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# Training for Full Spectrum Operations

## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PREFACE ............................................................................................................. iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1 TRAINING FOR FULL SPECTRUM OPERATIONS—CHANGING THE ARMY’S MINDSET ................................................................. 1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Strategic Landscape ................................................................................... 1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects of Today’s Operational Environments .................................................... 1-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Role of Training ........................................................................................... 1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting the Challenges of Full Spectrum Operations ....................................... 1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implications of the Aim Point on Training and Leader Development ................. 1-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 2 PRINCIPLES OF TRAINING ............................................................................. 2-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Concept ................................................................................................ 2-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commanders and Other Leaders Are Responsible for Training ........................ 2-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noncommissioned Officers Train Individuals, Crews, and Small Teams ............. 2-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Train as You Will Fight ....................................................................................... 2-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Train to Standard ................................................................................................ 2-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Train to Sustain .................................................................................................. 2-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct Multiechelon and Concurrent Training ............................................... 2-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Train to Develop Agile Leaders and Organizations ............................................ 2-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 3 THE ARMY TRAINING SYSTEM ...................................................................... 3-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundations of Army Training ........................................................................... 3-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and Education ...................................................................................... 3-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and Education Lifecycle of Soldiers and Army Civilians ................. 3-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundations of Leader Development .................................................................. 3-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Domains ............................................................................................... 3-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 4 ARMY TRAINING MANAGEMENT .............................................................. 4-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section I – Training Management in the Modular Force ................................. 4-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army Force Generation Drives Training Management ......................................... 4-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Modular Force’s Effect on Training Management ........................................ 4-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Roles in Training Management .............................................................. 4-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army Forces and Joint Training ......................................................................... 4-5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Contents

Section II – Mission-Essential Task List Development ........................................ 4-5
  Mission Focus ..................................................................................................... 4-5
  Mission-Essential Task Lists ............................................................................. 4-6
Section III – The Army Training Management Model ........................................ 4-14
  Top-Down/Bottom-Up Approach To Training ................................................. 4-14
  Plan ................................................................................................................... 4-15
  Prepare ............................................................................................................. 4-33
  Execute ............................................................................................................. 4-35
  Assess ............................................................................................................... 4-37

GLOSSARY .............................................................................................................. Glossary-1
REFERENCES ........................................................................................................ References-1
INDEX ..................................................................................................................... Index-1

Figures

Figure 1-1. Aim point for Army training and leader development ............................. 1-7
Figure 3-1. Army training domains ....................................................................... 3-2
Figure 3-2. Army training and leader development model ..................................... 3-5
Figure 4-1. Battle command in training ............................................................... 4-7
Figure 4-2. Notional core METL and supporting tasks ......................................... 4-9
Figure 4-3. Commander’s directed METL development technique ....................... 4-11
Figure 4-4. Transition from a core METL to a directed METL ............................... 4-13
Figure 4-5. The Army training management model ............................................. 4-14

Tables

Table 2-1. The Army’s seven principles of training ............................................... 2-1
Table 4-1. Comparison of long-range, short-range, and near-term training planning .... 4-29
Table 4-2. Training and leader development guidance topics ................................ 4-30
Table 4-3. Example of a Regular Army short-range training cycle .......................... 4-31
Table 4-4. Example of a Reserve Component short-range training cycle ................. 4-31
Preface

FM 7-0, *Training for Full Spectrum Operations*, establishes the Army’s keystone doctrine for training. Since FM 7-0 was last published, enough has changed in the nature of operational environments worldwide to merit a full review of its content and form. FM 7-0 is the guide for Army training and training management. It addresses the fundamental principles and tenets of training.

FM 7-0 addresses the fundamentals of training modular, expeditionary Army forces to conduct full spectrum operations—simultaneous offensive, defensive, and stability or civil support operations—in an era of persistent conflict. Conducting effective training for full spectrum operations must be a top priority of senior leaders during both force generation and operational deployments.

FM 7-0 incorporates new tenets for training modular organizations to conduct full spectrum operations. However, the manual has further developed the concepts in the 2002 version as well. The Army must not lose the many sound training practices used before 11 September 2001. In addition, the manual emphasizes that commanders should leverage the combat experience of seasoned individuals and their leaders in developing training plans.

FM 7-0 cannot answer every training challenge of today’s complex operational environments. It should, however, generate reflection and introspection on how Soldiers and units train for full spectrum operations as an expeditionary Army.

FM 7-0 is organized as follows:

- Chapter 1 discusses the environment in which training and operations occur. It stresses the need for the Army to prepare for full spectrum operations. The chapter concludes by discussing the aim point concept used to focus training on the most likely operational environments.
- Chapter 2 focuses on the Army’s seven principles of training and the supporting tenets that apply at all organizational levels and across all components.
- Chapter 3 describes the Army Training System, defines training and education, describes the three training domains, and provides a brief discussion of leader development.
- Chapter 4 describes Army training management. It begins by describing the effects of Army force generation and modular organizations on training management. Then it addresses how to develop the mission-essential task list. The bulk of the chapter discusses how to use the Army’s training management model to plan, prepare, execute, and assess training.

FM 7-0 applies to all leaders at all organizational levels. All leaders are trainers. Leaders include officers, warrant officers, noncommissioned officers, and Army civilians in leadership positions.

FM 7-0 applies to the Active Army, Army National Guard/Army National Guard of the United States, and U.S. Army Reserve unless otherwise stated.

FM 7-0 uses joint terms where applicable. Most terms with joint or Army terms are defined in both the glossary and the text. **Glossary references**: Terms for which FM 7-0 is the proponent publication (the authority) have an asterisk in the glossary. **Text references**: Definitions for which FM 7-0 is the proponent publication are in boldfaced text. These terms and their definitions will be in the next revision of FM 1-02. For other definitions in the text, the term is italicized and the number of the proponent publication follows the definition.

FM 7-0 uses *individuals* as a collective expression for Soldiers and Army civilians.

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Combined Arms Center and Fort Leavenworth, ATTN: ATZL-CTD (FM 7-0), Bldg 275, 513 Grant Ave, Fort Leavenworth, KS 66027-6900; by e-mail to leav-fm7-0_revision@conus.army.mil; or submit on an electronic DA Form 2028.
Chapter 1

Training for Full Spectrum Operations—Changing the Army’s Mindset

The primary mission of the Army is to fight and win the Nation’s wars. Conducting offensive and defensive operations has long been the Army’s core capability. However, the recent experience of operations in the Balkans, Iraq, and Afghanistan, coupled with today’s operational environments, clearly indicates that the future will be an era of persistent conflict—one that will engage Army forces around the world to accomplish the Nation’s objectives. This all points to the fact that the Army must adopt a new mindset that recognizes the requirement to successfully conduct operations across the spectrum of conflict, anytime, anywhere. FM 3-0 codified this forward-looking paradigm shift in the Army’s operational concept:

*Army forces combine offensive, defensive, and stability or civil support operations simultaneously as part of an interdependent joint force to seize, retain, and exploit the initiative, accepting prudent risk to create opportunities to achieve decisive results. They employ synchronized action—lethal and nonlethal—proportional to the mission and informed by a thorough understanding of all variables of the operational environment. Mission command that conveys intent and an appreciation of all aspects of the situation guides the adaptive use of Army forces.*

THE STRATEGIC LANDSCAPE

1-1. The future will be one of persistent conflict. Today’s operational environments are being shaped by multiple factors. These include science and technology, information technology, transportation technology, the acceleration of the global economic community, and the rise of a networked society. The international nature of commercial and academic efforts will also have dramatic effects. The complexity of today’s operational environments guarantees that future operations will occur across the spectrum of conflict.

FUTURE OPERATIONAL ENVIRONMENTS

1-2. An operational environment is a composite of the conditions, circumstances, and influences which affect the employment of military forces and bear on the decisions of the commander (JP 3-0). Operational environments of the future will remain arenas in which bloodshed is the immediate result of hostilities between antagonists. Operational goals will be attained or lost not only by the use of lethal force but also by how quickly a state of stability can be established and maintained. Operational environments will remain dirty, frightening, and physically and emotionally draining. Death and destruction resulting from environmental conditions, as well as conflict itself, will create humanitarian crises. Due to the high lethality and long range of advanced weapons systems and the tendency of adversaries to operate among the population, the danger to combatants and noncombatants will be much greater than in past conflicts. State and nonstate actors, can be expected to use the full range of options, including every diplomatic, informational, military, and economic measure at their disposal. This applies to all adversaries, regardless of their technological or military capability. In addition, operational environments will extend to areas historically immune from battle, including the homeland—the United States and its territories—and the territory of multinational partners, especially urban areas. Operational environments will probably include areas not defined by geography, such as cyberspace. Computer network attacks already cross borders and may soon be able to hit anywhere, anytime. With the exception of cyberspace, all operations will be conducted “among the people.” Outcomes will be measured in terms of effects on populations.
1-3. Operational environments will remain extremely fluid. Coalitions, alliances, partnerships, and actors will change continually. Interagency and joint operations will be required to deal with this wide and intricate range of players. International news organizations, using new information and communications technologies, will no longer depend on states to gain access to the area of operations. These organizations will greatly influence how operations are viewed. They will have satellites or their own unmanned aerial reconnaissance platforms from which to monitor the scene. Secrecy will be difficult to maintain, making operations security more vital than ever. Finally, complex cultural, demographic, and physical factors will be present, adding to the fog of war. Such factors include humanitarian crises and ethnic and religious differences. In addition, complex and urban terrain will often become major centers of gravity and havens for potential threats. Tomorrow’s operational environments will be interconnected, dynamic, and extremely volatile.

**Types of Threats**

1-4. States, nations, transnational actors, and nonstate entities will continue to challenge and redefine the global distribution of power, concept of sovereignty, and nature of warfare. Threats are nation-states, organizations, people, groups, conditions, or natural phenomena able to damage or destroy life, vital resources, or institutions. Preparing for and managing these threats requires employing all instruments of national power—diplomatic, informational, military, and economic. Threats may be described through a range of four major categories or challenges: traditional, irregular, catastrophic, and disruptive. While helpful in describing threats the Army is likely to face, these categories do not define the nature of an adversary. In fact, adversaries may use any and all of these challenges in combination to achieve the desired effect against the United States.

1-5. Traditional threats emerge from states employing recognized military capabilities and forces in understood forms of military competition and conflict. In the past, the United States optimized its forces for this challenge. The United States currently possesses the world’s preeminent conventional and nuclear forces, but this status is not guaranteed. Many nations maintain powerful conventional forces, and not all are friendly to the United States. Some of these potentially hostile powers possess weapons of mass destruction. Although these powers may not actively seek armed confrontation and may actively avoid U.S. military strength, their activities can provoke regional conflicts that threaten U.S. interests. Deterrence therefore remains the first aim of the joint force. Should deterrence fail, the United States strives to maintain capabilities to overmatch any combination of enemy conventional and unconventional forces.

1-6. Irregular threats are those posed by an opponent employing unconventional, asymmetric methods and means to counter traditional U.S. advantages. A weaker enemy often uses irregular warfare to exhaust the U.S. collective will through protracted conflict. Irregular warfare includes such means as terrorism, insurgency, and guerrilla warfare. Economic, political, informational, and cultural initiatives usually accompany, and may even be the chief means of, irregular attacks on U.S. influence.

1-7. Catastrophic threats involve the acquisition, possession, and use of nuclear, biological, chemical, and radiological weapons, also called weapons of mass destruction. Possession of these weapons gives an enemy the potential to inflict sudden and catastrophic effects. The proliferation of related technology has made this threat more likely than in the past.


**Nature of Future Conflict**

1-9. By combining traditional, disruptive, catastrophic, and irregular capabilities, adversaries will seek to create advantageous conditions by quickly changing the nature of the conflict and moving to employ capabilities for which the United States is least prepared. The enemy will seek to interdict U.S. forces attempting to enter any crisis area. If U.S. forces successfully gain entry, the enemy will seek engagement in complex terrain and urban environments as a way of offsetting U.S. advantages. Methods used by adversaries
include dispersing their forces into small mobile combat teams—combined only when required to strike a common objective—and becoming invisible by blending in with the local population.

1-10. Threats can be expected to use the environment and rapidly adapt. Extremist organizations will seek to take on statelike qualities. They will use the media, technology, and their position within a state’s political, military, and social infrastructures to their advantage. Their operations will become more sophisticated, combining conventional, unconventional, irregular, and criminal tactics. Threats will focus on creating conditions of instability, seek to alienate legitimate forces from the population, and employ global networks to expand local operations. Threats will employ advanced information engagement and will not be bound by limits on the use of violence.

1-11. Future conflicts are likely to be fought “among the people” instead of “around the people.” This fundamentally alters the manner in which Soldiers can apply force to achieve success. Enemies will increasingly seek populations within which to hide as protection against the proven attack and detection means of U.S. forces, in preparation for attacks against communities, as refuge from U.S. strikes against their bases, and to draw resources. War remains a battle of wills—a contest for dominance over people. The essential struggle of future conflicts will occur in areas where people are concentrated. It will require U.S. security dominance across the population.

EFFECTS OF TODAY’S OPERATIONAL ENVIRONMENTS

1-12. Because the Army, the threats, and the Army’s operational concept have changed, thinking about Army missions and capabilities must also change. The Army cannot train for the last war. Major combat operations include more than large-scale offensive and defensive operations; they also include stability operations. All overseas Army operations combine simultaneous offensive, defensive, and stability operations. Operations within the United States and its territories simultaneously combine civil support, defense, and offense. Army forces must be not only capable of defeating the enemy’s armed forces but also able to work in concert with the other instruments of national power—diplomatic, informational, and economic (the “whole of government”)—to achieve national objectives. Army forces must be campaign capable as well. Once deployed, they may be required to operate for extended periods across the spectrum of conflict, from stable peace through general war, until strategic objectives are achieved. This campaign capability is the ability to sustain operations for as long as necessary to conclude operations successfully.

BASING STRATEGY AND ORGANIZATIONS

1-13. The Army’s basing strategy and formations have changed. Formerly, Army forces were forward-based and sustained with individual replacements; today Army forces are based primarily in the United States, with complete units deploying to and from operations. The Army has transformed itself into a modular, brigade-based, deployable force capable of expeditionary full spectrum operations. The Army National Guard and U.S. Army Reserve are converting from a strategic reserve to an operational force.

FULL SPECTRUM OPERATIONS

1-14. The Army’s new operational concept has changed Army operations significantly. All operations are now full spectrum operations. At present, the operational training domain is developing leaders with significant competencies in counterinsurgency operations. However, the Army’s strategic depth requires leaders, Soldiers, and units with competencies in major combat and limited intervention operations as well. The other training domains must adjust to build and sustain these competencies. (Paragraphs 3-26 through 3-50 discuss the training domains.)

1-15. Full spectrum operations require mentally agile leaders able to operate in any operational theme across the spectrum of conflict. Effective command and control focuses on commanders rather than staffs. Commanders, not staffs, drive effective decisionmaking. Commanders must be able to mass fires at decisive points and times and effects over time. Decentralized rather than centralized operations are the norm today and will likely remain so. All leaders, from the highest to the lowest levels, must understand both the art and the science of operations and battle command.
1-16. Leaders synchronize not only combined arms forces but also lethal and nonlethal effects. Training can no longer focus only on anticipated enemies. In any conflict, the population in the area of operations will be a key factor—especially in conditions of insurgency and unstable peace. Operations in this part of the spectrum of conflict occur among the people throughout a campaign; they are not just part of post-conflict operations. The military alone cannot solve all the problems faced in this environment. Unified action—involving joint and multinational forces, and interagency, nongovernmental, and intergovernmental organizations—now reaches to the tactical level. Leaders at each level must be prepared to operate in this environment. In addition, Soldiers will continue to depend on the support of Army civilians and contractors throughout a campaign.

1-17. Civil support operations will continue to involve Regular Army and Reserve Component Soldiers and civilians operating with nongovernmental, local, state, and federal agencies. Since the homeland is vulnerable to attacks and natural disasters, all components must be prepared to conduct civil support operations on short notice. Regular Army forces are normally involved in civil support when natural or man-made disasters and incidents within the United States and its territories exceed the capabilities of Reserve Component organizations and domestic civilian agencies.

**THREATS**

1-18. In the past, the Army primarily trained to fight against other armies with conventional capabilities within clearly defined military and political boundaries. However, yesterday’s Cold War enemies who planned to fight in predictable formations have been replaced by unpredictable, fleeting enemies who hide among the population. Today’s enemies areadaptive, smart, and innovative. Their actions cannot be predicted with assurance. They will look for ways to attack friendly vulnerabilities. Rather than directly confront the Army’s overwhelming superiority, enemies will attack with asymmetric means. In a single campaign, Army forces may fight multiple enemies with different agendas, rather than a single enemy unified by purpose or command.

1-19. Army forces will not only have to deal with conventional armed forces but also interact with vastly different cultures and languages of civilian populations. In addition, they will have to deal with both crumbling infrastructures and irregular forces. Nonlethal capabilities and information engagement will often be the primary weapons. Interactions between deployed Army units and the media have increased exponentially. Today’s information environment means that everything Soldiers do will be subject to viewing and listening by friends and enemies. The ability to get the Army’s message out and compete in the information environment is often as important as physical actions on the battlefield. Commanders use information engagement to fight this battle. Information engagement influences perceptions and behavior by communicating information, building trust and confidence, and promoting support for Army operations. (See FM 3-0, chapter 7.)

**SOLDIERS**

1-20. Today’s dangerous and complex operational environments require Soldiers who are men and women of character and intellect. Their character and competence represent the foundation of a values-based, trained, and ready Army. Soldiers train to perform tasks while operating alone or in groups. Soldiers and leaders develop the ability to exercise mature judgment and initiative under stress. The Army requires agile and adaptive leaders able to handle the challenges of full spectrum operations in an era of persistent conflict. Army leaders must be—

- Proficient in their core competencies.
- Flexible enough to operate across the spectrum of conflict.
- Able to operate with joint and multinational, military and civilian organizations, and to leverage the capabilities of others to achieve their objectives.
- Culturally astute and able to use this awareness and understanding to conduct innovative operations.
- Courageous enough to see and exploit opportunities in challenging and complex operational environments.
- Grounded in the Army Values and Warrior Ethos.
1-21. Commanders at all levels ensure their Soldiers operate in accordance with the law of war. The law of war [also called the law of armed conflict] is that part of international law that regulates the conduct of armed hostilities (JP 1-02). It is the customary and treaty law applicable to the conduct of warfare on land and to relationships between belligerents and neutral states. The law of war includes treaties and international agreements to which the United States is a party as well as applicable customary international law. The purposes of the law of war are to—

- Protect both combatants and noncombatants from unnecessary suffering.
- Safeguard certain fundamental human rights of persons who become prisoners of war, the wounded and sick, and civilians.
- Make the transition to peace easier.

LEARNING AND ADAPTING

1-22. Contemporary operations challenge Army forces in many ways. The Army has always depended on its ability to learn and adapt. German Field Marshal Erwin Rommel observed that American Soldiers were initially inexperienced but learned and adapted quickly and well. Today’s Army is more experienced than the one in North Africa during World War II; however, today’s complex operational environments require organizations and Soldiers able to adapt equally quickly and well. Adaptable organizations learn constantly from experience (their own and others’) and apply new knowledge to each situation. Agility and innovation are at a premium, as are creative and adaptive leaders. As knowledge increases, the Army continuously adapts its doctrine, organization, training, materiel, leadership and education, personnel, and facilities.

1-23. The Army as a whole must be versatile enough to operate successfully across the spectrum of conflict—from stable peace through unstable peace and insurgency to general war. Change and adaptation that once required years to implement must now be recognized, communicated, and enacted far more quickly. Technology played an increasingly important role in increasing lethality on twentieth century battlefields. Now it is assuming more importance and will require greater and more rapid innovation in tomorrow’s conflicts. No longer can the Army take months to respond to hostile, asymmetric approaches. Solutions must be disseminated across the force in weeks—and then adapted quickly and innovatively as the enemy adapts to counter the newfound advantages.

1-24. Despite the many changes in today’s operational environments, one thing remains constant: the Army and the other Services must retain the ability to fight and win. To do otherwise would create vulnerabilities for enemies to exploit. Retaining this ability requires tough, realistic training.

THE ROLE OF TRAINING

1-25. Effective training is the cornerstone of operational success. Through training, leaders, Soldiers, and units achieve the tactical and technical competence that builds confidence and agility. These characteristics allow Army forces to conduct successful operations across the spectrum of conflict. Army forces train using training doctrine that sustains their expeditionary and campaign capabilities. Focused training prepares leaders, Soldiers, and units to deploy, fight, and win. Achieving this competence requires specific, dedicated training on offensive, defensive, stability, and civil support tasks. The Army trains Soldiers and units daily in individual and collective tasks under challenging, realistic conditions. Training continues in deployed units to sustain skills and adapt to changes in the operational environment.

1-26. The United States’ responsibilities are global; therefore, Army forces prepare to operate in any environment. Training management links training with missions. Commanders focus their training time and other resources on tasks linked to their doctrinal or directed mission. (See paragraph 4-29.) Because Army forces face diverse threats and mission requirements, senior commanders adjust their training priorities based on the likely operational environment. As units prepare for deployment, commanders adapt training priorities to address tasks required by actual or anticipated operations.

1-27. Army training includes a system of techniques and standards that allows Soldiers and units to determine, acquire, and practice necessary skills. Candid assessments, after action reviews, and applying lessons learned and best practices produce quality Soldiers and versatile units, ready for all aspects of an opera-
tional environment. The Army Training System prepares leaders, Soldiers, and units to employ Army capabilities adaptively and effectively in today’s varied and challenging conditions.

1-28. Through training, the Army prepares Soldiers to win in land combat. Training builds teamwork and cohesion within units. It recognizes that Soldiers ultimately fight for one another and their units. Training instills discipline. It conditions Soldiers to operate within the law of war and rules of engagement. Training prepares unit leaders for the harsh reality of land combat. It emphasizes the fluid and disorderly conditions inherent in land operations.

1-29. Within these training situations, commanders emphasize mission command. (See FM 6-0.) To employ mission command successfully during operations, commanders and subordinate leaders must understand, foster, and frequently practice its principles during training.

1-30. Managing training for full spectrum operations presents challenges for leaders at all echelons. Training develops discipline, endurance, unit cohesion, and tolerance for uncertainty. It prepares Soldiers and units to address the ambiguities and complexities inherent in operations. During the Cold War, Army forces prepared to fight and win against a near-peer competitor. The Army’s training focus was on offensive and defensive operations in major combat operations. As recently as 2001, the Army believed that forces trained to conduct the offense and defense in major combat operations could conduct stability and civil support operations just as effectively. However, the complexity of today’s operational environments and commanders’ legal and moral obligations to the population of an area of operations has shown that approach to be incorrect. Recent operational experience has demonstrated that forces trained exclusively for offensive and defensive tasks are not as proficient at stability tasks as those trained specifically for stability. For maximum effectiveness, stability and civil support tasks require dedicated training, similar to training for offensive and defensive tasks. Similarly, forces involved in protracted stability or civil support operations require intensive training to regain proficiency in offensive and defensive tasks before engaging in large-scale combat operations. Therefore, a balanced approach to the types of tasks to be trained is essential to readiness for full spectrum operations.

1-31. Leaders, Soldiers, and units must be prepared to achieve military objectives throughout all phases of a campaign. Army forces must be trained to conduct full spectrum operations under the conditions of any operational environment, anywhere along the spectrum of conflict. The Army must train, organize, and develop capabilities for stability operations with the same intensity and focus that it does for combat operations. Figure 1-1 displays the relationship of full spectrum operations to the spectrum of conflict and operational themes. The challenges of today’s operational environments require a change in the Army mindset. The oval on the diagram—called the aim point—indicates that the focus of Army training and leader development must shift leftward from the right side of the spectrum of conflict—from training under conditions of general war to conditions midway between general war and insurgency. Doing this enables Army forces to sustain the proficiency in irregular warfare and limited intervention developed over the last seven years of conflict while sustaining their capability for major combat operations.

1-32. The aim point concept is a major cultural change for Army leaders, Soldiers, and units. To be successful in future operations, the Army cannot look at operations today as temporary interruptions in preparing for major combat operations against a near-peer enemy. Nor can it afford to view operations dominated by the offense and defense and those dominated by stability as either/or propositions. Both usually occur simultaneously. Army forces must be well-trained and able to deploy rapidly to conduct and win engagements and wars while remaining ready to conduct sustained stability operations. Similarly, in operations dominated by stability they must remain prepared to conduct offensive and defensive operations. The pre-dominate operation—offense, defense, or stability—is determined by the situation, objectives, or conditions to be achieved, desired end state, and level of violence. Commanders consider the simultaneous execution of these three elements of full spectrum operations in their mission analysis.

1-33. The art of command takes on even greater significance in today’s operational environments. Land operations occur among the people. While technology can enhance Army forces’ effectiveness, land operations are basically a human endeavor involving human interactions. As a result, they are conducted in a complex realm dominated by fog, friction, and uncertainty. Command in this environment is an art, not a science. It requires leaders who can think creatively, understand their environment to a degree not required
before, and can provide original solutions to ever changing problems posed by adaptable foes applying asymmetric capabilities.

1-34. A commander’s fundamental challenge is conducting training that develops proficiency in all elements of full spectrum operations. The fact that units have not had as much time as they would have liked to train on offensive and defensive operations magnifies this challenge.

MEETING THE CHALLENGES OF FULL SPECTRUM OPERATIONS

1-35. In an era of persistent conflict, uncertainty exists as to where Army forces will operate and what the mission will be. Therefore, commanders face two training challenges: preparing their units for the most likely missions, and developing the skills needed to adapt quickly and easily to operations anywhere on the spectrum of conflict.

1-36. To focus training and leader development in the operational training domain, Headquarters, Department of the Army, establishes core mission-essential task lists (core METLs, or CMETLs) for each brigade and higher echelon unit. (See chapter 4, section II.) CMETLs rarely change. They provide a mix of mission-essential tasks that cover offensive, defensive, stability, and civil support operations. Units train on collective and individual tasks derived from and appropriately supporting those broad CMETL tasks.

1-37. Units do not have the time or other resources required to train under the conditions of all operational environments along the spectrum of conflict. Therefore, Headquarters, Department of the Army, analyzes possible operational environments and determines the likely force package requirements for each operational theme at the points along the spectrum of conflict where Army forces are most likely to operate. Based on this analysis and Headquarters, Department of the Army, guidance, Army command, Army Ser-
vice component command, and direct reporting unit commanders focus their subordinate units’ training on specific operational themes.

1-38. Commanders should leverage the experience of their combat-seasoned Soldiers. These veterans can help train other Soldiers and reduce the training time required for certain tasks. However, commanders should not assume that Soldiers and leaders who have served in combat are proficient in all tasks associated with a new position.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE AIM POINT ON TRAINING AND LEADER DEVELOPMENT

1-39. The aim point and standardized CMETL represent a change in mindset. They underlie a revision in how commanders prepare long- and short-range training plans. Previously, these plans focused solely on mission-essential tasks and how to train them. Now, developing these plans is a two-step process. The first step is a commander-to-commander dialog that discusses the following:

- Training conditions and corresponding resources required.
- The proportion of effort to be allocated among offensive, defensive, stability, and civil support tasks.
- The risks to readiness.
- The core capabilities required of a unit as it adjusts its training focus to prepare for a directed mission.

The second step is a training briefing during which the senior commander enters into a “contract” with subordinate commanders. The contract addresses the tasks to be trained, training conditions, risks associated with the training focus and conditions, and the resources required. (See chapter 4, section III.)

1-40. Army units must have the capability to train on stability tasks, such as “Providing essential services” and “Support to economic and infrastructure development,” while sustaining proficiency in offensive and defensive operations. This training should include collecting accurate bottom-up intelligence and receiving and acting on top-down intelligence at the tactical level.

1-41. As much as possible, unit training conditions realistically replicate the projected operational environment. For example, besides an opposing force, conditions should incorporate the cultures, languages, and key leaders in the projected area of operations. Training tasks should also address dealing with the news media, unified action partners, and special operations forces. In addition, training should incorporate the contributions of both lethal and nonlethal actions.

1-42. Operations require well-trained leaders, Soldiers, and units who are not only proficient in core warfighting competencies but also mentally agile and able to adapt those competencies across the spectrum of conflict. Effective leaders and Soldiers are agile enough to readily seize fleeting opportunities. Their competencies can expand from those required for warfighting to those supporting stability operations, for example, language skills, cross-cultural communication, enabling economic development and governance, and conflict resolution through negotiation and mediation. These leaders and Soldiers use their knowledge of culture and language to enable operations and leverage the instruments of national power to achieve objectives.

1-43. Complex operational environments have required the generating force’s role to change from that of the pre-2001 institutional Army. Meeting the significant challenges of today’s operational environments requires an integrated, coordinated team effort from both the operational Army and the generating force. The operational Army consists of those Army organizations whose primary purpose is to participate in full spectrum operations as part of the joint force (FM 1-01). In contrast, the generating force consists of those Army organizations whose primary mission is to generate and sustain the operational Army’s capabilities for employment by joint force commanders (FM 1-01). The generating force recruits, helps train, and equips Soldiers and units. It provides doctrine, mobile training teams, training support, and reachback resources to help prepare leaders, Soldiers, and units for missions. The generating force supports training and education in institutions, at home stations, and in deployed units. The generating force remains ready to ad-
Training for Full Spectrum Operations—Changing the Army’s Mindset

1-44. Training the modular force is different from training division- and corps-based organizations. Commanders of some modular organizations need a greater breadth of skill than their predecessors required. Training during an era of persistent conflict is different from training for no-notice contingencies. While the need for trained divisions and corps has not changed, Army Service component commands have a new requirement for trained deployable command posts. These conditions require Army leaders to think differently about how they train their organizations. For example, they should assess whether the benefit of training overhead (such as external support and the level of evaluators desired) is worth the cost. They should look for ways to leverage a combat-seasoned force to reduce the ramp-up time to readiness. And they must look for opportunities to train smartly as the level of funding varies over time.

1-45. Operational environments, threats, and the Army’s operational concept have changed since 2001. Army forces are now expected to conduct full spectrum operations across the spectrum of conflict. Therefore, the mindset of all members of the Army—leaders and Soldiers, military and civilian, Regular Army and Reserve Component—needs to change. All need to adapt to new concepts and think about how the Army can train more wisely, efficiently, and effectively. In a changing training environment, the constant of demanding training that focuses on the basics and achieves tough standards under challenging conditions remains immutable.
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Chapter 2
Principles of Training

This chapter discusses the Army’s seven principles of training. The principles of training provide a broad but basic foundation to guide how commanders and other leaders plan, prepare, execute, and assess effective training. Each principle contains an associated set of tenets that support and expand it.

TRAINING CONCEPT

2-1. The Army provides combatant commanders with agile individuals, units, and their leaders. These expeditionary forces are trained and ready to conduct (plan, prepare, execute, and assess) full spectrum operations in support of unified action anywhere along the spectrum of conflict. The Army accomplishes this by conducting tough, realistic, standards-based, performance-oriented training. Live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers enhance this training. Units train while deployed, at home station, and at maneuver combat training centers (CTCs). Commanders lead and assess training to ensure the training is high-quality and that individuals meet established standards. To meet the challenge of preparing for full spectrum operations, the Army takes advantage of the training capabilities found in the three training domains: institutional, operational, and self-development. (See paragraphs 3-26 through 3-50.) Commanders apply seven principles to plan, prepare, execute, and assess effective training. (See table 2-1.)

Table 2-1. The Army’s seven principles of training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenets</th>
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<td>• Commanders and other leaders are responsible for training.</td>
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<td>• Noncommissioned officers train individuals, crews, and small teams.</td>
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<td>• Train as you will fight.</td>
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<td>• Train to standard.</td>
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<td>• Train to sustain.</td>
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<td>• Conduct multiechelon and concurrent training.</td>
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<td>• Train to develop agile leaders and organizations.</td>
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COMMANDERS AND OTHER LEADERS ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR TRAINING

2-2. Commanders are ultimately responsible for the training, performance, and readiness of their Soldiers, Army civilians, and organizations. However, leaders across all echelons and throughout the operational Army and generating force are responsible for training their respective organizations. For example, a commander is responsible for training a unit, an operations officer for training the operations staff section, and a platoon leader and platoon sergeant for training a platoon. These leaders ensure their organizations are trained and mission-ready. Leaders fulfill this responsibility by actively engaging in all aspects of training and adhering to eight tenets:

- Commanders are the unit’s primary training managers and primary trainers.
- Commanders train their direct subordinate units and guide and evaluate training two echelons down.
- A leader’s primary objective is to train subordinates and organizations for mission success.
Leaders motivate their subordinates toward excellence and encourage initiative and innovation. 
Leaders place high priority on training and leader development. 
Leaders ensure training is executed to standard. 
Leaders continually assess individual and organizational proficiency. 
Leaders enforce safety and manage risks.

**COMMANDERS ARE THE UNIT’S PRIMARY TRAINING MANAGERS AND PRIMARY TRAINERS**

2-3. The commander is the unit’s primary training manager and primary trainer. Commanders develop their organization’s mission-essential task list (METL), approve subordinate organizations’ METLs, publish training and leader development guidance, and make resource decisions that allow subordinate leaders to train effectively. Senior noncommissioned officers (NCOs) at every level of command are vital to helping commanders meet their training responsibilities. Senior NCOs are often the most experienced trainers in the unit; they are therefore essential to a successful training program.

2-4. Company commanders personally manage their company’s training. Commanders at battalion level and higher manage training through their operations officer, who develops the unit’s training plans. (See paragraphs 4-137 through 4-160.) However, to ensure effective unit training, those commanders remain involved in the training process. Effective training leads to well-trained units and ensures the welfare of Soldiers and civilians.

2-5. Commanders set the training direction by providing subordinates clear guidance without stifling initiative and innovation. Commanders ensure the unit is focused on the right tasks, conditions, and standards. To perform their responsibilities as the unit’s primary training manager and primary trainer, commanders—

- Use mission command in training as well as operations. (See FM 6-0.)
- Supervise the planning, preparation, execution, and assessment of training that results in proficient leaders, individuals, and organizations.
- Ensure training supports the unit’s needs.
- Focus training on the unit’s METL.
- Provide and protect the required resources.
- Incorporate safety and composite risk management (CRM) into all aspects of training.
- Ensure training is conducted to standard.
- Assess subordinate leader and unit proficiency and provide feedback.
- Develop and communicate a clear vision for training.
- Ensure the training environment replicates the anticipated operational environment.

**COMMANDERS TRAIN THEIR DIRECT SUBORDINATE UNITS AND GUIDE AND EVALUATE TRAINING TWO ECHELONS DOWN**

2-6. Commanders are responsible for training their direct subordinate units. They guide and evaluate two echelons down. For example, brigade commanders train battalions and evaluate companies; battalion commanders train companies and evaluate platoons. Commanders develop leaders at one and two levels below their own through personal interaction and by providing them clear guidance.

**A LEADER’S PRIMARY OBJECTIVE IS TO TRAIN SUBORDINATES AND ORGANIZATIONS FOR MISSION SUCCESS**

2-7. Training subordinates, teams, and units for mission success involves training the unit to established standards under a variety of rapidly changing and stressful conditions. Leaders set intermediate objectives to prepare their units to reach this primary objective. They employ the Army’s training management model to ensure mission accomplishment. (See chapter 4, section III.) Leaders focus training on the tasks most important to mission accomplishment. They avoid trying to do too much, since there is not enough time to do everything.
LEADERS MOTIVATE THEIR SUBORDINATES TOWARD EXCELLENCE AND ENCOURAGE INITIATIVE AND INNOVATION

2-8. Leaders create training conditions that prompt subordinates to be self-starters and creatively overcome challenges. Effective commanders practice mission command during training to create these opportunities. Mission command is the conduct of military operations through decentralized execution based on mission orders. Successful mission command demands that subordinate leaders at all echelons exercise disciplined initiative, acting aggressively and independently to accomplish the mission within the commander’s intent (FM 3-0).

2-9. Textbook answers seldom solve a problem exactly. Commanders intentionally create complex, ambiguous, and uncertain situations that challenge subordinates and organizations. Subordinate leaders then grow accustomed to making decisions with incomplete information. They learn to work outside their comfort zone. Under mission command, leaders require subordinates to assess the situation, determine tasks that lead to a solution, and execute the tasks to standard. Finally, leaders should reward subordinates by recognizing those who adapt to unfamiliar situations, seize the initiative, and develop creative solutions.

LEADERS PLACE HIGH PRIORITY ON TRAINING AND LEADER DEVELOPMENT

2-10. A leader’s primary focus is preparing subordinates and organizations to conduct full spectrum operations in a variety of operational environments. Preparation includes training for ongoing operations as well as likely contingencies. It means making the training tougher than the expected operation. Leaders at all levels make the most of every available training opportunity or event to build organizations and develop individuals. Good training develops good leaders, and good leaders provide good training.

2-11. Training and leader development remain a priority throughout a deployment. Keeping this priority improves task performance, hones skills needed for the current operation, and minimizes the degradation of key skills for future operations.

2-12. Responsibility for training and leader development includes developing staffs. Well-trained staffs are as important to operational success as well-trained squads, platoons, and companies.

LEADERS ENSURE TRAINING IS EXECUTED TO STANDARD

2-13. The Army is a standards-based organization. Its leaders enforce established standards or establish and enforce standards where none exist. To ensure training meets standards, leaders stay involved during all training phases—planning, preparation, execution, and assessment.

2-14. Leaders inspect training for quality and effectiveness. They ensure individuals and organizations meet training objectives and that training is supported by sufficient resources and qualified trainers. Leaders establish discipline in training by creating and maintaining a climate that drives individuals and organizations to meet the standards. A disciplined unit trains to standard, even when leaders are not present. Leaders who enforce standards in training prepare their units to meet those standards in operations. They set the example for future generations of leaders.

LEADERS CONTINUALLY ASSESS INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL PROFICIENCY

2-15. Leaders continually assess their own proficiency, that of subordinates, and that of their organizations. Leaders ensure training is relevant to individual and organizational needs so their subordinates are prepared to meet mission requirements. Leaders assist the commander by continually assessing not only individual performance and organizational proficiency but also training efficiency and effectiveness. Equally important, leaders provide feedback on performance to individuals and the organization through coaching, individual performance counseling (see FM 6-22, appendix B), and after action reviews (AARs). Leaders develop learning organizations by ensuring these processes are fully integrated into the unit’s culture and climate.
LEADERS ENFORCE SAFETY AND MANAGE RISKS

2-16. Involved leaders minimize damage, injury, and loss of equipment and personnel. They do this by providing effective supervision, enforcing standards, and applying CRM. In some of the most dangerous operational environments and during the most complex missions, Army forces have experienced fewer losses than expected. This success is due to good leadership, comprehensive planning, effective supervision, and enforcing standards. Leaders influence first-line leader risk management decisions and guide first-line leaders to influence individual risk decisions at the lowest echelons. Leaders—

- Mitigate identified training risks by developing and implementing control measures that target specific risks. Leaders use CRM to match solutions to risks they identify. (FM 5-19 contains CRM doctrine. Paragraphs 2-37 through 2-39 of this manual discuss applying CRM to training.)
- Make risk decisions at the appropriate level. As a matter of policy, commanders establish and publish approval authority for risk decisions. Doing this requires leaders to identify risks and mitigating measures. It also ensures that the right leaders make decisions involving safety.

NONCOMMISSIONED OFFICERS TRAIN INDIVIDUALS, CREWS, AND SMALL TEAMS

2-17. NCOs are the primary trainers of enlisted Soldiers, crews, and small teams. Officers and NCOs have a special training relationship; their training responsibilities complement each other. This relationship spans all echelons and types of organizations. NCOs are usually an organization’s most experienced trainers. Their input is crucial to a commander’s overall training strategy (see paragraph 4-93) and a vital ingredient of the “top-down/bottom-up” approach to training. This approach is characterized by direction from commanders (“top-down”) and subsequent input from subordinate officers and NCOs (“bottom-up”). (See paragraphs 4-72 through 4-73.) This two-way communication helps ensure the organization trains on the most important tasks. Five tenets support NCOs as they train individuals, crews, and small teams:

- Training is a primary duty of NCOs; NCOs turn guidance into action.
- NCOs identify Soldier, crew, and small-team tasks, and help identify unit collective tasks that support the unit’s mission-essential tasks.
- NCOs provide and enforce standards-based, performance-oriented, mission-focused training.
- NCOs focus on sustaining strengths and improving weaknesses.
- NCOs develop junior NCOs and help officers develop junior officers.

TRAINING IS A PRIMARY DUTY OF NCOs; NCOs TURN GUIDANCE INTO ACTION

2-18. NCOs train, lead, and care for Soldiers and their equipment. They instill in Soldiers the Warrior Ethos and Army Values. NCOs take the broad guidance given by their leaders and identify the necessary tasks, standards, and resources. Then they execute the training in accordance with their leader’s intent.

NCOs IDENTIFY SOLDIER, CREW, AND SMALL-TEAM TASKS, AND HELP IDENTIFY UNIT COLLECTIVE TASKS THAT SUPPORT THE UNIT’S MISSION-ESSENTIAL TASKS

2-19. To identify Soldier, crew, and small-team tasks, NCOs begin with individual Soldier tasks. Then they identify the individual, crew, and small-team tasks that link to or support the unit’s mission-essential tasks. NCOs also help officers identify the collective tasks that support the unit’s mission-essential tasks.

NCOs PROVIDE AND ENFORCE STANDARDS-BASED, PERFORMANCE-ORIENTED, MISSION-FOCUSED TRAINING

2-20. Disciplined, mission-focused training ensures Soldier proficiency in the individual tasks that support an organization’s mission-essential tasks. NCOs ensure key individual tasks are integrated into short-range and near-term training plans. NCOs plan, prepare, execute, and assess training. They help commanders and other leaders assess training by conducting internal AARs and participating in external AARs. NCOs provide candid feedback to commanders and other leaders on all aspects of training—especially individual,
crew, and small team training. They base feedback on their observations and evaluations before, during, and after training. NCOs identify problems with training and implement solutions on their own initiative.

**NCOs Focus on Sustaining Strengths and Improving Weaknesses**

2-21. NCOs quickly assimilate new Soldiers into the organization, continuously coach and mentor them, and hone their newly acquired skills. NCOs cross-train their Soldiers in critical skills and duties. Cross-training prepares Soldiers to accept positions of increased responsibility and take another Soldier’s place if necessary. NCOs are dedicated to helping each Soldier grow and develop, both professionally and personally. This dedication is vital to developing future leaders. It is essential to ensuring the organization can successfully accomplish its mission, even when its leaders are absent. While developing Soldiers’ skills and knowledge, NCOs foster initiative and agility in subordinates.

**NCOs Develop Junior NCOs and Help Officers Develop Junior Officers**

2-22. NCOs train and coach Soldiers. Senior NCOs train junior NCOs for the next higher position well before they assume it. Senior NCOs help form high-performing officer-NCO teams and help clarify to junior officers the different roles of officers and NCOs in training. NCOs also help officers develop junior officer competence and professionalism and explain NCO expectations of officers.

**Train as You Will Fight**

2-23. For twenty-first century full spectrum operations, “fight” includes lethal and nonlethal skills. “Train as you fight” means training under the conditions of the expected operational environment. To train as they expect to fight, leaders adhere to the following eight tenets:

- Train for full spectrum operations and quick transitions between missions.
- Train for proficiency in combined arms operations and unified action.
- Train the fundamentals first.
- Make training performance-oriented, realistic, and mission-focused.
- Train for challenging, complex, ambiguous, and uncomfortable situations.
- Integrate safety and CRM throughout training.
- Determine and use the right mix of live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers to provide conditions for training events that replicate the anticipated operational environment.
- Train while deployed.

**Train for Full Spectrum Operations and Quick Transitions Between Missions**

2-24. Army organizations are required to conduct simultaneous offensive, defensive, and stability or civil support operations as well as support diplomatic, informational, and economic efforts. Effective training challenges leaders and organizations with rapidly changing conditions, requiring them to adapt to accomplish evolving missions. Commanders create training conditions that force subordinate leaders to quickly assess situations and develop innovative solutions. Doing this requires being able to train functionally diverse subordinate organizations. Leaders and subordinates put as much emphasis on rapid decisionmaking and execution as on deliberate planning and preparation. They exercise their mental agility to transition quickly between offensive, defensive, and stability or civil support operations.

**Train for Proficiency in Combined Arms Operations and Unified Action**

2-25. Combined arms proficiency is met through effectively integrating the warfighting functions. It is fundamental to all Army operations. Individuals, units, and their leaders are trained to fight and win the Nation’s wars; however, they also contribute to implementing the peace alongside and in support of the diplomatic, informational, and economic instruments of national power. (See FM 3-0.)

2-26. Unified action and joint interdependence require leaders aware of the institutional cultures of organizations making up or working with a joint force. This awareness includes understanding how joint and
multinational, military and civilian partners operate and make decisions. Individuals, units, and their leaders develop that understanding only by continuous education and by regular training with these partners. Deployed units prepare to participate in unified action with minimal additional training or lengthy adjustment periods.

2-27. Commanders and leaders should replicate unified action as much as possible during training. Live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers can help replicate the conditions of an actual operational environment, including the contributions of unified action partners. Where possible, commanders establish predeployment training relationships that mirror the operational task organization. These habitual relationships help build a team prepared for unified action.

TRAIN THE FUNDAMENTALS FIRST

2-28. Fundamentals, such as warrior tasks and battle drills, are a critical part of the crawl-walk-run concept. (See paragraphs 4-180 through 4-184.) Warrior tasks are individual Soldier skills critical to Soldier survival. Battle drills are group skills designed to teach a unit to react and survive in common combat situations. Both focus individual training on performing basic tasks to a high degree of proficiency. Leaders assess whether or not their subordinates need to begin at the crawl stage. Training fundamentals first can ease training on more complex individual and collective tasks, such as those related to culture and foreign languages. It helps Soldiers become more agile and innovative. Soldiers well-trained in basic tasks—such as physical fitness, lifesaving skills, marksmanship, and small-unit drills—are essential to units confidently and successfully completing collective tasks.

MAKE TRAINING PERFORMANCE-ORIENTED, REALISTIC, AND MISSION-FOCUSED

2-29. Performance-oriented training involves physically performing tasks. It is an active, hands-on approach as opposed to a passive, listening one. Performance-oriented training focuses on results rather than process. It lets individuals and units train all tasks to standard. That training should be stressful physically and mentally to prepare individuals for conditions encountered during operations. Commanders and subordinate leaders plan realistic training. They integrate training support resources that replicate operational environment conditions as much as possible.

2-30. Training usually starts with a unit’s core METL. (See paragraph 4-41.) METLs include core capability and general mission-essential tasks. Core capability mission-essential tasks are those the organization is designed to perform. General mission-essential tasks are those that all units, regardless of type, must be able to accomplish. (See paragraph 4-46.)

2-31. The Army has learned that developing proficiency in performing offensive and defensive tasks does not automatically develop proficiency in performing stability or civil support tasks. Similarly, an army that focuses only on stability or civil support tasks may have significant difficulties quickly transitioning to offensive and defensive operations.

2-32. Effective training incorporates conditions that allow execution of both core capability and general mission-essential tasks using lethal and nonlethal actions to adapt to different situations. While no organization can be completely proficient on all types of operations at all times, all can become proficient in the tasks it will most likely perform in the near term. As operational environments become more complex and resources (such as time, money, land, and airspace) become scarcer, the value of live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers increases. These enablers enhance training effectiveness by replicating the conditions of an actual operational environment. Leaders are responsible for integrating and effectively using training aids, devices, simulators, and simulations (TADSS) to enhance realism.

TRAIN FOR CHALLENGING, COMPLEX, AMBIGUOUS, AND UNCOMFORTABLE SITUATIONS

2-33. Leaders train their subordinates and organizations to deal with challenging, complex, ambiguous, and uncomfortable situations. Such conditions require agile individuals and their leaders to show initiative and creativity and to be comfortable with fog and friction. Under mission command, leaders require subordinates to exercise initiative by trying different solutions to challenging problems.
2-34. Effective training builds competent and confident units and leaders. It includes situations where varied and tough conditions test their discipline and resolve. Training under those conditions develop individuals with the ability to remain calm in chaotic uncertain conditions.

2-35. Challenging training requires individuals to conduct continuous operations and different elements of full spectrum operations simultaneously. All Soldiers must develop the ability to assess quickly the level of force required. Training under realistic conditions requires Soldiers to use force commensurate with the situation. It also trains them to anticipate the second- and third-order effects of their actions.

2-36. Training should also challenge commanders. Some training should place them in situations requiring quick decisionmaking based on rapid analysis without staff support. Such training prepares individuals, organizations, and their leaders for the complexities inherent in today’s operational environments. Proficiency in full spectrum operations requires leader-trainers who understand the requirements of those environments and effectively train their units for them.

**INTEGRATE SAFETY AND COMPOSITE RISK MANAGEMENT THROUGHOUT TRAINING**

2-37. Risk management and safety are not risk aversion. Risk is inherent in Army training, since success in operations depends on tough, realistic, and challenging training. Managing risk applies to individual and collective training under any operational or training environment, regardless of the echelon, component, mission, or type of force. *Composite risk management* is the decisionmaking process for identifying and assessing hazards, developing and implementing risk mitigation actions to control risk across the full spectrum of Army missions, functions, operations, and activities (FM 5-19). CRM underpins the protection element of combat power. Leaders manage risks without degrading training realism. They identify hazards, mitigate risks, evaluate environmental considerations, and make decisions at the appropriate level. CRM provides knowledge leaders need to take prudent risks.

2-38. Leaders use the risk management process to determine the right balance between the potential gains and losses associated with risk in operations and training. (See FM 5-19.) For example, an infantryman who adjusts the prescribed combat load to maximize combat power and mobility while balancing weight requirements is making a risk decision.

2-39. CRM expands the scope of the compliance-based Army Safety Program to identify, analyze, and manage risks that doctrine may or may not address. Individuals and organizations continuously apply CRM to training and establish control measures to mitigate risks. In training, CRM helps leaders identify the hazards inherent in tough, realistic, and challenging training environments. Leaders can then decide whether achieving the training objectives merits accepting the risk associated with those hazards. In operations, commanders use CRM to identify hazards and mitigate the risks those hazards pose to the force. This contributes to preserving the force so commanders can apply maximum combat power to the current operation and sustain combat power for future operations. Since individuals operate as they have trained, practice in integrating CRM into the operations process while training is essential.

**DETERMINE AND USE THE RIGHT MIX OF LIVE, VIRTUAL, CONSTRUCTIVE, AND GAMING TRAINING ENABLERS**

2-40. A combination of live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers can help replicate an actual operational environment. Based on resources available—such as time, fuel, funds, and training areas—commanders determine the right mix of live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers to effectively and efficiently train for a mission or rehearse an operation.

**TRAIN WHILE DEPLOYED**

2-41. Training does not stop when a unit is deployed. Commanders should periodically review their directed METL to sustain or retrain certain tasks as needed. (See paragraphs 4-55 through 4-68.) As time and resources allow, they should also train METL tasks to maintain proficiency during long deployments. Commanders consider the effects of the operational variables (political, military, economic, social, infra-
structure, information, physical environment, and time (PMESII-PT) on the area of operations before undertaking such training. (See FM 3-0, paragraphs 1-21 through 1-44.)

TRAIN TO STANDARD

2-42. Army training is performed to standard. Leaders prescribe tasks with their associated standards that ensure their organization is capable of accomplishing its doctrinal or directed mission. A standard is the minimum proficiency required to accomplish a task under a set of conditions. (See paragraph 4-91.) The goal in training is achieving mastery, not just proficiency. Leaders continually challenge individuals and organizations by varying training conditions to make achieving the standard more challenging. The following tenets focus on standards-based training:

- Leaders know and enforce standards.
- Leaders define success where standards have not been established.
- Leaders train to standard, not to time.

LEADERS KNOW AND ENFORCE STANDARDS

2-43. Enforcing standards provides individuals and organizations with a sound basis for training. Effective training is executed to Army standards, joint standards, or both. Standards include measures of performance that leaders use to evaluate the ability of individuals and organizations to accomplish tasks. Standards usually are established in such publications as doctrine, combined arms training strategies, and unit standing operating procedures.

LEADERS DEFINE SUCCESS WHERE STANDARDS HAVE NOT BEEN ESTABLISHED

2-44. Individuals and organizations may be required to perform tasks based on emerging tactics, techniques, and procedures or new conditions. These tasks may not have established standards. Leaders adapt by redefining an existing task or establishing a standard to meet the situation.

2-45. Leaders create achievable standards based on any or all of the following: commander’s guidance; observations, insights, and lessons from similar operations; their professional judgment; and common sense. The next higher commander approves these standards. Doctrine describes common tactics, techniques, and procedures that permit commanders, other leaders, and units to adjust rapidly to changing situations. Where possible, commanders base new standards on doctrine, since doctrine provides the basis for a common vocabulary and evaluation criteria.

LEADERS TRAIN TO STANDARD, NOT TO TIME

2-46. Leaders allocate enough time to train tasks to standard. When necessary, they allocate time to retrain tasks under the same or different, preferably more difficult, conditions. Good leaders understand that they cannot train on everything; therefore, they focus on training the most important tasks. Leaders do not accept substandard performance in order to complete all tasks on the training schedule. Training a few tasks to standard is preferable to training more tasks below standard. Achieving the standard may require repeating tasks or restarting a training event. Leaders should allocate time for remedial training. When a unit meets the standard in less time than expected, it can use that time for training related tasks—or leaders can end training early. Training plans should allow for this.

TRAIN TO SUSTAIN

2-47. Units must be capable of operating continuously while deployed. Maintenance is essential for continuous operations and is, therefore, an integral part of training. Maintenance is more than maintaining equipment; it includes maintaining and sustaining performance levels, personnel, equipment, and systems over extended periods. Leaders create training conditions that require units to do this. Leaders incorporate sustainment into individual and collective training by following these nine tenets:

- Make maintenance of equipment, individuals, and the organization part of every training event.
- Equipment maintenance is the cornerstone of sustainment.
- Soldiers and civilians maintain entire systems.
• Leaders train and retrain critical tasks to sustain proficiency.
• Train to sustain core individual and collective skills and knowledge.
• Sustain leader presence.
• Train staffs routinely.
• Leaders develop a sense of stewardship in subordinates.
• Preventable loss is unacceptable.

MAKE MAINTENANCE OF EQUIPMENT, INDIVIDUALS, AND THE ORGANIZATION PART OF EVERY TRAINING EVENT

2-48. Commanders allocate time for individuals and units to maintain themselves and their equipment to standard during training events. This time includes scheduled maintenance periods (such as for preventive maintenance checks and services), assembly area operations, and physical training. Leaders train their subordinates to appreciate the importance of maintaining themselves and their equipment. Organizations perform maintenance during operations to the standards they practice in training. Maintenance training in this context includes not only taking care of equipment but also sustaining critical individual and collective skills. Maintenance training helps sustain mental and physical fitness, essential skills, and equipment readiness rates. Effective training prepares individuals and organizations to operate for long periods by including the maintenance tasks required to sustain operations.

EQUIPMENT MAINTENANCE IS THE CORNERSTONE OF SUSTAINMENT

2-49. Functional, reliable, and maintained equipment is essential to mission success. All Soldiers are responsible for maintaining their equipment during training and operations. Leaders are responsible for ensuring they do so. Leaders ensure subordinates execute scheduled maintenance with the same intensity as other training events. These periods should have clear, focused, and measurable objectives. As with other types of training, leaders supervise, enforce standards, complete AARs, and hold subordinates accountable. They lead by example to underscore that maintenance training is important to readiness. Effective maintenance training ensures organizational equipment is available when needed. It also reduces the effect of frequent deployments and high personnel tempo.

SOLDIERS AND CIVILIANS MAINTAIN ENTIRE SYSTEMS

2-50. Leaders train subordinates to maintain entire systems. For example, maintaining a fighting vehicle involves maintaining its components—weapons; radios; basic issue items; and chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear equipment—as well as the vehicle itself. Units are systems that require sustainment in the form of rest, resupply, rotation of shifts, and special training as required.

LEADERS TRAIN AND RETRAIN CRITICAL TASKS TO SUSTAIN PROFICIENCY

2-51. Sustaining proficiency applies to maintaining skill proficiency, since physical health, memory, and skills deteriorate without regular use and periodic challenges. Limited training time requires leaders to pick the most important tasks to sustain or improve, for example, those tasks that are essential to mission accomplishment and perishable without frequent practice. Retraining tasks that individuals can perform to standard while not training tasks that individuals cannot perform wastes valuable training time. Commanders select the most important tasks when they prepare their METL. (See chapter 4, section II.) They consider AARs, trends, new equipment, and collaboration among leaders at all levels when they do this. Commanders use the mix of live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers that best sustains individual and collective skills.

TRAIN TO SUSTAIN CORE INDIVIDUAL AND COLLECTIVE SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE

2-52. Leaders balance the time spent training on METL tasks with time spent on such skills as physical and mental fitness, marksmanship, and navigation.
SUSTAIN LEADER PRESENCE

2-53. A leader’s physical presence determines how others perceive that leader. It is more than the leader just showing up; it involves the image that the leader projects. Presence is conveyed through actions, words, and the manner in which leaders carry themselves and make decisions. Setting the example for health, physical fitness, resilience, and calmness under pressure is the foundation of leader presence. (See FM 6-22, chapter 5.)

TRAIN STAFFS ROUTINELY

2-54. The staff is an extension of the commander. It is a vital part of the commander’s command and control system. (See FM 6-0.) Operations require staffs to operate continuously without losing proficiency. Staffs should train regularly and often, rather than in short bursts just before a major evaluation. An effective staff maintenance program progresses to a high level of proficiency. It includes—

- Operating over extended periods and distances.
- Enforcing rest plans.
- Maintaining tactical command and control information systems and other equipment.
- Establishing security measures.
- Cross-training.

LEADERS DEVELOP A SENSE OF STEWARDSHIP IN SUBORDINATES

2-55. Resources include the following: individual and organizational equipment, installation property, training areas, ranges, facilities, time, the environment, and organizational funds. Protection of these assets is both a leader’s and an individual’s responsibility. Subordinates follow the example leaders set. Preserving readiness requires enforcing accountability for property and other resources across all echelons.

2-56. Well-disciplined individuals willingly take ownership of and properly care for their equipment. This sense of stewardship avoids costly and unnecessary expenditures on replacements. In addition, mission accomplishment requires individuals to be physically and mentally ready and have their equipment properly functioning and maintained. This readiness ensures their safety and security, as well as that of everyone else in the organization. Good stewardship is learned during tough training in which individuals learn to respect and trust themselves and their leaders. Good training also develops appreciation for the importance of well-maintained equipment and other resources.

PREVENTABLE LOSS IS UNACCEPTABLE

2-57. Soldiers, Army civilians and their leaders are professionally obligated to protect the Nation’s resources—human, financial, materiel, environmental, and informational. Preventable loss can be mitigated by integrating CRM throughout Army training.

CONDUCT MULTIECHELON AND CONCURRENT TRAINING

2-58. Multiechelon training is a training technique that allows for the simultaneous training of more than one echelon on different or complementary tasks. It is the most efficient way to train, especially with limited resources. It requires synchronized planning and coordination by commanders and other leaders at each affected echelon.

2-59. Multiechelon training optimizes the use of time and resources. This is important in an environment characterized by frequent deployments and limited resources. Multiechelon training can occur when an entire unit trains on a single task or when different echelons of a unit simultaneously train on different tasks. Multiechelon training allows individuals and leaders to see the effects of one echelon’s execution on another echelon. This type of training offers commanders an opportunity to reduce training resource requirements. For example, when a lower echelon requires less attention than a higher one, observer controller/trainers can be consolidated at the higher echelon and be required to observe both echelons. While mul-
Principles of Training

2-60. Concurrent training occurs when a leader conducts training within another type of training. It complements the execution of primary training objectives by allowing leaders to make the most efficient use of available time. For example, an artillery battery commander supporting an infantry battalion during a non-firing maneuver exercise might conduct howitzer section training while the fire direction center maintains communications with fire support officers moving with the infantry. Similarly, while Soldiers are waiting their turn on the firing line at a range, their leaders can train them on other tasks. Leaders look for ways to use all available training time. Concurrent training can occur during multiechelon training.

2-61. While large-scale training events provide the best opportunity to conduct multiechelon training, smaller scale events can provide conditions conducive to training multiple echelons simultaneously. Leaders should exercise initiative and create their own training events within a larger training exercise, based on the needs of their unit and through coordination with the larger or supported unit.

TRAIN TO DEVELOP AGILE LEADERS AND ORGANIZATIONS

2-62. The Army trains and educates its members to develop agile leaders and organizations able to operate successfully in any operational environment. The Army develops leaders who can direct fires in a firefight one minute and calmly help a family evacuate a destroyed home the next. The Army trains leaders who accept prudent risks to create opportunities to seize, retain, and exploit the initiative. This agility requires educated, highly trained, and well-disciplined individuals. They must also be physically tough, mentally agile, and well-grounded in their core competencies and the Warrior Ethos. The Army needs people experienced and knowledgeable enough to successfully accomplish any mission along the spectrum of conflict and in any operational theme. Such individuals—expeditionary individuals and their leaders—can adapt to any situation and operate successfully in any operational environment. These seven tenets underlie developing competent and agile leaders and organizations:

- Train leaders in the art and science of battle command.
- Train leaders who can execute mission command.
- Develop an expeditionary mindset in Soldiers and Army civilians.
- Educate leaders to think.
- Train leaders and organizations to adapt to changing mission roles and responsibilities.
- Create a “freedom to learn” environment.
- Give subordinates feedback.

TRAIN LEADERS IN THE ART AND SCIENCE OF BATTLE COMMAND

2-63. Battle command is the art and science of understanding, visualizing, describing, directing, leading, and assessing forces to impose the commander’s will on a hostile, thinking, and adaptive enemy. Battle command applies leadership to translate decisions into actions—by synchronizing forces and warfighting functions in time, space, and purpose—to accomplish missions (FM 3-0). During the Cold War, the Army thought it knew what was necessary to succeed against a predictable enemy. Now the Army faces different challenges. These challenges result from multiple circumstances. Some have military causes; others result from actions by the population in the area of operations. These conditions require an unprecedented understanding of a wide variety of factors. Commanders think about these factors in terms of the operational variables (PMESII-PT) and mission variables (mission, enemy, terrain and weather, troops and support available, time available, civil considerations [METT-TC]). That understanding is essential to successful battle command.

2-64. Battle command is guided by professional judgment gained from several sources: experience, knowledge, education, intelligence, and intuition. Leaders improve their battle command skills through realistic, complex, and changing training scenarios. Training gives commanders greater understanding that enables them to make qualitatively better decisions than their opponents. Simultaneously, they focus their intuitive abilities on visualizing the current and future conditions of their operational environment.
Successful battle command involves timely, effective decisions based on combining judgment with information. It requires knowing when and what to decide. It also requires commanders to assess the quality of information and knowledge. Commanders identify important information requirements and focus subordinates and the staff on them. Commanders anticipate the activities that follow decisions, knowing that once executed, the effects of those decisions are often irreversible. In exercising battle command, commanders combine analytical and intuitive approaches for decisionmaking. These skills are developed and honed through rigorous training and mentoring by senior commanders at every echelon.

**Train Leaders Who Can Execute Mission Command**

Commanders who train using mission command develop leaders who practice mission command and subordinates who are comfortable with and expect to operate using mission orders. *(Mission orders is a technique for developing orders that emphasizes to subordinates the results to be attained, not how they are to achieve them. It provides maximum freedom of action in determining how to best accomplish assigned missions [FM 3-0].)* If mission command is not practiced in training, leaders will not use it in operations.

Mission command requires an environment of trust and mutual understanding. Training under mission command increases trust and allows the unit to achieve unity of effort by focusing on the commander’s intent. Subordinates develop initiative and the ability to develop creative solutions to problems—in short, they become more agile. Effective mission command requires leaders who can develop clear intent statements—brief statements that provide a clear purpose and end state. As with battle command, commanders and other leaders at every level employ mission command in training and operations.

**Develop an Expeditionary Mindset in Soldiers and Army Civilians**

Organizations are only as agile as their people are, especially their leaders. Expeditionary individuals and their leaders are knowledgeable and experienced enough to conduct full spectrum operations in any operational theme anywhere along the spectrum of conflict—and they know it. Persistent conflict is producing a force of seasoned Soldiers with multiple operational experiences. Home station training and rotations at the maneuver CTCs are incorporating offensive, defensive, and stability operations into major combat operations and irregular warfare scenarios—and in others as needed. However, developing an expeditionary mindset requires complementing operational experiences with self-development through reading and simulations. It also requires institutional training that provides broadening and introspective experiences. Effective institutional training allows Soldiers and Army civilians to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses and take the steps necessary to develop and enhance their skills and knowledge. Reading AARs and lessons learned by individuals and units in operations augments personal knowledge and experiences. Expeditionary leaders are versatile in their knowledge, skills, behaviors, and competencies. These leaders master the skills and competencies associated with other branches in order to train their modular units. Institutional experiences, home station training, CTC exercises, and self-development all contribute to producing expeditionary leaders and units.

**Educate Leaders to Think**

Expeditionary leaders are trained to think critically and originally. These leaders know how to conduct operations. Just as important, they know how to develop novel, original solutions to complex tactical situations in actual operational environments. Effective training cultivates a leader’s ability to develop workable tactical concepts, quickly choose among alternatives, and modify their actions as the operational environment changes. These skills involve a mix of education and experience, reinforced through training, exercises, and day-to-day operations. Expeditionary leaders understand that no single solution to a problem exists; what worked yesterday may not work today. They can apply their skills and knowledge to solve recurring problems—and new ones as they arise. Leaders also develop their subordinate leaders’ skills by creating a training environment that challenges subordinates to think beyond familiar drills and common solutions. Leaders teach subordinates that operations do not always occur under the same conditions, in sequence, or with logical transitions.
TRAIN LEADERS AND ORGANIZATIONS TO ADAPT TO CHANGING MISSION ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

2-70. Training adaptable leaders and organizations requires creativity and imagination. Commanders and other leaders prepare themselves, their subordinates, and their units for unfamiliar situations, to include employing both lethal and nonlethal means. Leaders develop flexible subordinates—subordinates who do not freeze in unfamiliar situations. Leaders train subordinates to perform at both their current and the next level of responsibility. That training prepares individuals to assume the next higher position quickly when needed. Live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers let leaders inexpensively train and retrain tasks under varying conditions.

2-71. To make units agile, commanders and senior NCOs help subordinates develop their intuition. Leaders coach subordinates through various situations comprising varying conditions and degrees of force. That coaching helps subordinates recognize similar situations and intuitively know how to handle them without being limited by a single “approved solution.” Leaders help subordinates recognize alternative—even nonstandard—solutions to complex challenges rather than relying on past solutions that may not fit the situation. Battle drills are important combat skills; they teach Soldiers how to react instinctively in life-and-death situations, where aggressiveness may be more important than finesse or where immediate action is more important than deliberate decisionmaking. However, well-trained Soldiers can quickly identify situations where battle drills do not fit, think their way through them, and act to resolve the situation.

CREATE A “FREEDOM TO LEARN” ENVIRONMENT

2-72. Leaders foster an organizational climate that allows subordinate leaders to think their way through unanticipated events and react to unfamiliar situations. (See FM 6-22, chapter 8.) Freedom to learn does not mean accepting substandard performance. It means establishing a standard that rewards creativity, innovation, and initiative—and a command climate that allows honest mistakes. Leaders focus on what was completed and how individuals responded to the situation. If results are unsatisfactory, subordinates learn from mistakes through feedback. They analyze why they failed to achieve the desired results, discover how to adapt, and then try again. Leaders also solicit recommendations from subordinates being trained.

2-73. Subordinates who think they are not allowed to fail or try innovative means to accomplish tasks avoid taking risks and attempting imaginative solutions. The best lessons are often learned through failure. However, repeated failures of the same task can indicate an inability to learn or the need to reassess the training technique, training, or both. Today’s dynamic operational environments require individuals and their leaders to learn while operating. This important skill requires agile leaders who can learn from their mistakes under pressure and adapt successfully to a new but similar situation. Learning while operating is not the same as having the freedom to learn; it is the product of it. A training environment in which individuals have the freedom to make mistakes produces individuals better able to learn and adapt during operations.

GIVE SUBORDINATES FEEDBACK

2-74. The Army’s primary feedback technique is the AAR. (See paragraphs 4-202 through 4-208.) Leaders use AARs to provide feedback based on observations and assessments of performance during training and operations. AARs are essential for developing agile leaders and subordinates. Feedback helps all individuals learn from training. It allows them to reflect on what they did and how they can improve future performance. AARs are not critiques; they are a means of self-discovery led by a facilitator. AARs help leaders and subordinates understand how and why actions unfolded as they did and what should be done next time to avoid the same mistakes or repeat successes. Leaders can use AARs to gauge training effectiveness and whether changes are needed in future training. Well-planned and well-executed AARs form the building blocks of learning organizations. (See FM 6-01.1, appendix B, for using AARs during operations.)
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Chapter 3
The Army Training System

This chapter discusses the Army Training System, which prepares Soldiers, Army civilians, organizations, and their leaders to conduct full spectrum operations. This discussion addresses the importance of discipline in training and the complementary nature of the institutional, operational, and self-development training domains. The chapter defines training and education, reinforces the importance of leader development, and describes the lifecycle of training and education.

FOUNDATIONS OF ARMY TRAINING

3-1. The foundations of Army training are discipline, sound principles and tenets, and a responsive training support system.

DISCIPLINE

3-2. The essential foundation of any good training program is discipline. Good commanders and leaders instill discipline in training to ensure mission success. Discipline in training can be summed up this way:

- Disciplined individuals do the right thing when no one is looking, even under chaotic or uncertain conditions. Discipline demands habitual and reasoned obedience, even when leaders are absent.
- Disciplined individuals perform to standard, regardless of conditions. They have repeatedly practiced tasks to standard, sustained training standards, and trained under conditions closely replicating expected operational environments.
- Discipline is an individual, leader, and organizational responsibility. It is essential to mission success. Well-trained, disciplined individuals and organizations increase the likelihood of success in any operation.
- Discipline in training relates to the Army Values. Success in all three training domains demands it.

PRINCIPLES

3-3. The purpose of Army training is to provide combatant commanders with trained and ready Army forces. Training builds individual confidence and competence while providing individuals with essential skills and knowledge. Individuals and organizations need skills and knowledge to operate as part of expeditionary Army forces conducting full spectrum operations in any operational environment. The principles of training established in chapter 2 apply to all Army training, regardless of topic, component, location, or duration. The Army applies these principles to planning, preparing, executing, and assessing individual and organizational training in three distinct but linked training domains: institutional, operational, and self-development. (See figure 3-1, page 3-2.)

TRAINING SUPPORT

3-4. Developing leaders and preparing Soldiers, Army civilians, staffs, and units for full spectrum operations requires a team effort. The generating force and operational Army share this responsibility. Fulfilling it requires close coordination, integration, and synchronization. While each training domain has specific responsibilities, some intentional overlap ensures all tasks needed for full spectrum operations are trained. The ability to conduct quality training relies on a training infrastructure designed to prepare subordinates and leaders for the challenges of an operational environment. The Army’s training support system provides
training support products, services, and facilities necessary to replicate a relevant training environment. (See paragraphs 4-120 through 4-122.)

![Figure 3-1. Army training domains](image)

**TRAINING AND EDUCATION**

3-5. The Army Training System comprises training and education. Training is not solely the domain of the generating force; similarly, education continues in the operational Army. Training and education occur in all three training domains. Training prepares individuals for certainty. Education prepares individuals for uncertainty. Education enables agility, judgment, and creativity. Training enables action.

3-6. Training develops tactical and technical, individual and collective skills through instruction and repetitive practice. Training uses a crawl-walk-run approach that systematically builds on the successful performance of each task. (See paragraphs 4-180 through 4-184.) The stage at which a Soldier or unit enters training depends on the leader’s assessment of the current readiness level; not everyone needs to begin at the crawl stage. Mastery comes with practice under varying conditions and by meeting the standards for the task trained.

3-7. Army training prepares individuals and organizations by developing the skills, functions, and teamwork necessary to accomplish a task or mission successfully. Training is generally associated with “what to do.” Well-trained organizations and individuals react instinctively, even in unknown situations. Training also helps develop leaders and organizations able to adapt to change under unfamiliar circumstances. Soldiers and teams who execute a battle drill to standard in a new situation under the stress of combat exemplify the result of good training. Repetitive training on a task under varying conditions develops intuition on how to approach the task under new or unfamiliar conditions.

3-8. Education, in contrast, provides intellectual constructs and principles. It allows individuals to apply trained skills beyond a standard situation to gain a desired result. It helps develop individuals and leaders who can think, apply knowledge, and solve problems under uncertain or ambiguous conditions. Education is associated with “how to think.” It provides individuals with lifelong abilities that enable higher cognitive thought processes. Education prepares individuals for service by teaching knowledge, skills, and behaviors applicable to multiple duty positions in peace or war. Educated Soldiers and Army civilians have the foundation needed to adapt to new and unfamiliar situations.

3-9. Traditional training and education may not meet all the needs of an expeditionary Army. The Army is adapting training and education as appropriate to meet the conditions of today’s operational environments. Developing new approaches may be necessary to ensure Soldiers and Army civilians are confident in their ability to conduct full spectrum operations anywhere along the spectrum of conflict with minimal additional training.
TRAINING AND EDUCATION LIFECYCLE OF SOLDIERS AND ARMY CIVILIANS

3-10. Soldiers and Army civilians begin training the day they enter the Army. They continue training until the day they retire or separate. Individuals train to build the skills and knowledge essential to a trained, expeditionary Army. Training prepares individuals, units, staffs, and their leaders to conduct full spectrum operations anytime and anywhere along the spectrum of conflict. This lifelong learning occurs in all three training domains—institutional, operational, and self-development—and involves self-assessment.

INSTITUTIONAL

3-11. The Soldier is, first of all, a warrior. Soldier training begins in the generating force. In schools and training centers, Soldiers train on individual tasks that ultimately support their projected unit’s core capability mission-essential tasks. Soldiers are also exposed to the skills of other branches while in schools and training centers. Finally, Soldiers train on warrior tasks—critical tasks that all Soldiers must perform in full spectrum operations. Armed with basic skills from the institution, Soldiers are assigned to a unit. There they integrate into a team and begin training in the operational training domain.

3-12. In contrast, most Army civilians enter the Army with the skills and knowledge required for their position. Civilians enhance their knowledge, skills, and abilities through the Civilian Education System, functional training, self-development, and assignments. Army civilians are key contributors to Army readiness.

OPERATIONAL

3-13. Operational assignments build on the foundation of individual skills learned in schools. Unit leaders introduce new skills required by a Soldier’s specialty. In addition, Soldiers master collective tasks that support the unit’s mission-essential tasks. In units, individuals train to standard on individual and collective tasks—first with their unit and then as an integrated component of a combined arms team, which may participate in unified action. Major training events, combat training center (CTC) exercises, and operational deployments provide additional experiences necessary for building fully trained units. Regardless of where individuals train—in the generating force or the operational Army—effective training is relevant, rigorous, realistic, challenging, and properly resourced. Conditions replicate the projected operational environment as much as possible. This training environment provides the full range of experiences needed to produce capable, bold, and agile individuals and units.

3-14. Army civilians usually gain operational experience in the generating force; however, civilians support both the operational Army and the generating force. They fill positions that make it possible to man, equip, resource, and train operational Army units. Army civilians provide the skills and continuity essential to the functioning of Army organizations and programs.

SELF-DEVELOPMENT

3-15. Self-development is just as important as other individual training. It allows individuals to expand their knowledge and experience to supplement training in the institutional or operational training domains. Self-development can enhance skills needed for a current position or help prepare an individual for future positions. It can mean the difference between failure and success. Individuals are responsible for their own professional growth and for seeking out self-development opportunities. (FM 6-22, paragraphs 8-30 through 8-50, addresses self-development.)

3-16. Civilian knowledge, skills, and abilities are key contributors to Army readiness. They are enhanced through the Civilian Education System and focused, continuous learning. Commanders and first-line leaders monitor and annually assess individual performance and development. In schools, individuals monitor their own progress. Regardless of who tracks the self-development plan, the burden of self-development rests on the individual. It is a function of each person’s desire to improve.
3-17. Soldiers and Army civilians complete self-assessments with or without supervision. They thoroughly assess their competencies and seek advice and counsel from others to determine strengths and weaknesses. Guidance on self-development can come from schools, leaders, mentors, and peers.

3-18. As professionals, Soldiers and Army civilians discipline themselves to pursue training and education on and off duty. Self-development can take many forms. Examples include the following: reading Army and joint manuals, professional journals, and military history; taking college courses; completing self-paced online training modules; or pursuing academic degrees. Such training and education is critical to developing the agility and breadth of skills needed during full spectrum operations. Individuals can use Army or commercial training and education products to become more proficient in any area.

LIFELONG TRAINING AND EDUCATION

3-19. Soldiers and Army civilians cycle between the institutional and operational domains for training and education throughout their careers. They supplement training, education, and experience with structured, guided, and individualized self-development programs. Individuals return to schools and centers at certain points to gain new skills and knowledge needed for the next duty assignment and to prepare them for higher levels of responsibility. They return to units, sometimes at the next higher grade, assume new responsibilities, and apply the knowledge and experience gained in school to operations.

3-20. Leaders should encourage subordinates to increase their skills and knowledge through training and education in all three domains. Commanders and other leaders supplement and reinforce what individuals learn in schools. Subordinates and leaders identify gaps in learning and fill those gaps through self-development. Similarly, Army civilians hone their skills in the institutional training domain through functional training courses and the Civilian Education System. They return to their current positions more knowledgeable or move to positions of greater responsibility. This three-pronged, Armywide, team approach to broadening individual training and education helps develop agile leaders.

FOUNDATIONS OF LEADER DEVELOPMENT

3-21. The Army is committed to training, educating, and developing all its leaders—officers, warrant officers, noncommissioned officers, and Army civilians—to lead organizations in the complex and challenging operational environments of the twenty-first century. Training and education develop agile leaders and prepare them for current and future assignments of increasing responsibility. Army leaders require character, presence, and intellectual capacity (see FM 6-22, part two):

- Leaders of character practice the Army Values, empathize with those around them, and exemplify the Warrior Ethos.
- Leaders with presence display military bearing; are physically fit, composed, and confident; and are resilient under stress.
- Leaders with intellectual capacity possess mental agility, make sound decisions, are innovative, employ tact in interpersonal relations, and know their profession.

3-22. The Army training and leader development model helps develop trained and ready units led by competent and confident leaders. (See figure 3-2.) Leader development is a deliberate, continuous, sequential, and progressive process. It develops Soldiers and Army civilians into competent and confident leaders who act decisively, accomplish missions, and care for subordinates and their families. It is grounded in the Army Values. The aptitude for command, staff leadership, and special duties (such as teaching, foreign internal defense team leadership, attaché duties, and joint staff assignments) all contribute to leader development and affect future assignments and promotions.

3-23. Leader development occurs through the lifelong synthesis of knowledge, skills, and experiences gained through the three training domains. Each domain provides distinct experiences and has specific, measurable actions that develop leaders. The domains interact, with feedback and assessments from various sources and procedures contributing to individuals’ development. Performance feedback and formal and informal assessments help individuals improve performance in their current position and prepare them to serve successfully at the next level of responsibility.
3-24. Competent and confident leaders are essential to successfully training units, and ultimately to employing those units in operations. Uniformed leaders are inherently Soldiers first; they remain technically and tactically proficient in basic Soldier skills. Civilian leaders master the skills and knowledge required of their position. They hone their leadership abilities to provide organizations with both leadership and management skills. All leaders seek to be agile and able to observe, understand, and react to the operational environment. These leaders exercise mission command and apply relevant knowledge, skills, and experiences acquired through training and education to accomplish missions.

3-25. Commanders and other leaders play key roles in the three training domains by developing subordinate leaders with the following characteristics:

- Are tactically and technically competent, confident, and agile.
- Can successfully employ their units across the spectrum of conflict.
- Possess the knowledge and skills needed to train and employ modular force units and operate as a part of a unified action.
- Are culturally astute.
- Can prepare mission orders that meet their commander’s intent.
- Are courageous, seize opportunities, and effectively manage risk.
- Take care of their people.

Figure 3-2. Army training and leader development model

TRAINING DOMAINS

3-26. The three training domains complement each other, providing a synergistic system of training and education. The integration of the domains is critical to training Soldiers, Army civilians, and organizations. That integration is especially vital to developing expeditionary Army forces that can successfully conduct full spectrum operations on short notice anywhere along the spectrum of conflict. Conducting full spectrum operations requires competent, confident Soldiers experienced and knowledgeable in a multitude of areas. Skills not developed in one domain are made up in the others. For example, Soldiers who have not de-
ployed on disaster relief operations need to read and understand observations, insights, and lessons from these operations. Leaders assess subordinates’ competencies to determine capability gaps. Armed with this knowledge and knowing what individuals will learn on the job, leaders identify subordinates’ capability gaps and provide appropriate self-development guidance.

**INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING DOMAIN**

3-27. The institutional training domain is the Army’s institutional training and education system, which primarily includes training base centers and schools that provide initial training and subsequent professional military education for Soldiers, military leaders, and Army civilians. It is a major component of the generating force. The institutional domain provides initial military training, professional military education, and civilian education. Comprised of military and civilian schools and courses, this domain provides the foundational skills and knowledge required for operational assignments and promotions. Army centers and schools teach specialty skills, warrior tasks, battle drills, and individual skills. These are enhanced and broadened through operational assignments and self-development. It also provides functional training and support to the operational training domain. Leaders and individuals master the basics of their profession in institutional training. This allows units to focus on collective training, while also sustaining and enhancing individual skills and knowledge. The institutional training domain supports Soldiers and Army civilians throughout their careers. It is a key enabler for unit readiness.

3-28. The institutional training domain provides a framework that develops critical thinkers. These leaders can visualize the challenges of full spectrum operations and understand complex systems. They are mentally agile and understand the fundamentals of their profession and branch. Branch schools provide a basic understanding of how their branch and the other branches interact. Institutions of higher learning, such as senior service colleges and civilian graduate schools, take leaders out of their “comfort zone,” helping them become mentally agile.

3-29. The Army systematically develops Soldiers and Army civilians over time and prepares units to accomplish their missions. Training and education becomes progressively more advanced throughout an individual’s career. Institutional training complements and forms the foundation for the operational training in units.

3-30. The institutional training domain includes four major components:

- Support to the field.
- Initial military training.
- Professional military education and the Civilian Education System.
- Functional training.

**Support to the Field**

3-31. Training for full spectrum operations requires closely linking the institutional training domain with the operational training domain. The institutional training domain does more than train and educate; it is where Army doctrine is developed and taught. Doctrine establishes the framework for all the Army does. It provides the basis for establishing standards for tasks and missions. The institutional domain is an extensive resource that exists to support the operational domain.

3-32. The institutional training domain, as requested and as available, provides training products to help commanders and other leaders train their units. These products include the following: combined arms training strategies, training support packages, mobile training teams, on-site courses, distance training, and distributed learning courses.

3-33. Mobile training teams are a particularly valuable resource. They can provide subject matter expertise; help commanders train Soldiers, teams and units; and can develop Soldiers by bringing courses to them. Individuals and units reach back to the generating force for subject matter expertise and for self-development training and education. Army Service component commands prioritize unit requirements for support from the generating force. (See FM 1-01.)
Initial Military Training

3-34. Initial military training provides the basic knowledge, skills, and behaviors individuals need to become Soldiers, succeed as members of Army units, contribute to mission accomplishment, and survive and win on the battlefield. Initial military training is given to all new Soldiers. It motivates Soldiers to become dedicated and productive and qualifies them in warrior tasks and knowledge. It instills an appreciation for the Army’s place in a democratic society, inspires the Warrior Ethos, and introduces the Army Values.

3-35. Newly commissioned officer training focuses on developing competent, confident small-unit leaders trained in tactics, techniques, procedures, and fieldcraft. Newly appointed warrant officer training focuses on developing competent and confident leaders technically proficient in systems associated with individual functional specialties. Enlisted Soldier training focuses on qualifications in the designated military occupational specialty tasks and standards defined by the branch proponent. When Soldiers arrive in their first unit, leaders continue the socialization and professional development process.

Professional Military Education and the Civilian Education System

3-36. Professional military education and the Civilian Education System help develop Army leaders. Training and education for officers, warrant officers, noncommissioned officers, and Army civilians is continuous and career-long. These programs integrate structured programs of instruction—both resident (at a school or center) and nonresident (distance training, distributed learning, or mobile training teams).

3-37. Formal training and education are broadening experiences. They provide time to learn and to teach others. Student leaders can use this time to reflect and introspectively assess the status of their knowledge, skills, and abilities—and how to improve them. Professional military education and the Civilian Education System are progressive and sequential. They provide a doctrinal foundation and build on previous training, education, and operational experiences. These programs provide hands-on technical, tactical, and leader training focused on preparing leaders for success in future assignments. Professional military education and the Civilian Education System teach individuals how to think, helping them become mentally agile leaders.

Functional Training

3-38. Functional training qualifies Soldiers, Army civilians, and their leaders for assignment to positions requiring specific skills and knowledge. Functional training supplements the basic skills and knowledge gained through initial military training, professional military education and the Civilian Education System. Functional courses accomplish one or more of the following:

- Meet the training requirements for particular organizations (for example, airborne or contracting officer training).
- Meet the training requirements of a particular individual’s assignment or functional responsibility (such as language or sniper training).
- Address force modernization training requirements and meet theater- or operation-specific training requirements (such as detainee operations or high-altitude, rotary-wing flight training).

OPERATIONAL TRAINING DOMAIN

3-39. Soldier, civilian, and leader training and development continue in the operational training domain. The operational training domain consists of the training activities organizations undertake while at home station, at maneuver combat training centers, during joint exercises, at mobilization centers, and while operationally deployed. The four areas of the operational training domain are—

- Commander and leader responsibilities.
- Unit training.
- Major training events.
- Operational missions.
Commander and Leader Responsibilities

3-40. Commanders are responsible for unit readiness. Subordinate leaders help commanders achieve mission readiness by ensuring all training and leader development contribute to proficiency in the unit’s mission-essential tasks and meet the Army standard.

Unit Training

3-41. Unit training reinforces foundations established in the institutional training domain and introduces additional skills needed to support collective training. Units continue individual training to improve and sustain individual task proficiency while training on collective tasks. Collective training requires interaction among individuals or organizations to perform tasks, actions, and activities that contribute to achieving mission-essential task proficiency. Collective training includes performing collective, individual, and leader tasks associated with each training objective, action, or activity. Unit training occurs at home station, maneuver CTCs, and mobilization training centers. It also takes place in joint training exercises and while operationally deployed. Unit training develops and sustains an organization’s readiness by achieving and sustaining proficiency in performing mission-essential tasks. This training includes preparing to deploy and conduct operations across the spectrum of conflict. Installations ensure units have access to the training enablers needed to enhance readiness.

Major Training Events

3-42. Unit training is executed through training events. These events include situational training exercises, external evaluations, command post exercises, and deployment exercises. They create opportunities to train organizations and develop agile leaders.

3-43. Major training events help individuals, units, and their leaders improve and sustain their tactical and technical skills. Some units have not undergone a Battle Command Training Program or maneuver CTC experience recently. Commanders of these units use live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers to provide combined arms and unified action training experiences. Major training events let commanders assess their unit’s mission-essential task proficiency. These events also allow leaders to solve unfamiliar problems and hone their decisionmaking skills. Major training events provide opportunities for obtaining observations, insights, and lessons on units’ use of tactics, techniques, and procedures.

3-44. In unified action exercises, leaders learn how to function as part of a diverse team and draw on the strengths of all team members. Actual representatives or role players should represent the joint, interagency, intergovernmental, or multinational participants in unified actions, as well as the wide variety of contracted support present during operations.

Operational Missions

3-45. Operational missions reinforce what individuals and organizations learn in the institutional and operational training domains. Deployments let individuals, staffs, and units develop confidence in the skills they developed during training. Individuals, staffs, and units also improve performance based on observations, insights, and lessons gained during operations.

3-46. Training continues during a deployment—whenever and wherever a commander can fit it in. This training minimizes degradation of key skills and refines and refreshes skills needed for current and future operations. Operational experience confirms or refutes what leaders and subordinates have learned from training in all three domains. Operational missions also require individuals and organizations to learn to adapt to ambiguous, changing situations. Adapting may include modifying tactics, techniques, and procedures based on operational experiences.

COMBAT TRAINING CENTER PROGRAM

3-47. CTCs support training and leader development in both the operational and institutional training domains; they are not a separate training domain but serve as a bridge between the domains. The three maneuver CTCs (the National Training Center, Joint Readiness Training Center, and Joint Multinational
Readiness Center) and the Battle Command Training Program comprise the Army’s CTC program. The CTC program is not a place; it is a training concept that supports an expeditionary Army. The CTCs help commanders develop ready units and prepare agile leaders to conduct full spectrum operations in uncertain situations at any point along the spectrum of conflict. The CTCs are a critical element of transforming the Army. Doctrinally based, they help units and their leaders master the doctrine in FM 3-0. They drive the transformation of training for an expeditionary army. As they help the Army transform, the CTCs continue to transform themselves by focusing on the following imperatives:

- The CTC experience must be demanding—both physically and intellectually.
- The opposing forces and training environment must help drive the development of innovative leaders and organizations.
- Units must be prepared to fight upon arrival at a CTC—just as they would in operations.
- Full spectrum operations—offensive, defensive, and stability or civil support—conducted within the operational themes of major combat operations and irregular warfare—will be the norm during CTC exercises.
- Scenarios must challenge the intellect of leaders and test their skills in a unified action environment.
- The CTCs must leverage live, virtual, and constructive training enablers to integrate unified action partners and broaden the training experience.
- Observer-controller/trainers must have a solid breadth and depth of experience.
- Feedback must focus on output and not on process.
- Feedback must be timely so leaders can make corrections.
- Observer-controller/trainers must know and enforce standards. Restarting or repeating a mission develops leaders and units more than continuing to the next mission when the current mission was not executed to standard.
- CTCs must reflect threat trends and future capabilities.
- CTCs provide assistance to units at home station within existing resources and scheduling priorities.
- CTCs exist to help commanders increase unit readiness to deploy as they progress through each Army force generation (ARFORGEN) phase.

SELF-DEVELOPMENT TRAINING DOMAIN

3-48. Learning is continuous for professionals. Training and education in the institutional and operational training domains cannot meet every individual’s needs in terms of knowledge, insights, intuition, experience, imagination, and judgment. Professionals need to pursue improvement in the self-development training domain as well. The self-development training domain includes planned, goal-oriented learning that reinforces and expands the depth and breadth of an individual’s knowledge base, self-awareness, and situational awareness; complements institutional and operational learning; enhances professional competence; and meets personal objectives. Self-development enhances previously acquired knowledge, skills, behaviors, and experiences. Self-development focuses on maximizing individual strengths, minimizing weaknesses, and achieving individual development goals. Individuals establish self-development goals and identify ways to achieve them in their self-development plan.

3-49. Professionals at all levels continually study Army and joint doctrine, observations, insights, lessons, and best practices. They learn from military history and other disciplines as well. Soldiers start their self-development plans during initial military training. Army civilians begin their self-development plans when they are hired. Self-development plans provide commanders and other leaders a means to improve Soldiers’ and Army civilians’ tactical and technical skills. A self-development plan follows all individuals from position to position throughout their careers.

3-50. Successful self-development requires a team effort between leaders and individuals. Self-development begins with a self-assessment of one’s strengths, weaknesses, potential, and developmental needs. Commanders and other leaders create an environment that encourages subordinates to establish personal and professional development goals. Refinement of those goals occurs through personal coaching or mentoring.
by commanders and leaders. Reachback, distributed learning, and other technologies support self-development programs.
Chapter 4

Army Training Management

This chapter describes Army training management—the process used by Army leaders to identify training requirements and subsequently plan, prepare, execute, and assess training. Army training management provides a systematic way of managing time and resources and of meeting training objectives through purposeful training activities. The chapter begins with an overview of Army force generation and training the modular force. It then discusses leader roles in training management and describes mission-essential task list development. The chapter concludes with a description of the Army’s training management model.

SECTION I – TRAINING MANAGEMENT IN THE MODULAR FORCE

4-1. Persistent conflict, full spectrum operations, and modular force organizations have altered the way Army leaders manage training. Training management is the process used by Army leaders to identify training requirements and subsequently plan, prepare, execute, and assess training. This section provides an overview of Army force generation (ARFORGEN) and discusses effects modular organizations are having on training management. It also addresses new training relationships the Army has developed to support ARFORGEN, including responsibilities related to Reserve Component units. The complementary roles of officers, noncommissioned officers (NCOs), and Army civilians in training management continue in the modular force.

ARMY FORCE GENERATION DRIVES TRAINING MANAGEMENT

4-2. The Army supports national policy by organizing, training, equipping, and providing forces to the combatant commands. The force size and capabilities mix are driven by the National Military Strategy, the Joint Strategic Capabilities Plan and combatant commanders’ requirements. The Army prepares and provides campaign capable, expeditionary forces through ARFORGEN. ARFORGEN applies to Regular Army and Reserve Component (Army National Guard and U.S. Army Reserve) units. It is a process that progressively builds unit readiness over time during predictable periods of availability to provide trained, ready, and cohesive units prepared for operational deployments. ARFORGEN takes each unit through a three-phased readiness cycle: reset, train/ready, and available.

4-3. Units enter the reset phase when they redeploy from long-term operations or complete their planned deployment window in the available force pool. Units conduct individual and collective training on tasks that support their core or directed mission-essential task lists. (See paragraphs 4-41 and 4-55.) Because of personnel retention and historically strong affiliation with local units, Reserve Component units may see less personnel turbulence upon redeployment than Regular Army units.

4-4. Units move to the train/ready phase when they are prepared to conduct higher level collective training and prepare for deployment. Units with a directed mission (see paragraph 4-29) progress as rapidly as possible to achieve directed mission capability. Prior to receiving a directed mission, units focus on developing their core capabilities. In addition to preparing for operational requirements, Reserve Component units train for homeland security and homeland defense missions. Army National Guard units train to meet state-established requirements as well. Combatant command requirements accelerate the process as needed and influence when units are manned, equipped, and trained.
4-5. Forces and headquarters deploying to an ongoing operation or available for immediate alert and deployment to a contingency are in the available phase. At the end of the available phase, units return to the reset phase, and the cycle begins again.

4-6. Both the generating force and the operational Army participate in and respond to ARFORGEN. The generating force supports operational Army training. Operational Army commanders develop plans for training mission-essential tasks. Commanders prioritize resource allocation based on the following factors: time available, training time required, resource availability, and the directed mission. The generating force adjusts level of support to meet operational Army requirements. (See FMI 3-0.1 for additional information on ARFORGEN.)

THE MODULAR FORCE’S EFFECT ON TRAINING MANAGEMENT

4-7. In 2003, the Army implemented a fundamental shift towards a brigade-based, modular force. This transformation, combined with implementing ARFORGEN, has resulted in changes to training relationships and responsibilities, especially with regard to Reserve Component organizations.

MODULAR FORCE ORGANIZATIONS

4-8. The Army’s shift to modular organizations and the need to conduct full spectrum operations as part of unified action have changed the way the Army views training and readiness in units. Army formations are no longer based on large, fixed divisions. Brigade-sized, functional organizations—brigade combat teams (BCTs), modular support brigades, and functional brigades—have replaced the larger, hierarchical ones. (See FM 3-0, appendix C.)

4-9. Units are tailored through ARFORGEN to create force packages to meet specific mission requirements. Force packages often are composed of units from multiple commands and installations. Thus, modular brigades often deploy and work for headquarters other than the one exercising administrative control (ADCON) over them. Senior commanders are responsible for the training and readiness of these units until they are assigned or attached to a force package. As a result, both ADCON commanders and future force-package commanders can influence the development, resourcing, and execution of unit training plans and deployment preparation. However, unit commanders are ultimately responsible for the training, performance, and readiness of their units. (FM 3-0, paragraphs B-25 through B-27, discusses ADCON.)

4-10. Staffs at all levels must be well-trained in the operations process in order to integrate modular formations—or for their unit to be integrated into a force package. Staffs, therefore, require a high degree of understanding of the limitations and capabilities of the different types of units that may compose a force package. Commanders also train their staffs to control, or be integrated into, a force package capable of conducting operations as part of unified action. Staffs must be agile, capable of helping commanders exercise command and control. Through the command and control warfighting function commanders, assisted by their staffs, integrate all the warfighting functions and subordinate units to accomplish missions. (See FM 3-0, chapter 4.)

4-11. Staff training requires frequent training on digital command and control information systems. The staff is a weapon system. As with crews of any weapon system, staffs require training as often as necessary to maintain readiness and ensure their ability to integrate their information systems with other digital systems. Staff training cannot be an afterthought. It must be an integral part of the unit’s training plans. Leaders’ operational experience in staff functions and coordination can help focus staff training requirements.

4-12. Modular formations are more agile, expeditionary, and versatile than previous Army organizations. However, modular organizations require a higher degree of training and operational synchronization at the brigade level. Today’s BCT commanders coordinate and synchronize the training and proficiency of the many functional units organic to the BCT. This is quite different from a maneuver brigade commander’s responsibilities under the Army of Excellence structure. For example, under the Army of Excellence, the artillery battalion was organic to the division artillery and the support battalion to the division support command. The commanders of the division artillery and support command oversaw training for their organic battalions. This arrangement allowed maneuver brigade commanders to focus on training their maneuver battalions. In contrast, today’s BCT commander is responsible for training the BCT’s organic artil-
lery and support battalions. BCT commanders and staffs may need to reach outside their organization for expertise to help them train the functional components of their modular unit. Similarly, functional and multifunctional support brigade commanders are responsible for ensuring their subordinates maintain training proficiency regardless of location. For example, an engineer brigade headquarters on one post with subordinate battalions on other posts is responsible for training all those battalions. Thus, successfully conducting combined arms training in modular units requires agile commanders and staffs. This agility is necessary to ensure that their training strategies result in all BCT units being proficient in their mission-essential tasks.

4-13. Modular division and corps commanders and staffs must be agile and proficient as well. Divisions coordinate the operations of multiple BCTs and employ support and functional brigades. Corps and divisions prepare to exercise command and control of large operations. With augmentation, modular division and corps headquarters can act as joint task force, joint force land component command, ARFOR, and multinational force headquarters. (See FMI 3-0.1.) Army Service component commands require trained and ready deployable command posts that can operate anywhere in the world. Thus, while it is brigade focused, today’s expeditionary Army requires all echelons to prepare for full spectrum operations anywhere along the spectrum of conflict.

**TRAINING RELATIONSHIPS**

4-14. Commanders are ultimately responsible for the training, performance, and readiness of their Soldiers, Army civilians, and organizations. A commander is the unit’s primary training manager and trainer, responsible for training organic and attached components. As an organizing principle, Army units are assigned or attached to a designated headquarters. (See FM 3-0, appendix B.) Although commanders are responsible for the training and readiness of subordinates, commanders cannot meet this responsibility without support from the installation. Installations and other generating force organizations support commanders, not only in training but also in all aspects of sustainment and administration. Training support is a shared responsibility between the higher headquarters and the installation. The higher headquarters establishes training priorities and provides resources, such as evaluators, equipment, and Soldiers. The senior commander, through the garrison staff, provides facilities, logistics, and other training services and support. Installation support to all units stationed on that installation continues when the higher headquarters deploys.

**TRAINING RELATIONSHIPS FOR EXPEDITIONARY FORCE PACKAGES**

4-15. A key ARFORGEN tenet is that home station training responsibilities remain more static than dynamic to minimize command and control turbulence before deployment. Commanders providing units retain training responsibility—even after a subordinate unit is mission-sourced into an expeditionary force package—until the unit is actually assigned or attached to the expeditionary force package. Force package commanders normally influence the training of units projected for assignment or attachment to the force package by exercising coordinating authority, once delegated, with the providing commander. (See FM 3-0, paragraph B-23.) Force package headquarters periodically provide a training and readiness summary on assigned and attached units to their postdeployment headquarters to facilitate training plans for reset.

**RESERVE COMPONENT TRAINING RESPONSIBILITIES**

4-16. Responsibility for training in the Reserve Components has changed little under ARFORGEN. The Reserve Components have the additional challenges of interstate coordination and balancing core mission-essential task list (CMETL) training with homeland security requirements. Command and control of Army National Guard units in a Title 32, U.S. Code, status is exercised by the state governor or adjutant general. U.S. Army Reserve units are under Title 10, U.S. Code. U.S. Army Reserve units based in the continental United States are under ADCON of the U.S. Army Reserve Command.

4-17. Before mobilization, Reserve Component commanders are supported commanders, with support provided by available Army training assets and capabilities. When mobilized, Reserve Component units are attached to a gaining headquarters. Most ADCON responsibilities then shift to the gaining headquarters, which becomes the supported command for training.
LEADER ROLES IN TRAINING MANAGEMENT

4-18. Officers, NCOs, and Army civilians have complementary roles and responsibilities to plan, prepare, execute, and assess training and to ensure training is conducted professionally and to standard.

OFFICERS

4-19. Commanders and other officers are involved in all aspects of training, from planning and preparation to execution and assessment. Planning for training is centralized and coordinated to align training priorities and provide a consistent training focus throughout all unit echelons. In contrast, the execution of training is decentralized. Decentralization promotes bottom-up communication of mission-related strengths and weaknesses of each individual and organization. Decentralized execution promotes subordinates’ initiative in training their organizations. However, senior leaders remain responsible for supervising training, developing leaders, and providing feedback.

4-20. Commanders do more than plan and oversee training; they also prepare and execute both individual and collective training, as appropriate. Officers personally observe and assess training to instill discipline and ensure units are meeting Army standards. The unit senior NCO plays a significant role in helping the commander supervise the unit’s training program. Senior NCOs observe and assess the quality of training and adherence to standards down to the organization’s lowest levels. Commanders check the adequacy of external training support during training visits and require prompt and effective corrections to resolve support deficiencies. Commanders make coordination of training support for subordinate units a priority for unit staffs. Senior NCOs at every level perform these same actions.

4-21. By personally visiting training in progress, commanders and senior NCOs communicate the paramount importance of training and leader development to subordinate organizations and leaders. They receive feedback from subordinate Soldiers and leaders during training visits. Feedback allows commanders and senior NCOs to identify and resolve systemic problems in areas such as the following: planning, leadership, leader development, management, and support. Based on their observations and other feedback, commanders provide guidance and direct changes to improve training and increase readiness. The most beneficial training visits by senior leaders occur unannounced or on short notice. Such visits prevent excessive preparation—a training distraction—by subordinate organizations.

4-22. Warrant officers must be technically and tactically focused and able to perform the primary duties of technical leader, advisor, and commander. Through progressive levels of expertise in assignments, training, and education, warrant officers perform these duties during all operations and at all levels of command. While their primary duties are those of a technical and tactical leader, warrant officers also provide training and leader development guidance, assistance, and supervision. Warrant officers provide leader development, mentorship, and counsel to other warrant officers, officers, NCOs, and Army civilians. Warrant officers lead and train functional sections, teams, or crews. Finally, they serve as critical advisors to commanders in conducting organizational training.

NONCOMMISSIONED OFFICERS

4-23. NCOs are responsible for the care and individual training of Soldiers. Command sergeants major, first sergeants, and other key NCOs select and train specific individual and small-unit tasks. They also help identify unit collective tasks. All these tasks support the organization’s mission-essential tasks. Commanders approve the tasks selected and then supervise and evaluate training along with the organization’s officers and NCOs.

4-24. NCOs focus on the skills and knowledge Soldiers need to develop their fundamental competencies. Mastery of tasks occurs through repetition. This foundation—which includes such skills as marksmanship, protection, military occupational specialty skills, and physical fitness—is essential to unit readiness. NCOs integrate newly assigned enlisted Soldiers into organizations and develop them professionally throughout their assignment. First-line leaders train Soldiers to conduct individual tasks in their squads, crews, teams, and equivalent small organizations. First-line leaders and senior NCOs emphasize standards-based, performance-oriented training to ensure Soldiers achieve the Army standard. NCOs cross-train their subordi-
nates to reduce the effects of unit losses and develop future leaders. Command sergeants major, first sergeants, and other senior NCOs coach junior NCOs and junior officers to help them master a wide range of individual tasks.

4-25. Commanders allocate time during collective training for NCOs to conduct individual training. The time allocated allows for repetition of tasks. NCOs train individuals to standard and understand how individual task training relates to mission-essential tasks and supporting collective tasks. Commanders select individual, crew, and small-team tasks to be trained based on recommendations from NCOs. NCOs base recommendations on their evaluation of training deficiencies. NCOs recommend tasks for training at training meetings. (See paragraphs 4-155 through 4-157.) When the commander approves tasks for training, the tasks are incorporated into the unit’s training plans and subsequent training schedules. NCOs plan and prepare the approved training, execute after action reviews (AARs) during training, and provide feedback on individual Soldier performance during training meetings. For efficiency, Soldiers assigned a low-density military occupational specialty may be trained together by a senior NCO.

ARMY CIVILIANS

4-26. The Army Civilian Corps provides stability and continuity for the Army. Army civilians generally serve in organizations longer than their military counterparts. They provide specialized skills and knowledge in day-to-day Army operations. Normally, Army civilians are assigned to the generating force; however, they are integral to manning, equipping, resourcing, and training both the generating force and operational Army. Army civilians both support and lead Army operations. Army civilian leaders plan, prepare, execute, and assess training of their subordinates and organizations. They follow the principles of training outlined in chapter 2 and use the tools of this chapter to focus the training of their organizations.

ARMY FORCES AND JOINT TRAINING

4-27. Joint training follows joint doctrine. Joint training facilitates understanding of the other Services and of interagency and multinational partners. The Army trains with those partners to better understand their capabilities, limitations, cultures, and ways of conducting operations. When assigned as joint force commanders, Army commanders establish joint training objectives; plan, prepare, execute, and assess joint training; and assess training proficiency.

SECTION II – MISSION-ESSENTIAL TASK LIST DEVELOPMENT

4-28. Because sufficient resources, especially time, are not available, units cannot train to standard on every task needed for all operations across the spectrum of conflict. Therefore, commanders focus training on the most important tasks—those that help units prepare to conduct operations. They do this through mission focus and their mission-essential task list (METL). A mission-essential task list is a compilation of mission-essential tasks that an organization must perform successfully to accomplish its doctrinal or directed mission. Unit leaders emphasize the priority of METL training but find opportunities to include non-mission-specific requirements in training plans where possible.

MISSION FOCUS

4-29. Mission focus is the process used to derive training requirements from a unit’s core capabilities as documented in its authorization document (a table of organization and equipment [TOE] or table of distribution and allowance [TDA]) or from a directed mission. A directed mission is a mission the unit is formally assigned to execute or prepare to execute. Commanders normally assign a directed mission in an execute order, operation order, or operation plan.

4-30. Commanders ensure their unit members train as they will fight by using mission focus to guide the planning, preparation, execution, and assessment of their training program. Mission focus is achieved primarily through performing a mission analysis and focusing training on tasks essential for mission accomplishment. Mission focus is critical throughout the entire training process. Mission focus enables com-
manders and staffs at all echelons to develop structured training programs that focus on mission-essential training activities and address tasks specified for all Army units in AR 350-1.

4-31. Commanders use mission focus to allocate resources for training based on mission requirements. An organization cannot attain proficiency on every mission-essential task because of time or other resource constraints. Commanders build a successful training program by consciously focusing on those tasks most critical to mission accomplishment. They identify those tasks on the unit METL.

**MISSION-ESSENTIAL TASK LISTS**

4-32. A mission-essential task is a collective task a unit must be able to perform successfully to accomplish its doctrinal or directed mission. All mission-essential tasks are equally important. Since organizations must be capable of performing all elements of full spectrum operations, sometimes simultaneously, they cannot afford to train exclusively on one element at the expense of the others. Similarly, they cannot feasibly be proficient in all tasks at all points on the spectrum of conflict. Therefore, commanders use their METL to focus organizational training.

4-33. Commanders and staffs assess the unit’s state of training in terms of the METL. They determine each task’s training priority. Commanders consider two factors when assigning training priorities: their assessment of the unit’s proficiency in each task, and the risk to future operations entailed by accepting a lower level of proficiency on that task. Commanders assign training priorities in coordination with the higher commander.

4-34. The METL provides the foundation for the unit’s training strategy (see paragraph 4-93) and, subsequently, its training plans. Commanders develop training strategies to attain proficiency in mission-essential tasks. All mission-essential tasks are essential to mission readiness; therefore, mission-essential tasks are not prioritized. However, commanders focus efforts and resources on those tasks assessed as needing the most training.

4-35. Commanders exercise a modified form of battle command to manage training. (See figure 4-1.) They determine—

- Tasks requiring training.
- Priority of training effort.
- How to replicate the conditions of the operational theme or projected operational environment.
- Risk involved in not training certain tasks to standard.

4-36. Understanding the expected conditions is essential to deciding which tasks to train, the conditions to replicate, and which risks are prudent. Conditions can be either those described by an operational theme or those likely to be encountered in a directed mission. Visualizing the required state of readiness and how to achieve it leads to developing a training strategy that describes the ends, ways, and means of attaining mission readiness. Finally, the commander describes that strategy in a training plan and directs its accomplishment. By participating in and overseeing training, commanders can assess the state of readiness and the value of the training.

4-37. There are three types of mission-essential task list:

- Joint mission-essential task list (joint METL or JMETL), which is derived from the Universal Joint Task List.
- Core mission-essential task list (core METL or CMETL), which is standardized and based on doctrine and the organization’s mission according to its authorization document.
- Directed mission-essential task list (directed METL or DMETL), which is developed by the commander upon receipt of a directed mission.

Units train on only one METL at a time.
JOINT MISSION-ESSENTIAL TASK LIST

4-38. A JMETL is a list of tasks that a joint force must be able to perform to accomplish a mission. JMETL tasks are described using the common language of the Universal Joint Task List (CJCSM 3500.04E). Joint force commanders select them to accomplish an assigned or anticipated mission. A JMETL includes conditions and standards as well as the tasks themselves. It requires identifying command-linked and supporting tasks. (CJCSM 3500.03B, enclosure C, describes JMETL development and linkage.)

4-39. Army organizations often provide forces to joint force commanders. A theater army, corps, or division headquarters may be designated as joint force headquarters. (See FMI 3-0.1.) This assignment requires the designated Army headquarters to develop a JMETL. The combatant commander or joint force commander who established the joint task force approves its JMETL. Commanders of Army forces assigned or attached to a joint force ensure their unit’s DMETL nests with the joint force’s JMETL.

4-40. CJCSI 3500.01E and CJCSM 3500.03B provide an overview of the Joint Training System. They address—
   - Developing joint training requirements.
   - Planning joint training.
   - Executing joint training.
   - Assessing joint proficiency.

CORE MISSION-ESSENTIAL TASK LIST

4-41. A unit’s core mission-essential task list is a list of a unit’s corps capability mission-essential tasks and general mission-essential tasks. Units train on CMETL tasks until the unit commander and next higher commander mutually decide to focus on training for a directed mission. Then units transition to a DMETL. (See paragraph 4-69.) A CMETL normally focuses unit training in the reset phase of
ARFORGEN; however, it can focus training in other ARFORGEN phases if the unit does not receive a directed mission. Units conduct CMETL training under the conditions found in a single operational theme and at an appropriate point on the spectrum of conflict (for example, midway between insurgency and general war) based on higher headquarters’ guidance.

Standardization

4-42. In today’s modular, expeditionary Army, commanders and leaders expect certain capabilities of organizations assigned to their force package. Standardized CMETLs and focused training conditions at brigade and above help meet these expectations in two ways: they enhance the Army’s ability to rapidly assemble force packages, and they minimize the additional training needed for the most probable directed missions. Maintaining a CMETL training focus provides the Nation the strategic depth required for unforeseen contingencies. Headquarters, Department of the Army, adjusts training conditions periodically as it reassesses likely operational environments. Commanders cannot, and do not need to, train on all CMETL-related collective and individual tasks. (See paragraph 4-52.) Instead, they train on those tasks they deem most important. Commanders accept prudent risks on the others.

4-43. Proponents develop standard CMETLs for brigade-sized and higher level units based on unit authorization document mission statements, core capabilities, and doctrine. Headquarters, Department of the Army, approves—and updates, as needed—these CMETLs after Armywide staffing. CMETLs for corps, divisions, BCTs, functional brigades, and multifunctional support brigades are synchronized to ensure appropriate supporting-to-supported alignment of mission-essential tasks. Proponents ensure the appropriate CMETL is the basis for a unit’s combined arms training strategy (CATS). (See paragraphs 4-94 through 4-95.)

4-44. Most brigade and higher level commanders can find their CMETL in their organization’s CATS. Battalion and company commanders develop and align their CMETLs to support their higher organization’s CMETL. Platoons and below plan and execute collective and individual tasks that support the company’s CMETL. Staffs identify and train on task groups and supporting collective and individual tasks that support the headquarters company’s CMETL—they do not have a “staff METL.” Commanders of units for which a CMETL is not published develop a CMETL based on the unit’s authorization document and doctrine. The next higher commander with ADCON approves this CMETL.

4-45. The CMETL for Reserve Component units is the same as that of Regular Army units with the same authorization document. State homeland security tasks for Army National Guard units are treated as a directed mission and require creating a DMETL. The Army National Guard command with ADCON approves the DMETL for Army National Guard units assigned a civil support mission.

CMETL Components

4-46. CMETLs include two types of tasks:

- A core capability mission-essential task is a mission-essential task approved by Headquarters, Department of the Army, that is specific to a type of unit resourced according to its authorization document and doctrine.
- A general mission-essential task is a mission-essential task approved by Headquarters, Department of the Army, that all units, regardless of type, must be able to accomplish.

CMETLs are supported by task groups, supporting collective tasks, and supporting individual tasks. (See figure 4-2 for an example of CMETL taxonomy.)

Task Groups and Supporting Collective Tasks

4-47. A task group is a set of collective tasks necessary to accomplish a specific part of a mission-essential task. For example, task groups for the mission-essential task “Conduct offensive operations,” might be “Conduct an attack” and “Conduct a movement to contact.” To accomplish a task group, a unit must be able to conduct the related supporting collective tasks.
4-48. Supporting collective tasks are the tasks that make up a task group. The unit’s CATS usually lists supporting collective tasks. Commanders assign training priorities to appropriate task groups based on their assessment of the unit’s proficiency in each task group and the importance of the task group to potential missions. Then they identify specific supporting collective tasks to train. Identifying these important supporting collective tasks allows the commander to establish the tasks that—

- Integrate the warfighting functions.
- Receive the highest priority for resources such as ammunition, training areas, facilities (including live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers), materiel, and funds.
- Receive emphasis during evaluations.
- Support the higher organization’s METL.

**Supporting Individual Tasks**

4-49. Developing an effective training strategy requires crosswalking collective, leader, and individual tasks with each mission-essential task or task group. This crosswalk may involve subordinate commanders, staffs, command sergeants major, first sergeants, and other key officers, NCOs, and Army civilians. Senior NCOs understand the unit’s METL; therefore, they are the best qualified to integrate individual tasks into mission-essential tasks during training.
4-50. After supporting collective tasks have been identified, the command sergeant major or first sergeant, with other key NCOs, develops a supporting individual task list for each collective task. Soldier training publications and CATSs are sources of appropriate individual tasks.

4-51. Some non-mission-specific requirements are critical to the health, welfare, individual readiness, and cohesiveness of a well-trained organization. Commanders select non-mission-specific requirements (for example, some of the mandatory training in AR 350-1) on which the organization needs to train. The command sergeant major or first sergeant usually helps the commander with this.

Identifying Tasks, Setting Priorities, and Accepting Risk

4-52. Headquarters, Department of the Army, standardizes CMETL tasks and supporting task groups for echelons above battalion. However, commanders at all levels determine the collective and individual tasks to train, the training priority of each task, and the risk associated with not training other collective tasks. The intellectual process associated with METL development has not changed from the traditional process; however, now their CMETL provides commanders with a framework for training their units to perform all elements of full spectrum operations: offense, defense, stability, and civil support.

4-53. The supporting collective task lists for each task group can be extensive. Commanders react correctly by saying they cannot train on all the tasks listed. Instead of trying to train on too many tasks, commanders should consult with their higher commander and consider the conditions associated with the assigned operational theme. Lower commanders then focus training on the tasks most important to accomplishing the mission in that operational theme. The higher commander underwrites the subordinates’ acceptance of the risk of not training on the other tasks. Tasks not trained are usually those peripheral to the mission or those the commander has assessed that the unit can perform without significant additional training. The higher and subordinate commanders’ experiences affect their judgment of what to train and what not to train. As discussed in paragraphs 4-35 through 4-36, commanders can use the battle command framework to help focus their training efforts and develop training plans.

4-54. The assignment of an operational theme for CMETL training helps commanders identify the most important tasks. Given enough time, it may be possible to train sequentially on CMETL tasks under two different operational themes; however, training for more than one operational theme simultaneously is likely to be counterproductive. (Appropriate commanders assign an operational theme for training in the training and leader development guidance. See paragraph 4-60.)

DIRECTED MISSION-ESSENTIAL TASK LIST

4-55. A directed mission-essential task list is a list of the mission-essential tasks a unit must perform to accomplish a directed mission. When a unit is assigned a mission, the commander develops a DMETL by adjusting the unit’s CMETL based on mission analysis and the higher commander’s DMETL. Once the DMETL is established, it focuses the unit’s training program until mission completion. Theater-assigned and theater-committed support units perform the same functions whether deployed or not deployed. Therefore, these types of units, as well as units in support of specific operation plans, train based on a DMETL.

Developing a Directed Mission-Essential Task List

4-56. The DMETL development technique helps commanders identify tasks in which an organization must be proficient to accomplish its directed mission. (See figure 4-3.) This technique can also be used by units to develop a CMETL, if none exists for the unit. The technique is a guide, not a fixed process. It melds the directed mission and the training and leader development guidance with other inputs filtered by commanders and subordinate leaders to help commanders determine directed mission-essential tasks. Commanders personally analyze the directed mission and involve subordinate commanders, staffs, and their command sergeant major or first sergeant in DMETL development. Subordinates help identify tasks essential to mission accomplishment. Their participation aids in developing a common understanding of the organization’s critical mission requirements. This understanding allows DMETLs of subordinate organizations to support the higher headquarters’ or supported organization’s DMETL.
Figure 4-3. Commander’s directed METL development technique

4-57. Applying the DMETL development technique—
- Focuses the organization’s training on essential tasks.
- Provides a forum for professional discussion and leader development among senior, subordinate, and adjacent (peer) commanders and staffs concerning the links between mission and training.
- Enables subordinate commanders, staffs, and key NCOs to crosswalk collective, leader, and individual tasks to the mission.
- Leads to commitment of the organization’s leaders to the organization’s training plan.

Directed Mission-Essential Task List Development Fundamentals

4-58. The following fundamentals apply to DMETL development:
- A DMETL is derived from the commander’s analysis of a directed mission.
- Directed mission-essential tasks apply to the entire unit. A DMETL does not include tasks assigned solely to subordinate organizations.
- Each organization’s DMETL supports and complements the DMETL of the higher headquarters or the headquarters to which it provides support.
- Resource availability does not affect DMETL development. The DMETL is an unconstrained statement of tasks required to accomplish the unit’s mission.
- Where directed mission-essential tasks involve emerging doctrine or nonstandard tasks, commanders establish tasks, conditions, and standards based on their professional judgment, guidance, and observations, insights, and lessons from similar operations. Higher commanders approve standards for these tasks as part of DMETL approval.

4-59. During DMETL development, commanders consider how they intend to integrate the warfighting functions through plans and orders to conduct combined arms operations. Commanders employ the warfighting functions to ensure that tasks necessary to build, sustain, and apply combat power are collectively directed toward accomplishing the mission. A warfighting function is a group of tasks and systems (people, organizations, information and processes) united by a common purpose that commanders use to accomplish missions and training objectives (FM 3-0). The warfighting functions are—
- Movement and maneuver.
- Intelligence.
- Fires.
- Sustainment.
Commander’s Mission Analysis

4-60. The starting point for DMETL development is the organization’s directed mission. In some cases, higher commanders may want to identify an operational theme for the projected operation—major combat operations, irregular warfare, peace operations, limited intervention, or peacetime military engagement—to help focus Soldiers and leaders and create a mindset. (Normally they do this in their training and leader development guidance.) This provides the means to coordinate, link, and integrate a focused DMETL and appropriate supporting collective and individual tasks throughout the organization.

4-61. When time is limited, commanders may specify DMETL tasks for subordinate units. Commanders may need to be more prescriptive in their training and leader development guidance as well. When specifying DMETL tasks, commanders acknowledge a commensurate level of risk involved. Risk also occurs when there is not enough time to analyze all aspects of the mission. Those conditions may result in subordinate commanders and staffs failing to include a task on which the unit must train to prepare completely.

4-62. Commanders consider several factors during their mission analysis and subsequent DMETL development. These include the following:

- The unit’s CMETL.
- Plans and orders.
- The anticipated operational environment.
- External guidance.
- Doctrine and other publications.

Unit CMETL

4-63. A CMETL can serve as a starting point for DMETL development, since some of the unit’s core capabilities may be the capabilities needed to accomplish the directed mission. These core capabilities are derived from the unit’s mission as documented in doctrine and paragraph 1 of the unit’s authorization document—the fundamental reasons for the unit’s existence.

Plans and Orders

4-64. Operation plans and orders provide missions and related information that are important in determining required tasks for training. Input for training plans may include—

- Deployment order.
- Execution of a contingency plan.

Anticipated Operational Environment

4-65. An operational environment is described in terms of the eight operational variables: political, military, economic, social, information, infrastructure, physical environment, and time (PMESII-PT). (See FM 3-0.) Each affects how Army forces conduct (plan, prepare, execute, and assess) military operations. Commanders tailor forces, employ diverse capabilities, and support different missions to succeed in today’s complex operational environments. The operational variables form the basis for determining the conditions under which a unit will not only operate but also under which it will train. These conditions, when combined with the standards for the DMETL tasks, help commanders assess unit readiness for a mission.

External Guidance

4-66. External guidance serves as an additional source of tasks that relate to a unit’s directed mission. Sources of external guidance include—

- Commander’s training and leader development guidance.
- Higher headquarters’ DMETL or the DMETL of the deployed or deploying supported force.
higher headquarters’ or the receiving force’s directives.
- Mobilization plans (for Reserve Component units).
- Force integration plans.

**Doctrine and Other Publications**

4-67. Doctrine and other sources can provide additional information relating to a directed mission. These include—
- CJCSM 3500.04E, *The Universal Joint Task List*.
- AR 350-1, *Army Training and Leader Development*.
- CATSs and proponent-developed collective tasks and drills.
- Proponent-developed CMETLs approved by Headquarters, Department of the Army.

**Directed Mission-Essential Task List Approval**

4-68. DMETL approval resides with the next higher commander unless otherwise specified. Commanders of units projected to be assigned to, attached to, or under operational control of a deploying or deployed force coordinate with that force’s commander during DMETL development. The higher commander with ADCON approves the DMETL and ensures that the unit’s DMETL supports the deploying or deployed force’s DMETL. This may involve consulting with the receiving force commander. When Reserve Component units are mobilized, DMETL approval shifts to First Army or the appropriate Army Service component command.

**TRANSITIONING FROM A CORE METL TO A DIRECTED METL**

4-69. At the time agreed to by the unit commander and the higher commander, the unit’s training focus transitions from CMETL tasks and assumed conditions of an operational theme to DMETL tasks and conditions that portray the anticipated operational environment. (See figure 4-4.) Since a directed mission may be assigned during any ARFORGEN phase, commanders prepare to quickly adapt their training and training support systems from a CMETL to a DMETL focus. Organizations undergoing ARFORGEN are notified of an upcoming mission or deployment early enough for commanders to adjust their METL and training focus. A unit begins training on DMETL tasks upon achieving the CMETL proficiency agreed to by the unit commander and the next higher commander. Exceptions include units with insufficient time between operational deployments to train on CMETL tasks, and units assigned a mission significantly different from their doctrinal mission, capabilities, and equipment. Such units may begin training on DMETL tasks immediately upon learning of a new mission.

![Figure 4-4. Transition from a core METL to a directed METL](image-url)
SECTION III – THE ARMY TRAINING MANAGEMENT MODEL

4-70. The foundation of Army training is the Army training management model. (See figure 4-5.) This model provides the framework commanders use to achieve proficiency in their unit’s mission-essential tasks. This model mirrors the operations process described in FM 3-0. There are two primary differences between the two: First, while battle command drives the operations process, the METL drives training management. And second, the training management model includes bottom-up feedback to support commanders’ assessments. While each of the model’s activities is important, successful training largely results from thorough preparation.

4-71. Automated training management helps commanders plan, prepare, execute, and assess unit training. The Digital Training Management System (DTMS) is an automated information system that helps commanders do this. It aids commanders in managing information and solving problems involving training and training management. It also provides links to individual and collective tasks through several sources, such as CATSs, The Army Universal Task List, and the Universal Joint Task List. DTMS provides commanders with snapshot statuses of unit training. It can also produce the following products:

- Long- and short-range planning calendars.
- Event training plans.
- Training schedules.
- Individual training records.
- METL assessment records.

TOP-DOWN/BOTTOM-UP APPROACH TO TRAINING

4-72. The top-down/bottom-up approach to training is a team effort that applies mission command to training. This approach requires senior leaders to provide training focus, direction, and resources. Subordinate leaders develop objectives and requirements specific to their organization’s needs and provide feedback on
training proficiency. They also identify specific organizational training needs and execute training to standard according to the training schedule or event training plan. This team effort maintains training focus, establishes training priorities, and enables effective communication among command echelons.

4-73. Guidance, based on mission and priorities, flows from the top down and results in subordinate unit identification of specific collective and individual tasks that support the higher headquarters’ mission-essential tasks. Input from the bottom up is essential because it identifies training needed to achieve task proficiency. Leaders at all echelons communicate with each other on requirements and the planning, preparing, executing, and assessing of training.

PLAN

4-74. Conducting training to standard begins with planning. Units develop training plans that enable them to attain proficiency in the mission-essential tasks needed to conduct full spectrum operations under conditions in likely operational environments. Commanders determine a training strategy for the unit and prepare training plans. Developing these plans involves identifying and scheduling training events, allocating time and resources, and coordinating installation support. Commanders perform long-range, short-range, and near-term planning. They present a training briefing to their higher commander to obtain approval of their long- and short-range plans. Commanders also request approval of the commander-selected collective tasks that support the METL during this briefing.

4-75. Planning extends the mission-focus process that links the METL with the subsequent preparation, execution, and assessment of training. Centralized, coordinated planning develops mutually supporting, METL-based training at all unit echelons. Planning involves continuous coordination from long-range planning, through short-range and near-term planning, and ultimately leads to training execution.

4-76. Long-range, short-range, and near-term planning all follow the same process. Commanders at all levels assess training, provide guidance, and publish training plans. The only difference among echelons is the complexity of assessment, scope, scale, and form of the training and leader development guidance. Planning begins with two principal inputs: the METL (see paragraph 4-37) and training assessment (see paragraphs 4-186 through 4-210).

4-77. Training assessments provide focus and direction to planning by identifying training tasks that are new, where performance needs improvement, or where performance needs to be sustained. Training assessments provide commanders with a starting point for describing their training strategy. The training assessment compares the organization’s current level of training proficiency with the desired level of proficiency based on Army standards. This results in training requirements that are necessary to achieve and sustain mission-essential task proficiency. The commander, assisted by key leaders, develops a training strategy that prepares the unit to meet each training requirement.

FUNDAMENTALS OF PLANNING FOR TRAINING

4-78. Adhering to the following fundamentals contributes to well-developed training plans:
- Maintain a consistent mission focus.
- Coordinate with habitually task-organized supporting organizations.
- Focus on the correct time frame.
- Focus on organizational building blocks.
- Focus on the unit’s mission-essential and supporting tasks.
- Incorporate composite risk management (CRM) into all training plans.
- Lock in training plans.
- Make the most efficient use of resources.

Maintain a Consistent Mission Focus

4-79. Each headquarters involves its subordinate headquarters when developing training plans. Based on the higher headquarters’ plans, subordinate commanders prepare plans with a consistent mission focus.
Coordinate with Habitually Task-Organized Supporting Organizations

4-80. Commanders of BCTs and battalion task forces plan for coordinated combined arms training that includes their habitually supporting organizations. Commanders of other units deploying with BCTs actively participate in developing their supported unit’s training plans and develop complementary training plans. Commanders at all echelons require subordinates to integrate their training plans and monitor coordination efforts during planning.

Focus on the Correct Time Frame

4-81. Long-range training plans in the Regular Army and mobilized Reserve Component units extend out at least one year. They may cover an entire ARFORGEN cycle. Reserve Component long-range plans consider a minimum of two years or an entire ARFORGEN cycle. Short-range training plans in the Regular Army and mobilized Reserve Component units normally focus on an upcoming quarter; however, their focus may be dictated by a particular ARFORGEN cycle. Reserve Component short-range training plans typically use a one-year time frame. Near-term planning for the Regular Army and mobilized Reserve Component units starts six to eight weeks before the execution of training; Reserve Component near-term planning starts approximately four months prior. Time frames are flexible and determined between appropriate commanders.

Focus on Organizational Building Blocks

4-82. Organizational building blocks include the following:

- Individual and small-unit skills.
- Leader development.
- Battle rosters.
- Staff training.

Individual and Small-Unit Skills

4-83. The individual Soldier is the heart of any organization’s ability to complete its mission. Soldiers first learn to perform individual or leader skills to standard in the institutional training base; however, effective, periodic repetition of tasks in the operational Army is necessary to hone and maintain them. Well-trained Soldiers—grounded in such basics as physical fitness, first aid skills, marksmanship, and small-unit drills—are essential to successful collective training. Commanders should emphasize collective training proficiency of small units—crews, teams, squads, sections, platoons—over company and higher level training. Small-unit proficiency provides the foundation for large-unit readiness.

Leader Development

4-84. Leaders spend much of their available training time supervising the training of subordinates. However, they themselves must also develop as leaders. Leaders do learn on the job during collective training. Nonetheless, commanders need to provide leader development opportunities and challenges for subordinates during training as well.

Battle Rosters

4-85. A battle roster is a listing of individuals, crews, or elements that reflects capabilities, proficiencies in critical tasks, or other information concerning warfighting abilities. Battle rosters track key crew training information on selected mission-essential systems (such as aircraft, tanks, howitzers, automated information systems, and forklifts). These rosters are maintained at battalion level and below. Commanders also track training data pertinent to readiness, such as crew stability, manning levels, and qualification status. Battle rosters designate qualified back-up operators or crewmembers assigned elsewhere in the unit. During the execution of training, crewmembers on the battle roster train with their assigned crews.
Staff Training

4-86. Staffs balance routine garrison duties with operational training. However, a staff is a weapon system. As with any weapon system, a staff requires training to function properly. Staffs provide commanders with the relevant information needed to make timely, correct decisions. Doing this well requires a commander and staff to operate as a cohesive team. Forming this team requires the staff and commander to train together—ideally using live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers. This training helps a staff understand how the commander operates and thinks. Staff training objectives are derived from the collective tasks that support the unit METL. Only through frequent, challenging training on digital information systems can commanders and their staffs become proficient in the intuitive art of battle command.

Focus on the Unit’s Mission-Essential and Supporting Tasks

4-87. Effective training plans focus on raising or sustaining unit proficiency on mission-essential tasks.

Incorporate Composite Risk Management into All Training Plans

4-88. Commanders train their units to tough standards under the most realistic conditions possible. Applying CRM does not detract from this training goal; rather, it enhances execution of highly effective, realistic training. CRM involves identifying, assessing, and controlling risks arising from operational factors and making decisions that balance risk costs with mission training benefits. (See FM 5-19.) Leaders and subordinates at all echelons use CRM to conserve combat power and resources. Leaders and staffs continuously identify hazards and assess risks. Then they develop and coordinate control measures to mitigate or eliminate hazards. CRM is continuous for each mission or training event. It is incorporated into all training plans and is a continuous part of preparation for training.

Lock In Training Plans

4-89. Unplanned or unanticipated changes disrupt training and frustrate subordinates. Planning allows organizations to anticipate and incorporate change in a coordinated manner. Stability and predictability can result from locking in training plans. This stability is crucial to training Reserve Component units, where a disruption or delay in training has a significant impact. For instance, a two-hour delay in the start of training during a weekend assembly represents a 12.5-percent loss in available training time. As much as possible, senior commanders protect subordinate organizations from unnecessary changes. Commanders decide the lock-in period for training plans. Nevertheless, change is a part of any operational environment; good organizations adapt to unavoidable changes.

Make the Most Efficient Use of Resources

4-90. Time and other training resources are always limited. When allocating them, commanders give priority to the training that contributes most to achieving and sustaining operational proficiency levels.

Training Objectives

4-91. After mission-essential tasks are selected, commanders identify training objectives for each task. A training objective is a statement that describes the desired outcome of a training activity in the unit. It consists of the task, conditions, and standard:

- **Task.** A clearly defined and measurable activity accomplished by individuals and organizations.
- **Conditions.** Those variables of an operational environment or situation in which a unit, system, or individual is expected to operate and may affect performance (JP 1-02).
- **Standard.** A quantitative or qualitative measure and criterion for specifying the levels of performance of a task. A measure provides the basis for describing varying levels of task performance. A criterion is the minimum acceptable level of performance associated with a particular measure of task performance. For example, the measure when donning a protective mask is time, and the criterion is a certain number of seconds.
4-92. The conditions and standards for the majority of a unit’s collective training tasks are identified in applicable training and evaluation outlines. A training and evaluation outline is a summary document that provides information on collective training objectives, related individual training objectives, resource requirements, and applicable evaluation procedures for a type of organization. CATSs contain training and evaluation outlines. These can be accessed through DTMS. The following resources can assist commanders and staffs in developing collective and individual training objectives:

- Combined arms training strategies.
- Soldier training publications.
- Deployment or mobilization plans.

**Training Strategies and Combined Arms Training Strategies**

4-93. A training strategy describes the ways and means the commander intends to use to achieve and sustain training proficiency on mission-essential tasks. The strategy is based on the commander’s assessment and discussions with the higher commander. Training strategies include the following:

- Tasks to be trained.
- Training audience.
- Training objectives.
- Order in which the tasks are to be trained, given limited time and other resources.
- Frequency at which tasks are trained.
- Types of events used to create conditions for training tasks.
- Conditions under which the tasks are to be trained.
- Resources required to execute the training strategy.
- Alternative ways of training tasks.

4-94. CATSs are publications that provide commanders with a template for task-based, event-driven organizational training. They can be adapted to the unit’s requirements based on the commander’s assessment. CATSs state the purpose, outcome, execution guidance, and resource requirements for training events. Commanders can modify these to meet unit training objectives. Each CATS describes how a particular unit type can train to and sustain the Army standard. CATSs identify and quantify training resources required to execute long- and short-range collective training.

4-95. There are two types of CATSs: those that are unique to a unit type (a unit CATS), and those that address a functional capability common to multiple units (a functional CATS). Unit CATSs are based on the core capabilities described in a unit’s authorization document and doctrine. The unit CMETL is published in the CATS for that unit type. Functional CATSs are based on standard capabilities performed by most Army units, such as command and control, protection, and deployment.

4-96. Each CATS is a training management tool for commanders, leaders, and other unit trainers. CATSs identify and group the supporting collective tasks into task groups for each mission-essential task. The discussion of each task group includes guidance for training the task group, resource requirements, and training support requirements for each proposed training event.

4-97. CATS training events are iterative to compensate for personnel turbulence, turnover, and skill degradation. Each event’s discussion includes instructions on applying the crawl-walk-run approach to it. (See paragraphs 4-180 through 4-184.) CATSs identify training objectives and suggest ways to conserve resources by using multiechelon training opportunities. Combined with live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers, these strategies can help commanders efficiently achieve training proficiency.
TRAINING EVENTS

4-98. Commanders link training strategies to training plans by designing and scheduling training events. Training events are building blocks that support an integrated set of training requirements related to the METL. During long-range planning, commanders and staffs broadly assess the number, type, and duration of training events required to complete METL training. Included in long-range training plans, these events form the resource allocation framework. They also provide early planning guidance to subordinate commanders and staffs. In the subsequent development of short-range training plans, senior commanders describe training events in terms of METL-based training objectives, scenarios, resources, and coordinating instructions. Typical training events include joint training exercises, situational training exercises, live-fire exercises, and combat training center (CTC) exercises. (For a complete listing, see CATSs.)

4-99. Effective training events are well-coordinated and use mission-focused scenarios. They focus the entire organization on one or more mission-essential tasks or task groups. Leaders concentrate on supporting collective tasks and subordinate unit mission-essential tasks. Well-developed events incorporate conditions replicating the anticipated operational environment. As appropriate, they place Soldiers and leaders in ambiguous, uncertain, and rapidly changing conditions. Commanders can do this during the run and even in the walk phase. (See paragraphs 4-180 through 4-184.) Training should include events that require leaders and units to make quick transitions between offensive, defensive, and stability or civil support operations within the limits of the applicable METL.

4-100. Training events require training areas and facilities. Some events may require opposing forces (OPFORs), observer-controller/trainers, and role players. Other events may need training support system products and services, such as instrumentation and training aids, devices, simulators, and simulations (TADSS). Finally, a training event itself is only a tool to meet and sustain METL proficiency. All training events should be evaluated for their contribution to readiness.

4-101. As much as possible, commanders and leaders at all echelons make the training environment as close to the anticipated operational environment as possible. They include the appropriate level of combined arms, unified action capabilities, and special operations forces capabilities in all training events. A combination of live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers can make the training environment approximate an actual operational environment. By complementing the live environment with virtual and constructive training enablers, commanders can increase the effective size of the training area, incorporate joint capabilities, and increase the realism of the training environment. CATSs can assist commanders in developing training events, including mission rehearsals.

4-102. Large-scale, multiechelon training events should be centrally planned so that senior commanders can exercise and integrate warfighting functions into coordinated combined arms training. For example, BCTs can integrate warfighting functions while their battalions exercise their core capabilities. Although events are centrally planned, training objectives and scenarios should be developed collaboratively by leaders of the levels to be trained. This collaboration helps all units meet their training objectives and focuses training on the right echelons. It also minimizes training overhead.

4-103. Externally supported events, including evaluations, allow units to focus on executing training. Higher headquarters usually provide the following support: scenarios derived from the unit’s METL and commander-derived training objectives, an OPFOR, observer-controller/trainers, role players, and evaluation support. The maneuver CTCs and Battle Command Training Program are examples of externally supported training opportunities that provide combined arms, mission-focused training. Maneuver CTC and Battle Command Training Program events provide training events based on each participating unit’s training objectives. These events are performed under realistic, stressful conditions.

4-104. Sequential training programs successively train each echelon from lower to higher. However, limited resources (such as time) often prevent using sequential training programs. Therefore, commanders structure each training event to take full advantage of multiechelon and concurrent training.
TRAINING RESOURCES

4-105. Commanders use their assessments of mission-essential and critical collective tasks to set training resource priorities. Resources include, for example, time, facilities, ammunition, funds, and fuel. When possible, commanders confirm resources before publishing long- and short-range training plans. Otherwise, resource shortfalls may require deleting low-priority training requirements, substituting less-costly training alternatives, or reallocating resources to execute METL training not resourced.

4-106. Commanders give resource priority to events that support training on mission-essential tasks. All tasks may not require equal training time or other resources. Commanders allocate training resources to sustain the METL proficiency based on their assessments of past performance and current proficiency in performing mission-essential tasks.

4-107. When available resources limit the size or number of live training events (such as field training and live fire exercises), commanders can substitute a mix of virtual and constructive simulation exercises. Using these simulations helps commanders maintain training proficiency while staying within resource constraints. Commanders determine how these substitutions will affect attaining desired proficiency levels and provide this information to the next higher commander. The higher commander either provides additional resources or approves the constrained resource plan.

4-108. Higher commanders estimate resources required to support their training strategies by assessing subordinate units’ fiscal resource projections. Higher commanders complete similar analyses to estimate ammunition, facilities, and other resource requirements. Based on these analyses, higher commanders allocate resources to subordinates. Higher and subordinate commanders discuss this resource allocation during the dialog preceding the training briefing. (See paragraphs 4-126 through 4-127.) Subordinate commanders include the events and associated resources allocated to them in the long-range training plan. Installation Management Command manages all ranges, training areas, and TADSS. Therefore, unit commanders work closely with installation and garrison commanders concerning training resource requirements.

Live, Virtual, and Constructive Training

4-109. The Army relies on a creative mix of live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers to provide realistic training. Live, virtual, and constructive training is a broad taxonomy that covers the degree to which a training event uses simulations. Units perform, for example, field training exercises, live fire exercises, deployment exercises, and battle drills under live conditions that replicate an actual operational environment as closely as possible. This is especially true at the battalion level and below. Virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers are used to supplement, enhance, and complement live training. They can help raise the entry level of proficiency for live training and reduce time needed to prepare training. They can also provide a variety of training environments, allowing multiple scenarios to be replicated under different conditions. Based on training objectives and available resources—such as time, ammunition, simulations, and range availability—commanders determine the right mix and frequency of live, virtual, and constructive training to ensure organizations use allocated resources efficiently.

Live Training

4-110. Live training is training executed in field conditions using tactical equipment. It involves real people operating real systems. Live training may be enhanced by TADSS and tactical engagement simulation to simulate combat conditions.

Virtual Training

4-111. Virtual training is training executed using computer-generated battlefields in simulators with the approximate characteristics of tactical weapon systems and vehicles. Virtual training is used to exercise motor control, decisionmaking, and communication skills. Sometimes called “human-in-the-loop training,” it involves real people operating simulated systems. People being trained practice the skills needed to operate actual equipment, for example, flying an aircraft.
Constructive Training

4-112. Constructive training uses computer models and simulations to exercise command and staff functions. It involves simulated people operating simulated systems. Constructive training can be conducted by units from platoon through echelons above corps. A command post exercise is an example of constructive training.

Gaming

4-113. **Gaming** is the use of technology employing commercial or government off-the-shelf, multi-genre games in a realistic, semi-immersive environment to support education and training. The military uses gaming technologies to create capabilities to help train individuals and organizations. Gaming can enable individual, collective, and multiechelon training. Gaming can operate in a stand-alone environment or be integrated with live, virtual, or constructive enablers. It can also be used for individual education. Employed in a realistic, semi-immersive environment, gaming can simulate operations and capabilities. Gaming can also be used with live, virtual, and constructive training enablers.

4-114. Games are categorized according to their use. For example, a first-person shooter game is an action video game that involves an avatar, one or more ranged weapons, and a varying number of enemies. First-person shooter games can enhance such skills as individual and small-unit tactics, battle drills, mission planning and rehearsal, troop leading procedures, battlefield visualization, and team building. Another game category is the real-time strategy game. These games are played continuously without turns—players act simultaneously. As gaming tools are developed, they provide commanders with additional means to train for full spectrum operations in any operational theme.

Using Live, Virtual, Constructive, and Gaming Training Enablers

4-115. Using a mix of live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers enhances an organization’s ability to train effectively and efficiently. These enablers let commanders simulate participation of large units, scarce resources, or high-cost equipment in training events. Using these enablers reduces the resources required (including maneuver space) to conduct training. For example, properly using these enablers lets commanders perform command and control tasks in a combat vehicle based on messages from higher headquarters, adjacent units, and subordinates without those elements participating in the training. The goal of using live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers is to make the training event as realistic as possible at the lowest cost.

4-116. Brigade-sized and larger units rely more on constructive training events to attain and sustain their proficiency.

4-117. Battalion-sized and smaller units attain and sustain proficiency and develop warrior tasks primarily using live training. They use simulation and gaming capabilities to—

- Improve decisionmaking skills.
- Practice staff drills.
- Refine standing operating procedures.
- Rehearse and war-game plans.
- Practice maintaining situational awareness.
- Develop leaders.

4-118. In general, commanders at battalion level and lower plan, prepare, execute, and assess training events using virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers to—

- Prepare for live training.
- Rehearse unit collective tasks, and squad, team, and crew drills.
- Retrain on—
  - Selected organizational tasks.
  - Supporting squad, team, and crew critical tasks.
  - Leader and individual Soldier tasks evaluated as either “P” (needs practice) or “U” (untrained).
- Virtually expand the training area of operations without expanding the physical training area.
- Perform tasks repetitively under varying conditions to develop intuition on how to execute the tasks.
- Exercise all warfighting functions.
- Increase training realism.
- Allow geographically dispersed units to train as a team.

4-119. Virtual, constructive, and gaming training should be maximized during the reset phase of ARFORGEN. Units usually do not have all their equipment available for live training then. Units in reset should take every opportunity to sustain their digital individual and collective battle command proficiency. Installation battle command training centers (formerly battle simulation centers) are good resources for this. These facilities conduct digital, simulation-driven command and control exercises. Repetitive, simulation-driven exercises can, over time, help contribute to leader proficiency in the art, as well as the science, of battle command.

**Training Support System**

4-120. The Army’s training support system provides resources to support commanders’ training strategies on request. The training support system provides—
- Products—instrumentation and TADSS.
- Services—training support operations and manpower.
- Facilities—ranges, simulation centers, and training support centers.

4-121. Leaders use these products, services, and facilities to provide a training environment that replicates projected operational environments. The training support system provides tools to execute Soldier, leader, staff, and collective training at any location. The system also enables school programs of instruction and training strategies, such as CATSs and weapons training strategies. In addition, the system provides the operations staff for ranges, command and control training capabilities, training support centers, and training area management. These resources help leaders focus on the training rather than the training support requirements.

4-122. The Army is adapting installation training support system capabilities to enable CMETL and DMETL training. Range modernization supports new weapons systems, integrates command and control information systems, and allows units to conduct training using a variety of scenarios. Urban operations facilities and combined arms collective training facilities support training for urban operations. Battle command training centers support many types of training, among them, operator and leader training on command and control information systems, staff section training, command post exercises, and mission rehearsal exercises.

**TIME MANAGEMENT**

4-123. Installation commanders use time management cycles—such as red-green-amber and training-mission-support—to manage time requirements and resources. The purpose of establishing a time management cycle is to give subordinate commanders predictability when developing their training plans. These cycles establish the type of activity that receives priority during specific periods. Time management cycles identify and protect training periods and resources that support training so subordinate units can concentrate on METL training during those times. This predictability helps commanders meet and sustain technical and tactical competence, maintain training proficiency, and support the installation.

4-124. Time management periods are depicted on long-range planning calendars. Typically, cycles last anywhere from four to eight weeks. A common cycle consists of three periods, one focused on collective training, one on individual training, and one on installation support. However, specific cycles and their lengths vary among installations according to the local situation and requirements, such as ARFORGEN phases, unit deployment dates, and installation size and type.

4-125. No one solution for time management exists, since so many factors affect managing time and prioritizing resources. A system that works at one installation may not work at another. Different circums-
stances require different solutions. Therefore, installation commanders develop a system that best suits the installation. This may involve establishing priorities based on ARFORGEN cycles in coordination with force package commanders. Allocation of available training time is a significant resource consideration in Reserve Component planning for training. Limited training time requires Reserve Component commanders to prioritize training requirements carefully.

**TRAINING BRIEFINGS**

4-126. Commanders present a training briefing to their higher commander to obtain approval of their long- and short-range training plans. Creating a training briefing has two steps: first a dialog, and then the formal training briefing. The importance of this two-step collaboration cannot be overstated. Prior to the training briefing, a unit commander and the next higher commander conduct a dialog. The dialog focuses on either CMETL or DMETL training. The dialog’s purpose is to determine the specific task groups and supporting collective tasks to be trained. This dialog helps commanders agree on the following:

- Commander’s assessment of unit readiness in light of—
  - The operational theme (for CMETL training), or
  - The operational theme and projected operational environment (for DMETL training).
- The conditions under which the unit is to train.
- Key challenges to readiness.
- Any nonstandard or unavailable resources required to replicate those conditions.
- Risks involved with accepting a lower training level on selected tasks.

4-127. In the case of CMETL training, the dialog helps commanders estimate how long it will take to achieve CMETL proficiency before the unit begins training on its DMETL. The dialog saves both commanders’ time during the training briefing. It also ensures that the training unit’s plan is synchronized with the higher commander’s vision and Department of the Army’s focus.

4-128. The second step, the training briefing, results in an approved training plan and a resource contract between commanders. The higher commander determines the timing of the dialog and briefing. However, both should be held early enough to ensure that resources can be locked in for the training unit.

4-129. A training briefing focuses on two subjects: how the unit commander intends to achieve proficiency in the CMETL or DMETL tasks identified during the dialog, and the resources required to do so. While each unit’s CMETL usually remains constant, the operational theme determines the training conditions, and the assessment determines the supporting collective tasks to be trained. Those training conditions and the unit’s experience with the mission-essential tasks determine the priority of effort devoted to the supporting task groups and collective and individual tasks. For example, if the unit is to train under irregular warfare conditions, the commander may decide to focus more on collective tasks supporting the core mission-essential task “Conduct stability operations” than those supporting offensive or defensive operations. When a unit receives a directed mission, the two commanders determine the unit’s DMETL and when the unit will transition from CMETL to DMETL training. The two commanders repeat the above process to develop an approved training plan and contract to achieve DMETL proficiency.

4-130. Training briefings produce “contracts,” verbal or otherwise, between the higher commander and supporting and subordinate commanders. The contract is an agreement on the following:

- Tasks to be trained.
- Training conditions.
- Resources required to create those conditions.
- Risks associated with where the commanders are focusing training.
- When the unit will transition from CMETL to DMETL training (for CMETL training briefings).

In agreeing to the negotiated training plan, the higher commander agrees to provide the required resources, including time, and to minimize subordinate unit exposure to unscheduled taskings. The subordinate commander agrees to execute the approved training plan and conduct training to standard. This shared responsibility helps maintain priorities, achieve unity of effort, and synchronize actions to achieve quality training and efficient resourcing.
4-131. As discussed in paragraphs 4-35 through 4-36, commanders can apply a modified form of battle command to facilitate the dialog. Understanding the operational environment in terms of the operational variables (PMESII-PT) is essential to determining the tasks to train, conditions to replicate, and prudent risks to take. Visualizing where the unit needs to be with respect to training proficiency and readiness helps focus training. Describing the training plan (including the time required, training areas, facilities, ranges, and other resources) based on the visualization helps clarify the unit’s resource requirements. Finally, based on the contract, the commander directs the execution of the plan and, as required, assigns responsibilities to each commander.

Example – Commanders’ Dialog (CMETL)

The 3d Brigade Combat Team (BCT), Heavy, of the 52d Division is preparing to redeploy after a year of conducting irregular warfare operations in support of a counterinsurgency operation. The BCT commander, COL Smith, is planning his core mission-essential task list (CMETL) training at home station. His unit will be resetting equipment and personnel and will not have received orders for a directed mission.

To gain approval of his training plan, COL Smith and the division staff schedule a training briefing to the commanding general. Then COL Smith sets up a video teleconference dialog with the division commander to ensure the training plan is on track.

The purpose of the dialog between the commanders is as follows:

- For COL Smith to present his assessment of the unit’s CMETL training ratings. Tasks on which the BCT is fully trained are rated T; those partially trained, P; and those untrained, U.
- To gain the commanding general’s concurrence with COL Smith’s proposed training focus. The focus includes task groups and supporting collective tasks on which the BCT will train to a T.
- To agree on the task groups and supporting collective tasks the BCT will not train at all (and why), and those they will not train to a T—and the associated risks.
- To identify reset issues, such as when unit equipment will be available for training.
- To identify the resources the BCT requires to replicate the operational theme in training events—especially those resources not available through the installation training support system or funded through unit operating tempo.
- To agree on the time COL Smith will receive to reach CMETL training objectives.
- To agree on the means COL Smith will use to assess CMETL readiness.

The dialog allows the commanders to prioritize the BCT’s training efforts to achieve Army force generation (ARFORGEN) readiness requirements, given equipment, personnel, and time constraints.

To prepare for the dialog, COL Smith reviews the commanding general’s training and leader development guidance. The guidance includes the operational theme under which the unit is to train. The theme describes the operating conditions that the BCT should replicate—the typical threats and operational environment of a point midway between general war and insurgency on the spectrum of conflict. Before beginning the dialog, COL Smith accesses the Digital Training Management System to review the supporting task groups and collective tasks for each CMETL task. Then, with his subordinate leaders, he assesses the BCT’s ability to perform its CMETL tasks.
The commanders begin the dialog by talking about the challenges the BCT will face. They agree on how they expect the majority of the unit’s leadership changing during reset to affect training. They also agree on the BCT’s CMETL assessment—one based primarily on the unit’s recent deployment. COL Smith rates the BCT’s proficiency, given the operational theme conditions, as follows:

- Conduct offensive operations: P
- Conduct defensive operations: P
- Conduct security operations: P
- Conduct stability operations: T
- Conduct information engagement: T
- Conduct command and control: T
- Protect the force: T
- Provide sustainment: P

The assessment provides a common frame of reference and helps the commanding general understand the BCT commander’s resource requests. COL Smith’s position is that even though the 3d BCT operated successfully at company level and below, the irregular warfare theme requires BCT-level proficiency. Information engagement skills have matured significantly during the current operation. The commander is confident that the team can achieve BCT-level proficiency in command and control, protection, and stability tasks with little additional training. However, BCT- and battalion-level offensive, security, and sustainment operations have not been trained or evaluated in over a year. Further, the BCT and battalions have not trained on defensive operations for over a year and a half. However, the companies have conducted both offensive and defensive operations during the deployment.

The assessments lead COL Smith to recommend a focus on collective tasks that support the following CMETL tasks: “Conduct security operations,” “Provide sustainment,” and “Conduct offensive operations.” He is confident that he can sustain a T in “Conduct command and control” through one or two BCT-level command post exercises. He believes he can allow “Conduct stability operations” to become a P, since recent operational experience will let him raise it to T very quickly. He also thinks he should maintain “Conduct defensive operations” at a P, since the operational theme does not indicate the likelihood of a threat with near-peer offensive capabilities. The obvious risk in this plan is that it will not prepare the BCT and its subordinate organizations to face an enemy with significant offensive capabilities.

The commanding general agrees with COL Smith’s assessments and logic, and concurs that the risk entailed in not training for defensive operations is low. However, he tells COL Smith that the 3d BCT needs to be able to conduct a mobile defense at the P level.

Both commanders agree that there is not enough time available for the BCT to train on all eight mission-essential tasks (including 21 subordinate task groups), let alone the many supporting collective tasks associated with each task group. The commanders draw on their experience and exercise battle command to understand the situation, visualize the requirements, and decide on a suitable plan. They determine which task groups and supporting collective tasks are most critical to readiness and which ones need training. They also decide which tasks do not require training—either because they are already trained, can be trained quickly, or are a low risk.
After some give and take between the two commanders, they decide to assign the following task groups training priority in this order:

- Conduct an attack.
- Conduct a movement to contact.
- Conduct guard operations.
- Conduct logistic support.
- Conduct a mobile defense.

The division commander also identifies several prioritized supporting collective tasks for each task group. He reminds COL Smith that while mission-essential tasks are not prioritized, task groups and supporting collective tasks are prioritized since some mission-essential tasks require more effort and resources than others.

COL Smith then highlights his significant reset issues:

- The need for equipment for training as soon as possible after redeployment.
- The need to fill certain key positions early in the reset period.
- The rumored shortage of allocations for such schools as sniper, master gunner, and joint fires observer.
- The usual overscheduling of the virtual and constructive simulation facilities.
- When and how new equipment training is to occur.
- The need for mobile training teams to support collective training on digital command and control information systems as soon as possible after new equipment training ends.

The commanding general tasks his staff to provide solutions soon enough to influence the BCT commander’s training briefing.

The commanding general’s training and leader development guidance addresses how best to replicate the operational theme’s conditions during training. For example, the commanding general expects units to be prepared to do the following:

- Face an active insurgency in urban areas.
- Deal with an unfriendly population able to support and generate organized guerrilla or insurgent activity during stability operations.
- Operate in an austere environment with few essential services to support the population.
- Coordinate with interagency and nongovernmental organizations.
- Face an organized company-to-battalion-sized mechanized force.

The commanding general expects these conditions to be replicated during collective training. He states that the division’s 2d BCT can support the 3d BCT’s training with role players, observers, and a battalion-level opposing force. He also suggests that the 3d BCT maximize the use of the simulation center to exercise large-scale staff operations, rather than use troops as training aids during field training exercises.

During the dialog, COL Smith identifies resources he needs that are not available at home station. These include an urban operations site located at another post and the use of a close combat tactical trainer suite, since his installation does not have an urban operations site and the installation’s suite is under renovation.
Because his artillery battalion has operated as light infantry during the deployment, the BCT commander asks to exceed the Standards and Training Commission allowance for 155mm rounds. However, the commanding general says he will make that decision after the COL Smith describes his training plan and justifies the need in the training briefing.

COL Smith also recognizes that after so many months of focusing on counterinsurgency, he will need assistance from the fires brigade commander to train his field artillery battalion on delivery of fires and fire support tasks. The division commander concurs and says he will forward the request.

Finally, the leaders acknowledge that if the time allotted for training is cut short, the 3d BCT may not be able to train all the supporting collective tasks to the agreed on rating. That could result in training “Conduct offensive operations” to a “P” rating, thus diminishing the BCT’s offensive capabilities. They agree that this risk is acceptable since BCT-level offensive operations are not anticipated in the projected operational environment.

COL Smith then states his estimate of the proficiency level he expects to achieve on each CMETL task before transitioning from the reset to the train/ready phase. He bases this estimate on the tasks, training conditions required for task proficiency, likely risks, and ARFORGEN requirements. The commanding general directs COL Smith to train his platoons and companies to at least a T on their supporting collective tasks and to train the brigade and battalion staffs to at least a P on their CMETL tasks as quickly as possible. Accomplishing those training objectives would place the BCT in the best possible readiness status should a contingency mission cut available training time short. The commanders agree that a sound assessment of the BCT’s readiness to transition to training focused on the directed mission-essential task list (DMETL) requires a two-part evaluation: an externally evaluated command post exercise to assess the staff, and a BCT external evaluation. Both evaluations will occur at home station.

The two commanders have clarified the following:

• The BCT commander’s CMETL assessment.
• Tasks the BCT will train and not train.
• The conditions under which the BCT will train.
• Estimates of resources and subject matter experts required.
• Reset and regeneration issues.
• Timelines to achieve CMETL readiness objectives.
• Associated risks to readiness and their potential implications.
• Means for measuring CMETL readiness.

The next step is developing the training plan to achieve the CMETL proficiency the two commanders have agreed to. When the plan is complete, COL Smith briefs the commanding general and his staff to obtain approval and finalize the contract between the two commanders. The commanding general agrees to provide the required resources and protect the BCT commander’s training time. The BCT commander agrees to execute the approved training plan.
Chapter 4

COL Smith knows that he will have to develop a DMETL training plan if he receives a directed mission. He would follow a process similar to the one used to develop the CMETL training plan. The major differences will be that he will have to develop and gain approval of the BCT’s DMETL, determine when the BCT’s training focus will transition from the CMETL to the DMETL, and determine how to replicate the conditions in the projected area of operations.

4-132. Division commanders receive a training briefing from all assigned or attached brigades for which they have responsibility and from the battalions subordinate to those brigades. Brigade commanders and command sergeants major personally present the overview of the brigade training plan; battalion commanders and command sergeants major brief battalion training plans. All habitually associated commanders participate in preparing and presenting training briefings. Brigade commanders follow a similar process internally with their battalions and separate companies.

4-133. Installation Management Command representatives should attend all training briefings. Coordination between commanders and the installation representatives is required to ensure installation training resources are available and properly allocated.

4-134. The training briefing is a highlight of a commander’s leader development program. The briefing gives commanders an opportunity to coach and teach subordinates. In addition to discussing their philosophies and strategies for conducting training and full spectrum operations, commanders may also address doctrine, force integration, and leader development. This interaction enables subordinate commanders and senior NCOs to better understand how their training relates to the mission-focused training programs of their higher commanders and peers.

4-135. The higher commander specifies the format and content of training briefings. However, the briefing guidance should be flexible enough to allow subordinates latitude to highlight their initiatives and priorities. The command sergeant major normally provides an analysis of the unit’s individual training proficiency and discusses planned individual training and education.

4-136. Units should not discuss readiness issues during training briefings unless the issues are training-related. Statistical, logistic, manning, or other management data are more appropriate to readiness review forums. They distract participants from the overall focus of the training briefing.

Training Plans

4-137. A training plan translates the commander’s training and leader development guidance and training strategy into a series of interconnected requirements and events to achieve the commander’s training objectives. Planning documents include the frequency and duration of each training event and the resources required. Required resources and events drive planning considerations. The three types of training plans are long-range, short-range, and near-term. (See table 4-1.)

Long-Range Planning

4-138. The long-range training plan starts the process of implementing the commander’s training strategy. Long-range plans identify the major training events for the unit along with the resources required to execute the training events. A long-range plan normally covers 12 months for Regular Army and mobilized Reserve Component units. It covers two years to an entire ARFORGEN cycle for other Reserve Component units. However, commanders can adjust the time frame covered to meet their needs.

4-139. A long-range training plan consists of training and leader development guidance and the long-range planning calendar. Senior commanders publish training and leader development guidance early enough to give their units enough time to plan, both during operations and in peacetime. Guidance from senior command echelons is critical to developing and integrating subordinate Regular Army and Reserve Component long-range training plans. Therefore, long lead times, consistent with the ARFORGEN cycles, are normal. Each headquarters follows an established timeline so subordinates have time to prepare their
plans. Higher headquarters should give subordinate units more planning time than they keep for themselves.

**Long-Range Training and Leader Development Guidance**

4-140. Training and leader development guidance includes the commander’s training assessment. Commanders down to company level can develop this guidance. Commanders ensure their guidance aligns with their higher commander’s guidance. Commanders prepare their subordinate leaders for the mission at hand and develop them for their next duty position. Unit training and leader development guidance is based on the Chief of Staff, Army’s, training and leader development guidance.

4-141. Commanders refer to the higher commander’s guidance when developing their own training and leader development guidance. The higher commander’s training and leader development guidance forms the basis for the dialog that determines the mix of tasks to train, how much time to spend on training various tasks, and other resources needed.

**Table 4-1. Comparison of long-range, short-range, and near-term training planning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long-Range</th>
<th>Short-Range</th>
<th>Near-Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disseminate mission-essential task list and supporting collective tasks</td>
<td>Refine and expand on the appropriate portions of the long-range plan</td>
<td>Refine and expand on the short-range plan by holding training meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct commander’s assessment</td>
<td>Cross-reference each training event with specific training objectives</td>
<td>Publish event training plans or operation orders as needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establish training objectives for each mission-essential task</td>
<td>Identify and allocate short-lead-time resources, such as local training facilities</td>
<td>Determine best sequence for training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schedule projected major training events</td>
<td>Coordinate the short-range calendar with all support agencies</td>
<td>Provide specific guidance for trainers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify long-lead-time resources and allocate major resources, such as major training area rotations</td>
<td>Publish the short-range training and leader development guidance and planning calendar</td>
<td>Allocate training support system products and services, including training aids, devices, simulators, simulations, and similar resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify available training support system products and services; identify new requirements</td>
<td>Provide input to unit training meetings</td>
<td>Publish detailed training schedules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinate long-range calendars with supporting agencies to eliminate training distracters</td>
<td>Provide the basis for the command operating budget</td>
<td>Provide the basis for executing and evaluating training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publish long-range training and leader development guidance and planning calendar</td>
<td>Provide long-range training input to higher headquarters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide a basis for the command operating budget</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4-142. Subordinate commanders use their training and leader development guidance as a ready reference to perform training throughout the long-range time frame. Commanders determine the period the guidance covers based on the mission and situation. The time frame can span an entire ARFORGEN cycle or part of it. Alternatively, commanders can establish a time frame of a calendar year or more, again depending on mission and situation. Units of both the generating force and operational Army publish training and leader development guidance. Table 4-2 (page 4-30) lists topics this guidance often addresses.
Table 4-2. Training and leader development guidance topics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training and Leader Development Guidance</th>
<th>Long-Range Planning Calendar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Commander’s training philosophy</td>
<td>4-143. The long-range planning calendar depicts the schedule of events described in the training and leader development guidance. Major training events and deployments scheduled beyond the plan’s time frame also appear on the long-range planning calendar. Upon approval by the higher commander (normally during a training briefing), long-range planning calendars are locked in. This provides planning stability for subordinate units. Only the approving commander can change a long-range planning calendar. The approving commander agrees to allocate and protect the required resources, including time. Subordinate commanders agree to conduct training to standard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Commander’s concept for training</td>
<td>4-144. Reserve Component units require extended planning guidance. Therefore, Regular Army and Reserve Component planners forecast major events that require Reserve Component participation up to five years into the future. They include such major events as annual training periods and overseas training deployments. Both Regular Army and Reserve Component long-range planning calendars contain this information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• METL and supporting collective tasks to be trained</td>
<td>4-145. During long-range planning, commanders organize training time to support METL training and mitigate training distracters. (Time management cycles are one technique for doing this.) In addition to individual requirements, such as leave and medical appointments, units may have temporary duty details and other support functions at the installation level. Failure to consider these requirements early in planning can disrupt training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Guidance for conducting major training events</td>
<td>Short-Range Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Resources for training</td>
<td>4-146. Short-range training plans consist of the short-range training and leader development guidance and a planning calendar. These plans refine the guidance contained in the long-range training and leader development guidance and planning calendar. They allocate resources to subordinate units and provide a common basis for near-term planning. When designing training events, planners allocate enough time to conduct the training to standard and time for retraining, if necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Guidance for leader development</td>
<td>Short-Range Training and Leader Development Guidance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Training conditions</td>
<td>4-147. Short-range training and leader development guidance enables commanders and key leaders to further prioritize and refine guidance contained in the long-range guidance. Commanders should publish the short-range guidance early enough for subordinate commanders to develop their short-range training plans. (See table 4-3.) This guidance should be synchronized with the appropriate ARFORGEN phases and should be provided to subordinate commands and installations before training starts. After receiving guid-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ance from their higher headquarters, subordinate units down to company level publish their short-range training guidance.

Table 4-3. Example of a Regular Army short-range training cycle

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Publication Date</th>
<th>Time Frame</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Division, or similar level command, publishes training and leader development guidance</td>
<td>3 months prior to start of training</td>
<td>3 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brigade publishes training and leader development guidance</td>
<td>2 months prior to start of training</td>
<td>3 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battalion, squadron, and separate company publish training and leader development guidance</td>
<td>6 weeks prior to start of training*</td>
<td>3 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct training briefing</td>
<td>At discretion of commanders; prior to start of training</td>
<td>3 + months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*To allow sufficient time for near-term planning at company level before the start of the training; must be synchronized with the Army force generation cycle, when appropriate.

4-148. Reserve Component commanders develop training and leader development guidance the same way as Regular Army commanders do except that Reserve Component timelines are normally longer than those of the Regular Army. Often Reserve Component unit commanders publish their short-range training and leader development guidance as annual training guidance. (See table 4-4.) Additionally, Reserve Component unit commanders develop a plan for postmobilization training. Commanders update this plan concurrently with the short-range training plan.

Table 4-4. Example of a Reserve Component short-range training cycle

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Time Frame</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Division, or similar level command, publishes training and leader development guidance</td>
<td>6 to 8 months prior to start of fiscal year</td>
<td>1 + years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brigade and separate battalion publish training and leader development guidance</td>
<td>4 to 6 months prior to start of fiscal year</td>
<td>1 + years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battalion, squadron, and separate company publish training and leader development guidance</td>
<td>3 to 4 months prior to start of fiscal year</td>
<td>1 + years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct training briefing</td>
<td>At discretion of commanders; prior to start of training</td>
<td>1+ years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4-149. NCOs play an important role in short-range planning. The command sergeant major or first sergeant and other key NCOs provide planning recommendations on the unit’s individual training program based on the commander’s guidance. Their most important duty is identifying individual training tasks to integrate into mission-essential tasks during training execution. These tasks are included in the short range training plan.

**Short-Range Planning Calendar**

4-150. The short-range planning calendar refines the long-range planning calendar and provides the timelines necessary for small-unit leaders to prepare training schedules and event training plans.
4-151. In preparing a short-range calendar, leaders add details to further refine the major training events contained on the long-range planning calendar. Some examples of these details include—

- The principal daily activities of major training events.
- Home station training scheduled to prepare for major training events, evaluations, and deployments.
- Mandatory training that supports the METL, such as command inspections as part of the organizational inspection program, Army physical fitness tests, weapons qualification, and preventive maintenance checks and services.
- Significant nontraining events or activities, such as national holidays and installation support missions.

4-152. The short-range training calendar is coordinated with appropriate Installation Management Command and supporting agencies. This coordination creates a common training and support focus for supported and supporting units.

Near-Term Planning

4-153. Near-term planning is performed at battalion level and lower. It includes conducting training meetings and preparing training schedules and event training plans. Near-term planning is done to—

- Schedule and execute training events specified in the short-range training plan.
- Provide specific guidance to trainers.
- Make final coordination for allocating training resources.
- Complete final coordination with other organizations scheduled to participate in training as part of the task organization.
- Prepare detailed training schedules.

4-154. Near-term planning normally covers the six to eight weeks before the training for Regular Army units and four months before the training for Reserve Component units. In coordination with the higher headquarters, commanders determine which timeline works best for them and their subordinate units. Formal near-term planning culminates when the organization publishes its training schedule. Commanders assign responsibilities and subordinates make coordination for training events during training meetings. When necessary, they issue event training plans or operation orders for specific training events. (See paragraph 4-168.)

Training Meetings

4-155. The single most important company meeting is the training meeting. (See TC 25-30.) Training meetings create the bottom-up flow of information regarding the specific training needs of the small-unit, staff, and individual Soldier.

4-156. Normally platoons, companies, and battalions hold weekly training meetings. At company and platoon level, meetings directly concern the specifics of training preparation, execution, and preexecution checks. At battalion level, training meetings primarily cover training management issues.

4-157. Training meetings address only training. Appropriate representatives of subordinate and supporting units attend. Bottom-up feed of information and requirements is essential to the success of the meeting.

Training Schedules

4-158. Near-term planning results in a detailed training schedule. Senior commanders establish policies to minimize changes to training schedules. At a minimum, training schedules—

- Specify when training starts and where it takes place.
- Allocate adequate time to train all tasks to standard, including time to repeat training when standards are not met.
- Specify individual, leader, and collective tasks on which to train.
• Provide multiechelon and concurrent training topics to make maximum use of available training time.
• Specify who prepares, executes, and evaluates the training.
• Provide administrative information concerning uniform, weapons, equipment, references, and safety precautions.

4-159. Command training schedule responsibilities consist of the following:
• Company commanders approve and sign their company’s draft training schedule.
• Battalion commanders approve and sign the schedule and provide necessary administrative and logistic support. Training is considered locked in when the battalion commander signs the training schedule.
• The brigade commander reviews each training schedule published in the brigade.
• The brigade’s higher headquarters reviews selected training schedules and the list of unitwide training highlights.

4-160. Senior commanders provide feedback to subordinates on training schedule quality. Those commanders visit training to ensure that training objectives are met and tasks are trained to standard.

INSTALLATION AND GARRISON COMMAND TRAINING

4-161. Garrison commanders’ training plans incorporate the following requirements: mobilization, post-mobilization, deployment, redeployment, and demobilization. These commanders plan and schedule periodic mobilization exercises, emergency deployment readiness exercises, and other contingency plan exercises to sustain proficiency on relevant tasks. Garrison commanders coordinate their training plans with their supported corps, divisions, and tenant organizations. Garrisons routinely support scheduled unit training deployments. Garrisons also perform deployment tasks such as operating departure and arrival airfield control groups and seaports of embarkation and debarkation.

PREPARE

4-162. Formal near-term planning for training culminates when the unit publishes its training schedule and written event training plans (when necessary). Informal planning, detailed coordination, and preparation for executing the training continue until the training is completed. Preparation is the heart of training management. Commanders and other trainers use training meetings to assign responsibility for preparing all scheduled training.

4-163. Preparation includes the following:
• Training the trainers.
• Confirming training area availability.
• Site reconnaissance.
• Continuing CRM.
• Ensuring required TADSS availability.
• Issuing event training plans.
• Performing rehearsals and preexecution checks.
• Continuing to identify and eliminate potential training distracters to maximize training attendance.

4-164. Identifying the responsibility for preexecution checks is a critical portion of any training meeting. Preexecution checks include the following:
• Identifying responsibility for training support tasks.
• Monitoring preparation activities.
• Assessing whether training can be executed to standard, given the training conditions.

4-165. Subordinate leaders identify and select the collective, leader, and individual tasks necessary to support the identified training objectives. They do this based on as bottom-up feedback from internal train-
ing meetings. Commanders develop tentative plans, including requirements for preparatory training, multiplechelon training, concurrent training, and training resources. Often these plans take the form of verbal guidance issued during training meetings. When necessary, commanders prepare a written event training plan. All training plans include time and other resources necessary for retraining.

SELECTING AND PREPARING TRAINERS

4-166. Trainers include leaders, evaluators, observer-controller/trainers, OPFOR personnel, and role players. These people are identified, trained to standard, and rehearsed before training events begin. Executing challenging, doctrinally correct, and professional training requires preparing leaders and trainers beforehand. This involves coaching them on how to train, giving them time to prepare, and rehearsing them. Commanders ensure that trainers and evaluators are tactically and technically competent on their training tasks. Commanders also make sure these people understand how the training relates to the unit METL and training objectives. Properly prepared trainers, evaluators, and leaders project confidence and enthusiasm to those being trained.

4-167. Training the trainers is a critical step in preparation for training. Leaders, evaluators, observercontroller/trainers, and OPFOR personnel involved in any training event must know, understand, and be proficient on the standard for each task. All leaders are trainers, but all trainers are not necessarily leaders. A junior Soldier or subject matter expert may be the best person to train a particular collective or individual task. Subordinate leaders may be the trainer as well as the leader of an element conducting collective training.

EVENT TRAINING PLANS

4-168. A complex training event may require a formal event training plan. Commanders issue the event training plan as early as possible. They do this after completing a training site reconnaissance and identifying additional training support requirements with their subordinate leaders and trainers. This plan guides the organization in completing the training event. It identifies elements necessary for the unit to conduct the training to standard. It may be in the form of an operation order, or it may be oral guidance given in the weekly training meeting. Trainers coordinate to obtain the equipment, products, and ammunition needed to support training, based on the site reconnaissance and event training plan. Formal event training plans include the following:

- Confirmed training areas and locations.
- Training ammunition allocations.
- TADSS that have been coordinated for.
- Confirmed transportation resources.
- Soldier support items that have been coordinated.
- Risk management analysis.
- Designation of trainers.
- Final coordination requirements.

INSPECTIONS

4-169. Preparing for training requires inspections to ensure the needed resources are available. Inspections can be as simple as pretraining checks for a training event. Alternatively, they can be as complex as an organizational inspection program that scrutinizes the unit’s entire training program. Inspections also aim to ensure equipment is ready and serviceable, trainers are prepared, resources are available, and safety is a priority. Inspections help leaders ensure the following:

- Their organizations have what they need to conduct quality training.
- Their organizations conduct training to standard.
- Training time is optimized.
- Training is focused on the METL.
- Training objectives are achievable.
- Individual skills and knowledge are improved.
REHEARSALS

4-170. Rehearsal is a critical element of preparation. Often called a “ROC (rehearsal of concept) drill,” it allows leaders and subordinates involved in a training event to develop a mental picture of responsibilities and events. It helps the organization synchronize training with times, places, and resources. A simple walk-through or sand table exercise helps leaders visualize where individuals are supposed to be to perform a coordinated action at a certain time. Leaders see how training is supposed to unfold, what might go wrong, and how the training could change to adjust for intended and unintended events. Commanders and leaders also perform rehearsals to—

- Identify weak points in the event training plan.
- Teach and coach effective training techniques.
- Ensure training meets safety and environmental considerations.
- Ensure leaders and trainers understand training objectives.
- Determine how trainers intend to evaluate the performance of individuals or organizations.
- Assess subordinate trainer competencies and provide feedback to them.
- Give trainers confidence in the event training plan.

EXECUTE

4-171. Training execution occurs at all echelons, from a unified action training exercise to a first-line leader conducting individual training. Ideally, leaders execute training using the crawl-walk-run approach—as appropriate and tailored to the individual’s, team’s, or unit’s needs and capabilities—to build confidence over time and emphasize fundamentals and standards. Effective training execution, regardless of the specific collective, leader, and individual tasks being executed, requires adequate preparation, effective presentation and practice, and thorough evaluation. After training is executed, leaders ensure individuals recover from training and review successes and challenges to apply observations, insights, and lessons to future training and operations.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE TRAINING

4-172. Properly presented and executed training is realistic, safe, standards-based, well-structured, efficient, effective, and challenging.

Realistic

4-173. Realistic training requires organizations to train the way they intend to operate in all dimensions of the projected operational environment. Realistic training includes all available elements of combined arms teams and, as appropriate, organizations or individuals normally involved in unified action. It optimizes the use of TADSS to replicate the stresses, sounds, and conditions of actual operations.

Safe

4-174. Safe training is the predictable result of performing to established tactical and technical standards. Through CRM, leaders at all echelons ensure safety requirements are integral, not add-on, considerations to all aspects of planning, preparing for, executing, and assessing training.

Standards-Based

4-175. Standards-based training complies with joint and Army doctrine and is technically correct. Adherence to standards should not stifle innovation and prudent risk taking. Field manuals, CATSs, and other training publications provide information to facilitate training, coach subordinate trainers, and evaluate training results. Training and evaluation outlines (contained in CATSs) provide information concerning collective training objectives. These outlines also include individual and leader training tasks that support collective training objectives.
Well-Structured

4-176. Well-structured training contains a mixture of initial, sustainment, and improvement training events. It also consists of a mix of individual and leader tasks incorporated into collective tasks. It organizes and sequences training events to allow units to meet their training objectives.

Efficient

4-177. Efficient training makes the best use of training resources. Efficiently executed training makes the best use of everyone’s time.

Effective

4-178. Effective training builds proficiency, teamwork, confidence, and cohesiveness. Effective training allows commanders and their organizations to achieve their training objectives.

Challenging

4-179. Challenging training is competitive. Although individuals and organizations may sometimes compete against one another, they should always compete to achieve the prescribed standard. Once the standard has been achieved, trainers alter the conditions to make the task more challenging. If the standard is not achieved, trainers take corrective actions and repeat the training. They do this until the standard is met. Training is done to standard, not to available time.

CRAWL-WALK-RUN

4-180. The crawl-walk-run technique is an objective, incremental, standards-based approach to training. Tasks are initially trained at a very basic level (crawl), then become increasingly difficult (walk), and finally approach the level of realism expected in combat (run). Training starts at the basic level, beginning with the crawl stage. However, leaders first assess individual and unit training levels. Some individuals and organizations may be ready for the walk, or even the run stage, depending on their experience.

4-181. Crawl stage events are simple to perform and require minimal support. The crawl stage focuses on the basics of the task and proceeds as slowly as needed for individuals and the organization to understand task requirements. Walk stage training becomes incrementally more difficult. It requires more resources from the unit and home station and increases the level of realism and the pace. At the run stage, the level of difficulty for training intensifies. Run-stage training requires the resources needed to create the conditions expected in the projected operational environment. Progression from crawl to run for a particular task may occur during a one-day training exercise or may require a succession of training periods.

4-182. In crawl-walk-run training, tasks and standards remain the same; however, the conditions under which they are trained change. Live, virtual, constructive, and gaming training enablers help provide the variable conditions for supporting a crawl-walk-run training strategy. Ways to change conditions include the following:

- Increasing the difficulty of conditions under which tasks are being performed.
- Increasing the tempo of the training.
- Increasing the number of tasks being trained.
- Increasing or decreasing the number of personnel involved.

4-183. Trainers use the crawl-walk-run approach to determine the amount of detail to include in practice. If individuals or organizations are receiving initial training on a task, trainers emphasize basic conditions. If individuals are receiving sustainment training, trainers raise the level of detail and realism until conditions replicate an actual operational environment as closely as possible. Trainers challenge those with considerable experience to perform multiple training tasks under stressful conditions.

4-184. Trainers conduct training using the combination of demonstrations, conferences, discussions, and practice appropriate to the experience of those being trained. They inform individuals of the training objec-
tives (tasks, conditions, and standards) and applicable evaluation procedures. Trainers immediately follow presentations with practice to convert information into usable individual and collective skills.

RECOVERY FROM TRAINING

4-185. Recovery is an extension of training. A training event is not ended until recovery is complete. Recovery ends when the organization is again prepared to conduct operations. At a minimum, recovery includes the following:
- Performing maintenance training.
- Cleaning and accounting for equipment and components.
- Turning in training support items and ammunition.
- Performing final AARs.
- Performing final inspections.

ASSESS

4-186. In the training context, assessment is the leader’s judgment of the organization’s ability to perform its mission-essential tasks and, ultimately, its ability to accomplish its doctrinal or directed mission. Training assessments address a wide variety of areas, including training support, force integration, logistics, and personnel availability. These assessments form the basis for determining the organization’s training ratings for readiness reporting. Commanders consider the following when making assessments:
- Their own observations and those of subordinate leaders.
- Feedback from AARs.
- Results of unit evaluations, where performance is measured against standards to arrive at the assessment.

4-187. Battalion and higher echelon commanders are concerned with overall unit readiness. Accordingly, they perform organizational assessments that aggregate numerous evaluations. These commanders establish an organizational assessment program that—
- Fixes responsibility within the staff and subordinate organizations for gathering and analyzing evaluation data and preparing recommendations.
- Concentrates on the effectiveness of leader and unit training.
- Uses command sergeants major and other senior NCOs to gather feedback on the individual, crew, team, and section training.
- Allows the senior commander to monitor outcomes and act to reshape priorities, policies, or plans to overcome weaknesses and sustain strengths.

4-188. Feedback is the transmission of verbal or written evaluative or corrective information about a process or task to individuals and organizations. It provides the basis for assessments. Sources of feedback include—
- Personal observations.
- Reports from higher headquarters.
- Staff assistance visits.
- External evaluations, including CTC take-home packages.
- Readiness reports.
- Organized inspections.
- DTMS reports.

4-189. CTC take-home packages provide excellent information for the commander’s assessment of readiness. These packages may include video and written AARs, a report of unit strengths and weaknesses, and recommendations for future home station training.
Chapter 4

EVALUATIONS

4-190. In the training context, evaluation is the process used to measure the demonstrated ability of individuals and units to accomplish specified training objectives. Evaluations are one form of feedback. Commanders evaluate subordinate units two echelons below their unit. Training evaluations provide commanders with feedback on the demonstrated proficiency of individuals, staffs, and organizations against a standard. Training conducted without evaluation is a waste of time and resources. Evaluations can be informal, formal, internal, external, or any combination of them.

Informal Evaluations

4-191. Informal evaluations occur when leaders evaluate their unit’s training against established standards. Leaders follow an informal evaluation with either an AAR or a critique, depending on the nature of the feedback to be provided. An example is a squad leader providing verbal feedback on a fire team leader’s ability to control the team during a movement to contact. Another example is a leader visiting ongoing training and discussing his or her observations of individual and unit performance with subordinate leaders. In all cases, leaders evaluate training against the standard. This type of evaluation provides real-time feedback on the training environment and the proficiency resulting from training.

Formal Evaluations

4-192. Formal evaluations involve dedicated evaluators and are scheduled in training plans. Normally, formal evaluations are highlighted during short-range training briefings. As much as possible, headquarters two echelons higher perform formal external evaluations. Division commanders evaluate battalions, brigade commanders evaluate companies, and battalion commanders evaluate platoons. Feedback usually takes the form of an AAR followed by a written report.

4-193. During and after formal evaluations, evaluators prepare their findings and recommendations. They provide these evaluations to the evaluated unit commander and higher commanders as required by the headquarters directing the evaluations. Evaluation documentation can range from an annotated training and evaluation outline for an internal training evaluation to a comprehensive report for an external evaluation.

Internal Evaluations

4-194. Internal evaluations are planned, resourced, and performed by the organization undergoing the evaluation. Unit-conducted situational training exercises are an example.

External Evaluations

4-195. External evaluations are planned, resourced, and performed by a higher headquarters or a headquarters outside the chain of command. The exercise director is normally two echelons above the evaluated organization.

4-196. External sources should evaluate training whenever possible to objectively measure performance in terms of Army and joint standards. However, self-evaluation of individual and organization performance is just as, if not more, important as that from external evaluators. Effective commanders establish a climate that encourages open and candid feedback.

Training and Readiness

4-197. Training evaluations are a critical component of measuring readiness. Evaluation measures the demonstrated ability of individuals, leaders, staffs, and units to perform against the Army or joint standard.

4-198. Senior commanders and leaders focus on unit readiness by requiring evaluations of specific mission-essential and critical collective subtasks. They also use evaluation results to determine which observations, insights, and lessons constitute lessons learned. Lessons learned are distributed throughout their commands and used in planning future training. (See FM 6-01.1, paragraphs 3-52 through 3-55.)
4-199. Evaluation of individual and small-unit training normally includes every individual involved in the training. For large-scale training events, evaluators usually base their evaluation on the performance of a sample of individual and subordinate organizations.

4-200. An evaluation of training is not a test. Evaluations are not used to find reasons to punish leaders and subordinates. Leaders use evaluations as opportunities to coach and develop subordinates. Evaluations tell organizations and individuals whether they achieved the standard and help them determine the overall effectiveness of their training plans.

4-201. Results of evaluations can strongly affect the command climate of an organization. Senior commanders should underwrite honest mistakes and create a positive learning environment so the same mistakes do not reoccur.

AFTER ACTION REVIEWS

4-202. The after action review is a method of providing feedback to organizations by involving participants in the training diagnostic process in order to increase and reinforce learning. Leaders use formal or informal AARs to provide feedback on training. The AAR provides a forum for structured review and information sharing. AARs allow participating individuals, leaders, staffs, and units to discover for themselves what happened during the training, why it happened, and how to execute tasks or operations better. The AAR is a professional discussion requiring active participation by those being trained. AARs—

- Are two-way discussions, rather than one-way critiques, of the performance of an individual or organization.
- Increase the likelihood of learning and foster the development of a learning organization by actively involving participants.
- Use “leading questions” to encourage key participants to self-discover important observations, insights, and lessons from the training event.
- Emphasize corrective action rather than dwelling on what went wrong.
- Focus directly on attainment of training objectives derived from the METL.
- Emphasize meeting Army or joint standards rather than pronouncing judgment of success or failure.

4-203. AARs are often “tiered” to develop leaders at multiple echelons. For example, feedback from squad or section AARs should be brought into platoon AARs. Feedback from platoon AARs should feed discussion in company AARs. After completing an AAR with all participants, senior trainers may continue the professional discussion with selected leaders. These discussions usually address specific leader contributions to the training. Using this process links training and leader development.

4-204. Some AARs are formal gatherings of unit key leaders. Others are simply one-on-one discussions between a commander and an observer-controller/trainer over a vehicle hood.

4-205. Unit leaders must be trained to complete informal, internal evaluations as well. They must be able to plan, prepare, and execute AARs effectively whenever and wherever needed. Taking too much time between an event and the AAR can cause a loss of learning. This means leaders remain—

- Familiar with their unit’s METL and how it supports their higher headquarters’ METL.
- Tactically and technically proficient in the evaluated tasks.

4-206. AARs should be conducted during training as well as at the end of training events or during recovery. Leader feedback to subordinates during training allows subordinates to take corrective action immediately. Frequently providing feedback gives organizations opportunities to correct deficiencies before a training event ends. If leaders only conduct end-of-exercise AARs, valuable lessons may be lost.

4-207. AARs with leaders focus on tactical judgment. These AARs contribute to leader learning and provide opportunities for leader development. Including evaluator, observer-controller/trainer, and OPFOR performance in AARs provides additional leader development opportunities. These AARs contribute to the commander’s overall evaluation of training effectiveness and assessment of unit proficiency.
4-208. AARs performed during recovery focus on the planning, preparation, and execution of the training just completed. Organizational AARs focus on individual and collective task performance. They identify shortcomings and the training required to correct them.

RETRAINING
4-209. Leaders understand that not all tasks will be performed to standard on the first attempt. Thus, they allocate time and other resources for retraining in their training plans. Retraining allows participants to implement corrective action. Retraining should be completed at the earliest opportunity, if not immediately, to translate observations and evaluations into tasks trained to standard. Training is incomplete until the organization achieves the Army standard. Commanders do not allow an organization to end training believing that a substandard performance was acceptable. In some cases, a “restart” or “redo” of an event may be necessary before moving to the next training event.

EVALUATORS
4-210. Commanders ensure evaluators are trained as facilitators to perform AARs that elicit maximum participation from those being trained. External evaluators are trained in tasks they are evaluating and normally do not participate in the training being executed. In addition to being able to plan, prepare, and execute AARs, effective evaluators also—

- Are familiar with the evaluated organization’s METL and training objectives.
- Are tactically and technically proficient and rehearsed in the evaluated tasks.
- Know the evaluation standards.
- Know the evaluated organization’s tactical and field standing operating procedures.
- Consider such characteristics as the evaluated organization’s missions, personnel turbulence, leader fill, and equipment status.

Not only do individuals and units receiving the training learn from the evaluator; evaluators also learn while observing the evaluated organization.
The glossary lists acronyms and terms with Army or joint definitions, and other selected terms. Where Army and joint definitions are different, (Army) follows the term. Terms for which FM 7-0 is the proponent manual (the authority) are marked with an asterisk (*). The proponent manual for other terms is listed in parentheses after the definition.

**SECTION I – ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AAR</td>
<td>after action review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADCON</td>
<td>administrative control</td>
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<tr>
<td>AR</td>
<td>Army regulation</td>
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<tr>
<td>ARFORGEN</td>
<td>Army force generation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BCT</td>
<td>brigade combat team</td>
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<tr>
<td>CATS</td>
<td>combined arms training strategy</td>
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<tr>
<td>CJCSI</td>
<td>chairman of the joint chiefs of staff instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CJCSM</td>
<td>chairman of the joint chiefs of staff manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMETL</td>
<td>core mission-essential task list</td>
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<tr>
<td>COL</td>
<td>colonel</td>
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<tr>
<td>CRM</td>
<td>composite risk management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTC</td>
<td>combat training center</td>
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<tr>
<td>DA</td>
<td>Department of the Army</td>
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<tr>
<td>DMETL</td>
<td>directed mission-essential task list</td>
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<tr>
<td>DTMS</td>
<td>Digital Training Management System</td>
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<tr>
<td>FM</td>
<td>field manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FMI</td>
<td>field manual–interim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JP</td>
<td>joint publication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>METL</td>
<td>mission-essential task list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCO</td>
<td>noncommissioned officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPFOR</td>
<td>opposing force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMESII-PT</td>
<td>political, military, economic, social, infrastructure, information, physical environment, and time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TADSS</td>
<td>training aids, devices, simulators, and simulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>training circular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION II – TERMS

administrative control
(joint) Direction or exercise of authority over subordinate or other organizations in respect to administration and support, including organization of Service forces, control of resources and equipment, personnel management, unit logistics, individual and unit training, readiness, mobilization, demobilization, discipline, and other matters not included in the operational missions of the subordinate or other organizations. (JP 1)

*after action review
A method of providing feedback to organizations by involving participants in the training diagnostic process in order to increase and reinforce learning.

ARFOR
The Army Service component headquarters for a joint task force or a joint and multinational force. (FM 3-0)

Army Service component command
(joint) Command responsible for recommendations to the joint force commander on the allocation and employment of Army forces within a combatant command. (JP 3-31)

*assessment
In the training context, the leader’s judgment of the organization’s ability to perform its mission-essential tasks and, ultimately, its ability to accomplish its doctrinal or directed mission.

battle command
The art and science of understanding, visualizing, describing, directing, leading, and assessing forces to impose the commander’s will on a hostile, thinking, and adaptive enemy. Battle command applies leadership to translate decisions into actions—by synchronizing forces and warfighting functions in time, space, and purpose—to accomplish missions. (FM 3-0)

*battle roster
A listing of individuals, crews, or elements that reflects capabilities, proficiencies in critical tasks, or other information concerning warfighting abilities.

composite risk management
The decisionmaking process for identifying and assessing hazards, developing and implementing risk mitigation actions to control risk across the full spectrum of Army missions, functions, operations, and activities. (FM 5-19)

condition
(joint) Those variables of an operational environment or situation in which a unit, system, or individual is expected to operate and may affect performance. (JP 1-02)

*core capability mission-essential task
A mission-essential task approved by Headquarters, Department of the Army, that is specific to the a type of unit resourced according to its authorization document and doctrine.

*core mission-essential task list
A list of a unit’s core capability mission-essential tasks and general mission-essential tasks.

*directed mission
A mission a unit is formally tasked to execute or prepare to execute.

*directed mission-essential task list
A list of mission-essential tasks that must be performed to accomplish a directed mission.
*evaluation
In the training context, the process used to measure the demonstrated ability of individuals and units to accomplish specified training objectives.

*feedback
The transmission of verbal or written evaluative or corrective information about a process or task to individuals and organizations.

*gaming
The use of technology employing commercial or government off-the-shelf, multigenre games in a realistic, semi-immersive environment to support education and training.

*general mission-essential task
A mission-essential task approved by Headquarters, Department of the Army, that all units, regardless of type, must be able to accomplish.

generating force
Those Army organizations whose primary mission is to generate and sustain the operational Army’s capabilities for employment by joint force commanders. (FM 1-01)

*institutional training domain
The Army’s institutional training and education system, which primarily includes training base centers and schools that provide initial training and subsequent professional military education for Soldiers, military leaders, and Army civilians.

measure of effectiveness
(joint) A criterion used to assess changes in system behavior, capacity, or operational environment that is tied to measuring the attainment of an end state, achievement of an objective, or creation of an effect. (JP 3-0)

mission
(joint) 1. The task, together with the purpose, that clearly indicates the action to be taken and the reason therefor. 2. In common usage, especially when applied to lower military organizations, a duty assigned to an individual or organization; a task. (JP 1-02)

mission command
The conduct of military operations through decentralized execution based on mission orders. Successful mission command demands that subordinate leaders at all echelons exercise disciplined initiative, acting aggressively and independently to accomplish the mission within the commander’s intent. (FM 3-0)

*mission-essential task
A collective task a unit must be able to perform successfully in order to accomplish its doctrinal or directed mission.

*mission-essential task list
A compilation of mission-essential tasks that an organization must perform successfully to accomplish its doctrinal or directed missions.

*mission focus
The process used to derive training requirements from a unit’s core capabilities as documented in its authorization document or from a directed mission.

mission orders
A technique for developing orders that emphasizes to subordinates the results to be attained, not how they are to achieve them. It provides maximum freedom of action in determining how to best accomplish assigned missions. (FM 3-0)
multi-echelon training
A training technique that allows for the simultaneous training of more than one echelon on different or complementary tasks.

operational Army
Those Army organizations whose primary purpose is to participate in full spectrum operations as part of the joint force. (FM 1-01)

operational environment
(joint) A composite of the conditions, circumstances, and influences that affect the employment of capabilities and bear on the decisions of the commander. (JP 3-0)

operational theme
The character of the dominant major operation being conducted at any time within a land force commander’s area of operations. The operational theme helps convey the nature of the major operation to the force to facilitate common understanding of how the commander broadly intends to operate. (FM 3-0)

operational training domain
The training activities organizations undertake while at home station, at maneuver combat training centers, during joint exercises, at mobilization centers, and while operationally deployed.

self-development training domain
Planned, goal-oriented learning that reinforces and expands the depth and breadth of an individual’s knowledge base, self-awareness, and situational awareness; complements institutional and operational learning; enhances professional competence; and meets personal objectives.

standard
A quantitative or qualitative measure and criterion for specifying the levels of performance of a task.

task
A clearly defined and measurable activity accomplished by individuals and organizations.

task group
A set of collective tasks necessary to accomplish a specific part of a mission-essential task.

training and evaluation outline
A summary document that provides information on collective training objectives, related individual training objectives, resource requirements, and applicable evaluation procedures for a type of organization.

training management
The process used by Army leaders to identify training requirements and subsequently plan, prepare, execute, and assess training.

training objective
A statement that describes the desired outcome of a training activity in the unit. It consists of the task, conditions, and standard.

unified action
(joint) The synchronization, coordination, and/or integration of the activities of governmental and nongovernmental entities with military operations to achieve unity of effort. (JP 1)

warfighting function
A group of tasks and systems (people, organizations, information, and processes) united by a common purpose that commanders use to accomplish missions and training objectives. (FM 3-0)
References

Field manuals and selected joint publications are listed by new number followed by old number.

REQUIRED PUBLICATIONS
These documents must be available to intended users of this publication.


RELATED PUBLICATIONS
These documents contain relevant supplemental information.

JOINT AND DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE PUBLICATIONS
Most joint publications are available online: http://www.dtic.mil/doctrine/jpcapstonepubs.htm.

CJCSM 3500.03B. Joint Training Manual for the Armed Forces of the United States. 31 August 2007.

ARMY PUBLICATIONS
Most Army doctrinal publications are available online: https://akocomm.us.army.mil/usapa/doctrine/Active_FM.html. Army regulations are produced only in electronic media. Most are available online: http://www.army.mil/usapa/epubs/index.html.

AR 350-1. Army Training and Leader Development. 3 August 2007.
FM 3-0. Operations. 27 February 2008.
FM 6-0. Mission Command: Command and Control of Army Forces. 11 August 2003.
FM 6-01.1. Knowledge Management Section. 29 August 2008.
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**PRESCRIBED FORMS**

None

**REFERENCED FORMS**

None

**SOURCES USED**

(Field Marshal Rommel’s observation cited in paragraph 1-22 is taken from page 186b.)
### Index

Entries are by paragraph number unless specified otherwise.

| A | Army leaders, characteristics of, 3-21, 3-24–3-25 |
|   | Army National Guard. See Reserve Component (units). |
|   | Army Reserve. See Reserve Components. |
|   | Army Safety Program, composite risk management and, 2-39 |
|   | Army Service component commands, 4-13 training priorities and, 3-33 |
|   | Army Values, 2-18, 3-2, 3-21 initial military training, 3-34 leader development and, 3-22 art of command, 1-33, 2-15 assessment, crawl-walk-run and, 3-6, 4-180 defined, 4-186 individual development and, 3-23 major training events and, 3-43 NCOs and, 2-20 planning and, 4-76, 4-77 preexecution checks and, 4-164 self-development and, 3-26 setting resource priorities and, 4-105–4-106 supporting collective tasks and, 4-129 training and leader development guidance and, 4-140 training priorities, and assigning, 4-33 training quality, of, 4-20 training strategy and, 4-77 training subordinates to, 2-24 authorization documents, types of, 4-29 available (ARFORGEN phase), 4-5 |
| B | Basing strategy, 1-12 battle command, 1-15 |
|   | Army training management model, in, 4-70 defined, 2-63 planning and, 4-131 simulations and, 4-119 staffs and, 4-86 training in, 2-63–2-65, 4-86 training management and, 4-35–4-36, figure 4-1 battle command training centers, 4-119, 4-122 Battle Command Training Program, 3-47, 4-103 battle drills, 2-28, 2-71, 3-27 battle roster, defined, 4-85 branch schools, role of, 3-28 brigade combat team, maneuver brigade, training responsibilities compared, 4-12 building blocks, organizational, planning and, 4-82–4-86 |
| C | Campaign capability, 1-12, 1-25 catastrophic threats, 1-7 civil support, DMETL approval for directed mission of, 4-45 civil support operations, 1-17 proficiency in, 2-31 training for, 1-30 Civilian Education System, 3-16, 3-20, 3-36–3-37, 3-38 climate, unit, 2-15 CMETL, 4-41–4-54 core skills and, 2-52 defined, 4-41 development of, 4-43–4-44, 4-56 dialog and, 4-126, 4-127 DMETL development and, 4-63 effect on training, 1-39 establishment of, 1-36 training during deployment and, 2-41 transition to DMETL and, 4-69, figure 4-4 |
|   | Army civilian(s), 3-27 institutional training domain and, 3-12 leaders, 3-24 operational training domain and, 3-14 role in developing training strategy, 4-50 role in training management, 4-26 self-development plans and, 3-49 training of, 3-20 ARFORGEN, long-range planning and, 4-81 short-range planning and, 4-81, 4-147 time management cycles and, 4-125 training and leader development guidance and, 4-142 training management and, 4-2–4-6 |
Entries are by paragraph number unless otherwise specified.

collective tasks, selecting, 4-165
collective training, 3-41
    leader development and, 4-84
combat training center program,
    2-68, 3-13, 3-47, 4-103
combat training center take-home
    packages, 4-188, 4-189
combined arms, 4-173
    training enablers and, 3-43
combined arms collective training
    facilities, 4-122
combined arms operations, training
    for, 2-25–2-27
combined arms training, 4-80
    combined arms collective training
        facilities, 4-122
    combined arms operations, train-
        ing for, 2-25–2-27
    combined arms training, 4-80
    combined arms training strategy(ies)
        (CATSs), 4-93–4-97
   CMETL and, 4-43
    DMETL development and, 4-67
        standards and, 2-43, 4-175
        supporting collective tasks and, 4-48
        training and evaluation outlines
            and, 4-92
        training enablers and, 4-97
        training events and, 4-98,
            4-101
    command and control, effective,
        1-15
    command and control information
        systems, staff training on, 4-11
    command and control system,
        2-54
    command climate, external evalu-
        ations and, 4-196, 4-201
    commanders, responsibilities of,
        2-2–2-16
        staff training and, 4-86
        training of, 2-36
    competencies, required of leaders,
        1-42
    composite risk management,
        4-163
        DMETL development and, 4-61
        event training plans, and, 4-168
        integrating into training, 2-37– 2-39
        operations, in, 2-39
        planning and, 4-88
        preparation and, 4-88
        safety and, 4-174
        stewardship of resources and, 2-57
        task selection and, 4-53
        training and, 2-5, 2-16
    concurrent training, 2-60–2-61,
        4-104
        preparation and, 4-165
        conditions, crawl-walk-run and, 4-182
            defined, 4-91
        constructive training, 4-112, 4-116
        continuous operations, training for, 2-35
        contract, training briefings and,
            4-130
    core capability mission-essential
        task, defined, 4-46
    core METL. See CMETL.
    corps, 4-13
    crawl-walk-run, 2-28, 3-6, 4-171,
        4-180–4-184
        training events and, 4-99
    critical thinking, developing, 3-28
    critiques, informal evaluations
        and, 4-191
    cross-training, 2-21
    crosswalk, training strategy and,
        4-49–4-51
    culture, institutional, 2-26
    unit, 2-15

D
decisionmaking, effective, 1-15
    training in, 2-64–2-65
    training subordinates to, 2-24
demobilization training plans,
    4-161
Department of the Army, role in
    training management, 1-36– 1-37
deployment, long-range planning
    calendar and, 4-143
    training and leader develop-
        ment during, 2-11
    training during, 2-41, 3-45– 3-46
    deployment training plans, 4-161
    deterrence, 1-5
dialog, training and leader devel-
    opment guidance and, 4-141
    training briefing and, 1-39, 4-126–4-127
Digital Training Management Sys-
    tem. See DTMS.
directed mission, defined, 4-29
    DMETL development and, 4-60
    homeland security tasks and, 4-45
directed mission-essential task
    list. See DMETL.
discipline, 3-2
    training in, 2-14
distruptive threats, 1-8
distance training, 3-32, 3-36
distributed learning, 3-32, 3-36
divisions, 4-13
DMETL, approval of, 4-68
    defined, 4-55
    developing, 4-56–4-67, figure
        4-3
dialog and, 4-126, 4-127
    homeland security tasks and,
        4-45
    JMETL and, 4-39
    theater support units, for, 4-55
time-constrained conditions,
    developing under, 4-61
    training during deployment
        and, 2-41
    transition from CMETL to,
        4-41, 4-69, figure 4-4
doctrine, combat training center
    program and, 3-47
    DMETL development and, 4-58
    establishing standards and, 2-45
    institutional training domain
        and, 3-31
    standards and, 3-31
    drills, 2-28
    DTMS, 4-71
    training and evaluation outlines
        and, 4-92

E–F
education, leader development
    and, 2-69
    training, compared with, 3-5– 3-9
evacuation readiness readiness,
    exercises, 4-161
    evaluation(s), 4-103, 4-190–4-196
        defined, 4-190
        readiness and, 4-197
evaluators, 4-210
event training plan(s), 4-72, 4-162,
    4-168
    preparation and, 4-165
    short-range planning calendar
        and, 4-150
    execution, 4-171
    expeditionary capability, 1-25
    expeditionary force packages. See
        force packages.
expeditionary mindset, developing, 2-68
facilities, 4-120
training events and, 4-100
feedback, 2-74, 4-188
after action reviews and, 4-203
assessment and, 4-186
external evaluations and, 4-196
formal evaluations and, 4-192
individual development and, 3-23
informal evaluations and, 4-191
means of, 2-15
NCOs and, 2-20, 4-25
task selection and, 4-165
training schedules, on, 4-160
training visits and, 4-21
first-line leaders, role in training, 4-24
first-person shooter games, 4-114
force integration plans, DMETL development and, 4-66
force packages, 4-9
CMETLs and, 4-42
training relationships for, 4-15
full spectrum operations, 1-14–1-17. See also operational concept.
institutional training domain and, 3-31
nonlethal skills and, 2-23
training events and, 4-99
training for, 1-35–1-38, 2-35
functional brigades, 4-13
functional combined arms training strategies (CATSs), 4-95
functional training, 3-38
future conflict, nature of, 1-9–1-11
G

gaming, 4-113–4-114, 4-117. See also training enablers.
defined, 4-113
garrison command training, 4-161
garrison commanders, resources and, 4-108
general mission-essential task, defined, 4-46

generating force, ARFORGEN and, 4-6
Armyleanisse and, 3-14
defined, 1-43
institutional training domain and, 3-27
role of, 1-43
self-development and, 3-33
training and, 3-11
training and leader development guidance and, 4-142
graduate schools, role of, 3-28
H–I

home station training, short-range planning calendar and, 4-151
homeland defense, ARFORGEN and, 4-4
homeland security, ARFORGEN and, 4-4
METLs and, 4-45
human-in-the-loop training, 4-111
individual skills, planning and, 4-83
near-term training plan and,
2-20
selecting, 4-165
short-range training plan and, 2-20
individual training, evaluations of, 4-199
training briefings and, 4-135
training management and, 4-25
information engagement, 1-19
information environment, 1-19
information requirements, battle command and, 2-65
initial military training, 3-27, 3-34–3-35, 3-38
officers, for, 3-35
self-development plans and, 3-49
warrant officers, for, 3-35
initiative, developing, 2-8–2-9, 2-21, 2-33, 2-67
multitechnology and concurrent training and, 2-61
rewarding, 2-72
training execution and, 4-19
inspections, 2-14, 4-169
installation command training, 4-161
installation commanders, resources and, 4-108
Installation Management Command, responsibilities of, 4-108
short-range planning calendar and, 4-152
training briefings and, 4-133
installations, training support responsibilities of, 4-14
unit training and, 3-41
institutional Army, role of, 1-43
institutional training, expeditionary mindset and, 2-68
institutional training domain, 3-11–3-12, 3-27–3-38
combat training center program and, 3-47
components of, 3-30
defined, 3-27
self-development and, 3-15, 3-19
instruments of national power, 1-12
intelligence, training and, 1-40
intuition, developing, 2-71, 3-7
irregular threats, 1-6
J–K–L

JMETL, 4-38–4-40
joint interdependence, institutional culture and, 2-26
joint mission-essential task list, 4-38–4-40
Joint Multinational Training Center, 3-47
Joint Readiness Training Center, 3-47
Joint Training System, 4-40
law of war, 1-21, 1-28
leader, standards and, 2-43
leader development, 4-84
after action reviews and, 4-207
foundations of, 3-21–3-25
NCOs and, 2-21–2-22
responsibility for, 2-6
training briefings and, 4-134
leader presence, 2-53, 3-21
leader tasks, selecting, 4-165
learning organizations, 1-22–1-24
after action reviews and, 2-74, 4-202
creating, 2-72–2-73
learning while operating, 2-73
lessons learned, evaluations and, 4-198
level of force, training and, 2-35
live training, 4-110
live, virtual, and constructive training, taxonomy of, 4-109. See also training enablers.
Entries are by paragraph number unless otherwise specified.

long-range plan(ing), 4-76, 4-81, 4-138–4-145
ARFORGEN and, 4-81
mobilized Reserve Component
units, for, 4-81
resources and, 4-105
resources and, 4-108
time frame of, 4-138
training events and, 4-98
long-range planning calendars, 4-71, 4-143–4-145
time management periods and, 4-124
maintenance, equipment, of, 2-49
systems, of, 2-50
training and, 2-47–2-50
major combat operations, 1-12, 2-31
major training events, 3-42–3-44
mandatory training, short-range planning calendar and, 4-151
training strategy and, 4-51
maneuver combat training centers, 4-103. See also combat training center program.
measures of performance, standards and, 2-43
METL, 2-3, 2-30, 4-32–4-37. See also CMETL, DMETL, JMETL.
after action reviews and, 4-202
Army training management model, and, 4-70
defined, 4-28
staff training objectives and, 4-86
types of, 4-37
METT-TC, 2-63
military bearing, 3-21
mission analysis, DMETL development and, 4-60–4-67
mission command, 3-24
defined, 2-8–2-9
training and, 2-5, 2-8–2-9
training environments and, 2-33
training in, 1-29, 2-66–2-67
mission-essential task list. See METL.
mission-essential task(s), defined, 4-32
individual tasks and, 3-11
mission focus, 4-29–4-31
defined, 4-29
planning and, 4-75, 4-79
training events and, 4-99
mission orders, defined, 2-66
mission variables, 2-63
mission-essential task list. See METL.
mobile training teams, 3-32, 3-33, 3-36
mobilization plans, DMETL development and, 4-66
mobilization training plans, 4-161
modular corps, 4-13
modular divisions, 4-13
modular force (units), Army of Excellence structure, training responsibilities compared, 4-12–4-13
effect on training management, 4-7–4-17
factors affecting training of, 1-44
organizations, 4-8–4-13
multiechelon training, 2-58–2-61, 4-102, 4-104
defined, 2-58
preparation and, 4-165
N
National Guard. See Reserve Component (units).
National Training Center, 3-47
NCOs, 2-3
responsibilities of, 2-17–2-22
role in developing training strategy, 4-50
role in training management, 4-20
short-range planning and, 4-149
near-term plan(ning), 4-76, 4-81, 4-153–4-160
individual tasks and, 2-20
mobilized Reserve Component units, for, 4-81
NCOs and, 2-20
noncommissioned officers. See NCOs.
nonlethal capabilities, 1-19
nonlethal effects, 1-16
nonlethal skills, 2-23
non-mission-specific requirements, individual tasks and, 4-51

O
observations, insights, and lessons, establishing standards and, 2-45
major training events and, 3-43
officers, role in training management, 4-19–4-22
on-site courses, 3-32
operation orders, event training plans, as, 4-168
operational Army, ARFORGEN and, 4-6
Army civilians and, 3-14
defined, 1-43
training and leader development guidance and, 4-142
operational concept, 1-12, page 1-1. See also full spectrum operations.
operational environment(s), change and, 4-89
defined, 1-2
DMETL development and, 4-65
effects of, 1-12–1-24
factors shaping, 1-1
future, 1-2–1-3
resources and, 4-122
training enablers and, 4-101
operational missions, 1-38, 3-45–3-46
operational theme, DMETL development and, 4-60
task selection and, 4-53–4-54
training conditions and, 4-129
operational training domain, 3-13–3-14, 3-38–3-46
combat training center program and, 3-47
defined, 3-39
institutional training domain and, 3-27
self-development and, 3-15, 3-19
operational variables, 2-63
DMETL development and, 4-65
planning and, 4-131
training during deployment and, 2-41
operations process, Army training management model, compared, 4-70
organizational assessment program, 4-187
organizational climate, learning and, 2-72
Entries are by paragraph number unless specified otherwise.

**P–Q**
- performance counseling, 2-15
- performance-oriented training, 2-29
- planning, composite risk management and, 4-88
- fundamentals of, 4-78–4-90
- inputs to, 4-76
- mission focus and, 4-75, 4-79
- PMESII-PT. See operational variables.
- populations, effect on operations, 1-16
- postmobilization training, short-range planning and, 4-148
- preexecution checks, 4-163, 4-164
- preparation, 1-163
- composite risk management and, 4-88
- principles of training, table 2-1
- professional military education, 3-27, 3-36–3-37, 3-38

**R**
- readiness, assessing during DMETL development, 4-65
- assessment and, 4-186, 4-187
- battle rosters and, 4-85
- foundation for large unit, 4-83
- resources and, 2-56
- responsibility for, 3-40
- training and, 4-197–4-201
- training briefings and, 4-136
- real-time strategy games, 4-114
- recovery from training, 4-185
- after action reviews and, 4-206, 4-208
- redeployment training plans, 4-161
- Regular Army, role in civil support, 1-17
- rehearsals, 4-163, 4-170
- training enablers and, 2-40
- training events and, 4-101
- remedial training, 2-46
- Reserve Component (units), civil support operations and, 1-17
- CMETLs for, 4-45
- command and control of, 4-16–4-17
- DMETL approval for, 4-68
- locking in training and, 4-89
- long-range plan and, 4-138–4-139

**S**
- safety, 2-16, 4-174
- integrating into training, 2-37–2-39
- self-assessment, 3-17
- formal education and training and, 3-37
- self-development plans and, 3-50
- self-development, expeditionary mindset and, 2-68
- generating force and, 3-33
- institutional training domain and, 3-27
- leaders’ role in, 3-20, 3-26
- responsibility for, 3-15–3-16, 3-50
- self-development plans, 3-49
- self-development training domain, 3-15–3-18, 3-48–3-50
- defined, 3-48
- senior service colleges, role of, 3-28
- sequential training, 4-104
- short-range planning calendar and, 4-144
- near-term planning and, 4-154
- train/ready ARFORGEN phase and, 4-4
- role of, 1-13
- time management cycles for, 4-125
- training and leader development guidance and, 4-148
- training responsibilities of, 4-16–4-17
- reset (ARFORGEN phase), 4-3
- CMETL and, 4-41
- training enablers and, 4-119
- training plans for, 4-15
- resource allocation, mission focus and, 4-31
- resource requirements, estimating, 4-108
- resources, 4-105–4-108
- allocation of, 4-133
- long-range plan and, 4-138
- preparation and, 4-165
- prioritizing, 4-90
- stewardship of, 2-55–2-56, 2-59
- retraining, 2-46, 4-209
- risk, 4-175
- training management and, 4-36
- ROC drills, 4-170
- standard(s), after action reviews and, 4-202
- crawl-walk-run and, 4-182
- defined, 4-91
- doctrine and, 3-31
- establishing, 2-44–2-45
- external evaluations and, 4-196
- informal evaluations and, 4-191
- safety and, 2-16
- sources of, 4-175
- training to, 2-13–2-14, 4-22–4-26
- standing operating procedures, standards and, 2-43
- state-established requirements, ARFORGEN and, 4-4
- success, defining, 2-44–2-45
- support brigades, 4-13
- supporting collective tasks, 4-48, figure 4-2
- determining, 4-129
- selecting, 4-53
supporting individual tasks, 4-49–4-51
sustainment, training for, 2-47–2-57
sustainment training, 4-184

t
TADSS, 4-108, 4-120, 4-163, 4-173
effective training and, 2-32
event training plans, and, 4-168
live training and, 4-110
training events and, 4-100
task, defined, 4-91
task group, figure 4-2
defined, 4-47
task organization, training relationships and, 2-27
technology, operations and, 1-33
threats, 1-18–1-19
types of, 1-4–1-8
time, allocating, 2-46
time management, long-range planning calendar and, 4-145
time management cycles, 4-123–4-125
top-down/bottom-up approach, 2-17, 4-72–4-73
traditional threats, 1-5
train/ready (ARFORGEN phase), 4-4
trainers, selecting and preparing, 4-166–4-167
training, characteristics of effective, 4-172–1-179
combined arms, 4-80
education, compared with, 3-5–3-9
role of, 1-25–1-34
staffs. See staff, training of.
training and education lifecycle, 3-10–3-20
training and evaluation outline, combined arms training strategies and, 4-92
defined, 4-92
formal evaluations and, 4-193
standards and, 4-175
training and leader development, 2-10–2-12
linking, 4-203
training and leader development guidance, 2-3
DMETL development and, 4-60, 4-66
long-range plan and, 4-139, 4-140–1-142
time-constrained conditions, under, 4-61
topics for, table 4-2
short-range planning and, 4-147
training areas, training events and, 4-100
training briefing, 4-74, 4-126–4-136
formal evaluations and, 4-192
training conditions, operational theme and, 4-129
training domains, 3-3, figure 3-1
interaction of, 3-23, 3-26
training enablers, 2-1, 2-40, 3-43, 4-109–4-119
ARFORGEN and, 4-119
combined arms training strategies and, 4-97
crawl-walk-run and, 4-182
developing adaptability and, 2-70
effective training and, 2-32
resource constraints and, 4-107
staff training and, 4-86
training environment and, 4-101
training events and, 4-101
unified action and, 2-27
use of, 2-51
training environments, 2-23–2-41
resources and, 4-121
training events, 4-98–4-104
externally supported, 4-103
long-range plan and, 4-138
long-range planning calendar and, 4-143
training management, automated, 4-71
defined, 4-1
full spectrum operations and, 1-30
missions and, 1-26
officers’ role in, 4-19–4-22
training manager, unit, 2-3
training meetings, 4-155–4-157
individual training and, 4-25
task selection and, 4-165
training objective(s), 4-91–4-90
after action reviews and, 4-202
defined, 4-91
training overhead, minimizing, 4-102
training plan(s), approval of, 4-127
ARFORGEN and, 4-9
battle command and, 4-36
command and control information systems and, 4-11
event. See event training plan(s).
focus of, 4-87
formal evaluations and, 4-192
garrison, 4-161
individual training and, 4-25
locking in, 4-89
METL and, 4-34
retraining and, 4-209
training strategy and, 4-74
types of, 4-137, table 4-1
training priorities, assigning, 4-33, 4-48, 4-52
training products, provision of, 3-32
training relationships, 4-14
training requirements, training strategy and, 4-77
training schedules, 4-71, 4-72, 4-156–4-160, 4-162
individual training and, 4-25
near-term planning and, 4-154
short-range planning calendar and, 4-150
training strategy(ies), 3-32, 4-74, 4-93–4-97
battle command and, 4-36
crosswalking tasks and, 4-49–4-51
long-range plan and, 4-138
METL and, 4-34
NCOs and, 2-17
training events and, 4-98
training support system and, 4-120
training support, commanders’ role in, 4-20, 4-23–4-25
responsibility for, 4-14
training support packages, 3-32
training support system, 3-4, 4-120–4-122
training events and, 4-100
training visits, 4-21
training, effective, characteristics of, 2-32
transitions, 2-24
CMETL to DMETL, 4-129
training events and, 4-99
Entries are by paragraph number unless specified otherwise.

U–V
U.S. Army Reserve. See Reserve Component (units).
U.S. Army Reserve Command, 4-16
unified action, 1-16
   institutional culture and, 2-26
   training enablers and, 3-43
   training for, 2-27, 3-44
unit combined arms training strategies (CATSs), 4-95
unit training, 3-41
urban operations facilities, 4-122
veterans, training and, 1-38
virtual training, 4-111

W–X–Y–Z
warfighting functions, combined arms operations and, 2-25
   defined, 4-59
   DMETL development and, 4-59
   training events and, 4-102
warrant officers, training responsibilities of, 4-22
Warrior Ethos, 2-62, 2-18, 3-21
   initial military training and, 3-34
warrior tasks, 2-28, 3-11, 3-27, 3-34
weapons of mass destruction, 1-7
whole of government, 1-12
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