption from the sequestration and the two-year pay freeze and planned furloughs for federal civilians is illuminating.¹⁸¹ The Army challenge is how best to minimize friction and foster positive diversity while simultaneously reinforcing a strong culture based on professional attributes such as shared values and a collective identity.¹⁸²

In summary, Army civilians do make a difference because their technical and administrative expertise, experience and continuity, and devoted service in the institutional Army are vital for success of the Army operating force. The ultimate goal for the Army and the Army Profession should be the capacity for leaders and managers at all levels to create and sustain a community of selfless believers: united and inspired by a shared culture of public service as well as a faith in each other and the greater Army institution.¹⁸³ Otherwise, the Army Profession will remain a loose association of disparate communities of practice and not the cohesive and capable culture expected by society and envisioned by public executives and Army senior leaders.

Endnotes

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