A study of the United States Army Security Assistance Training Program

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ABSTRACT

A Study of the United States Army Security Assistance Training Program

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Since the beginnings of the Cold War, the United States has provided arms and training to selected allied or friendly nations. Through the Security Assistance Training Program (SATP), over 500,000 foreign military personnel from 123 countries have been trained by the U.S. military services. Despite its relative low cost and low profile, the SATP has been a significant tool of U.S. foreign Policy by establishing communication and influence with elites, particularly of Third World nations.

The Department of Defense and the Department of the Army have established a large, worldwide organization to manage the SATP. These agencies are generally well staffed.
Yet, the SATP could be more capably administered at the Army Service School level. There, the Foreign Training Officer is chiefly responsible for the experience each international military student has while in the United States. This thesis offers several recommendations which the author believes would strengthen the SATP.
I certify that I have read this thesis and find that, in scope and quality, it satisfies the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

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A STUDY OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY
SECURITY ASSISTANCE TRAINING PROGRAM

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**...........................................................ii

**INTRODUCTION**..............................................................1

**CHAPTER**

I  **THE HISTORICAL FRAMEWORK FOR U.S. SECURITY ASSISTANCE**..................4

   Introduction
   Cold War Tensions and Collective Security
   The Expansion of Collective Security
   The Eisenhower Doctrine
   The Vietnam Era and the Nixon Doctrine
   The Carter Doctrine
   Conclusion
   Notes

II  **SECURITY ASSISTANCE: POLICIES AND OBJECTIVES**..............18

   Security Assistance Objectives
   Security Assistance Program Components
   The Security Assistance Training Program
   Security Assistance Training Program Policies
   Student Selection Criteria
   Categories of Training
   Policy Constraints on the Type of Training Available
   Utilization of Trainees
   Conclusion
   Notes

III  **ORGANIZATION FOR SECURITY ASSISTANCE TRAINING**.........41

   Introduction
   The Department of State
   The Department of Defense
   The Department of the Army
   Other Agencies
   Notes

IV  **THE ROLE OF THE FOREIGN TRAINING OFFICER**.................56

   Introduction
   Administration
   Academic Responsibilities
   Social Responsibilities
   Cross-Cultural Liaison
   Notes
V THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE INFORMATIONAL PROGRAM......76

Introduction
Informational Program Topics
Informational Program Development
Informational Program Activities
Notes

VI STRENGTHENING THE SECURITY ASSISTANCE TRAINING PROGRAM.................................96

Introduction
Qualifications and Selection of Foreign Training Officers
Greater Support Staff Standardization
Increased Command Support
More Active Support by the Security Assistance Training Field Activity
Improved Training of Foreign Training Officers
Development of Informational Program-Related Materials
Enhanced Instructor Training
Establish Preparatory Courses for All Senior Level Courses
Notes

CONCLUSION.................................................................128
Notes

APPENDIX.................................................................132

BIBLIOGRAPHY...........................................................134

VITA.................................................................137
INTRODUCTION

Shortly after the close of the Second World War, the United States abandoned the isolationism which had characterized American foreign policies to that point. President Truman became convinced that active American support to nations threatened by the advances of communism was necessary due to the inability of the pre-war powers to confront this threat. The United States organized and supported formal military alliances and soon began providing massive amounts of military and economic aid to key nations.

The military component of this assistance has become known by the term security assistance. Through a variety of security assistance programs, the United States provides arms and training to selected allied or friendly nations. Most research on security assistance tends to focus on the transfers of weapons systems, equipment and other hardware. One reason for this tendency to concentrate on arms transfers is that approximately 99 percent of U.S. military assistance appropriations have been for equipment.¹ The
other one percent has been used to provide training and instruction to foreign officers and soldiers under the Security Assistance Training Program (SATP). Since 1950, over 500,000 foreign military personnel have been trained by the U.S. military services. Thus, despite its relative low cost and low profile, the SATP has been a significant tool of U.S. foreign policy.

My interest in the SATP developed during my assignment as the Foreign Training Officer (FTO) at the U.S. Army Quartermaster School at Fort Lee, Virginia from February 1986 to February 1988. As FTO, I was responsible for the administration of the SATP at the Quartermaster School. We trained approximately 500 foreign students from 58 countries during that time, including two general officers from Egypt and Sudan, and a host of lieutenant colonels and colonels. During this time, I realized that few studies had been conducted on security assistance training. Yet I knew from my experiences that the SATP played a very significant role within U.S. security assistance programs. I became especially interested in the Informational Program (IP), in which the U.S. attempts to develop the foreign students' understanding of democracy and American society.

This thesis attempts to research and describe the U.S. Army's Security Assistance Training Program. I begin by providing the reader the Cold War historical framework
within which to view U.S. security assistance programs. This is followed by a discussion of the objectives of the security assistance program in general, and the SATP in particular. Some fundamental policies which support the objectives are also described.

I next explain the organization which is responsible for implementing the SATP. It is large and extensive, reaching beyond Washington, D.C. throughout the world. The responsibilities of the Foreign Training Officer are described in detail due to the tremendous impact this individual has on the execution of the program. Perhaps his most important responsibility is the development of an Informational Program through which the foreign student should develop an appreciation for the American democratic system, and one entire chapter is devoted to the IP. Finally, I suggest eight measures which I believe would serve to improve the SATP.
CHAPTER I

THE HISTORICAL FRAMEWORK FOR U.S. SECURITY ASSISTANCE

Since shortly after the end of the Second World War, the United States has developed a substantial military assistance program. Eight presidential administrations have viewed security assistance as an important instrument in pursuing American foreign policy objectives. Through various programs grouped under the umbrella term "security assistance," the United States has provided materiel and training of foreign military personnel as a means of demonstrating U.S. support for selected nations whose interests coincided with U.S. national interests.

This chapter summarizes the foreign policy events which have shaped the U.S. security assistance program from its inception until the mid-1980's. It assesses the impact of
international events on the perceived interests of the United States, and traces the American response with grant and sales programs to help bolster the defense capabilities of allied or friendly nations.

COLD WAR TENSIONS AND COLLECTIVE SECURITY

During the decade following the end of World War Two, the Soviet Union implemented a foreign policy which exploited the political, economic, and military weakness in Europe and Asia. This included the absorption of the states of Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia and Moldavia into the U.S.S.R., and the consolidation of Soviet control over Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria, Romania, Czechoslovakia, and East Germany. The stationing of large units of Soviet troops in these countries both solidified the U.S.S.R.'s grip on these countries and intimidated neighboring states.

In 1946 and 1947, Soviet actions threatened to destabilize the eastern Mediterranean and Near East. The Soviets refused American and British demands to remove military units occupying northern Iran, and only withdrew these forces when the U.S. and Britain appeared ready to use military force.¹ The Soviets insisted that Turkey accept greater Soviet control over access to the Mediterranean through the Dardanelles and wanted to share responsibility
for the defense of the Turkish straits.² Soviet support of Communist guerrillas in Greece threatened to further destabilize the region.³

Responding to the British government's decision that it would have to withdraw aid from Greece and Turkey, President Truman asked for and received aid for these two countries. In his request for aid, he declared, "It must be the policy of the United States to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures."⁴ The Truman Doctrine was established, beginning the policy of active containment of the Soviet Union which has guided American foreign policy during the past four decades. President Truman had established a precedent of providing U.S. military aid to allied and friendly anti-communist governments.

Following approval of aid to Greece and Turkey, the Truman administration proposed a massive economic assistance program to rebuild the shattered economies and political strength of western Europe. Through the Marshall Plan, the United States provided billions of dollars and technical expertise to sixteen European nations which contributed to their economic recovery.⁵ However, continued Soviet aggressive acts, such as the June 1948 blockade of Berlin, convinced the Truman administration that the European nations must possess a credible military capability to deter
Soviet expansionism. The Vandenberg Resolution, passed by the Senate in June 1948, approved American association in regional and collective agreements in order to develop individual and collective self defense.\textsuperscript{6}

On April 4, 1949, the United States joined eleven European nations and Canada in forming the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. By participating in this arrangement, the United States accepted the concept of collective security and demonstrated its intent to provide assistance to its allies when American vital interests were threatened by communist nations.\textsuperscript{7}

The U.S. decided to provide equipment and training to the military forces of NATO to strengthen Western European defensive capabilities. This was accomplished through the Military Assistance Program, created by the passage of the Mutual Defense Assistance Act (MDAA) of 1949. The MDAA was the forerunner of subsequent security assistance programs, and provided for the sale, loan or grant of military equipment, materials, services, and training to eligible countries when deemed in the best interest of the United States. Under the MDAA, the United States initially provided assistance to the NATO countries, Iran, the Philippines, and Korea.\textsuperscript{8}
THE EXPANSION OF COLLECTIVE SECURITY

Events in Asia led to military aid to Korea and the Philippines. Washington was alarmed by the fall of China to communist insurgents and by North Korea's invasion of South Korea. The fall of Korea would place American friends and allies in Asia in danger of communist aggression. In addition to direct military involvement in the Korean War, the United States expanded the scope of its collective security policy by entering into mutual security associations with other Asian nations. These included separate treaties with Japan, the Philippines, South Korea, and the Republic of China (Taiwan) between 1950 and 1954. The ANZUS Pact of 1951 created a collective security relationship among the U.S., Australia, and New Zealand.9

A new threat to U.S. interests in the mid-1950's led to the involvement of U.S. combat forces a decade later. The inability of the French to protect the pro-western government of South Vietnam from its communist neighbors to the north led the United States to sponsor the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO). This treaty provided for collective security arrangements among the United States, France, Great Britain, Australia, the Philippines, New Zealand, Pakistan, and Thailand to protect most of Southeast Asia and the South Pacific region, including South Vietnam,
Laos, and Cambodia, from external threats to their sovereignty. By 1955, the scope of collective security had greatly expanded from the protection of Western Europe to include most of Asia. United States security assistance programs paralleled this expansion with a growth in size and range.

THE EISENHOWER DOCTRINE

The Eisenhower administration added the Middle East to the growing list of American vital interests. Events in several Middle Eastern countries during the second half of the decade drew the United States into closer association with friendly countries in the region.

Following Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser's nationalization of the Suez Canal in 1956, Britain and France collaborated with Israel to regain control of the Canal from Egypt. On October 29, 1956, Israeli Army units invaded Egypt and advanced toward the canal. The British and French, in a carefully planned ploy, demanded that both Israeli and Egyptian forces withdraw from the canal to enforce a United Nations' ordered cease-fire. Eisenhower's opposition to the military action led to Egypt's retention of the canal and enhanced Nasser's image as the leader of the Pan-Arab movement.
In response to the Suez Canal Crisis, President Eisenhower extended the umbrella of collective security to the Middle East with the Eisenhower Doctrine. It pledged U.S. military and economic assistance to any nation faced with communist aggression.\textsuperscript{12} In 1957, Jordan's King Hussein requested and received U.S military aid which helped maintain him in power.\textsuperscript{13} The U.S. responded to a request for assistance from the pro-Western government of Lebanon during a civil war there in 1958.\textsuperscript{14} These and other events led to the United States involvement in the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) along with the United Kingdom, Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey. The United States reinforced this new commitment with increased military assistance to Pakistan, Iran, and Turkey.

Thus, the Truman and Eisenhower administrations established a series of collective security agreements which stretched America's vital interests from Europe to the Middle East and Southeast Asia. Security Assistance had become a significant Cold War instrument to support America's foreign policy goal of containing Communism.

THE VIETNAM ERA AND THE NIXON DOCTRINE

As the nations of Western Europe became better capable of providing for their own defense, the Kennedy
administration began to focus more attention on the developing nations of the Third World, the "lands of the rising people", in Kennedy's words.\textsuperscript{15} In Africa and Asia, colonies gained their independence, but their political instabilities were subject to communist exploitation. President Kennedy saw a great opportunity with the situation in Vietnam and decided to use it to demonstrate American resolve by an aggressive program of military and economic assistance.\textsuperscript{16}

The massive U.S. assistance program provided to the government of South Vietnam did not result in the victory Kennedy sought. President Johnson continued the escalation of U.S. military and economic aid to South Vietnam, including the participation in combat by American forces. However, as the amount of American assistance and the number of American soldiers killed in action grew, so did domestic opposition to U.S. involvement in Southeast Asia. Victory by either side seemed unattainable. America simply did not have the resources, patience, or resolve to pay the full cost of containment. Johnson decided not to seek reelection, opening the way for a new administration to end the nation's involvement in the war and to reassess its approach to containment.\textsuperscript{17}

A new direction in American foreign policy did not take long. Richard Nixon took office in 1969 with the pledge of
ending the Vietnam war. Nixon studied the options available to him. He could not, however, get the North Vietnamese to agree to a negotiated settlement, and the option of continuing Johnson's policies held out no promise of victory. The use of nuclear weapons on North Vietnam was rejected on moral grounds as well as the uncertainty about the possible Soviet response. Instead, Nixon decided on a policy of "Vietnamization." The United States would supply the materiel for the South Vietnamese military.¹⁸

The consequences of the American experience on the American government's approach to collective security agreements and security assistance was considerable. Nixon declared, in the doctrine which bears his name, that the United States cannot "undertake all the defense of the free nations of the world. We will help where it makes a real difference and is considered in our interests."¹⁹ This included economic and military support to all allies as requested. "But we shall look to the nation directly threatened to assume the primary responsibility of providing manpower for its defense," he said in an address to the nation on November 3, 1969.²⁰

Disillusioned by the loss in Vietnam, Congress became much more assertive in foreign policy and congressmen, such as Senators Frank Church, Edward Kennedy, and Representative Donald Fraser, openly questioned the value of massive
military assistance in favor of economic and developmental assistance in the less developed nations. By the mid-seventies, Congressional support of security assistance programs reached a low ebb, and Congress sought to change the nature of U.S. military assistance programs. Arguing that the European members of NATO and Japan were capable of providing a greater share of the cost of their defense, Congress ended most grant programs of the Military Assistance Program (MAP). Countries with adequate resources were dropped from MAP grants and allowed to purchase materiel and training through Foreign Military Sales programs. With the Arms Export and Control Act (AECA) of 1976, Congress ended grant training under the MAP, and created a separate grant training program titled the International Military Education and Training Program (IMET).\textsuperscript{21}

\textbf{THE CARTER DOCTRINE}

Foreign Military Sales programs grew rapidly during the 1970's as MAP was phased out. Many friendly states in the Middle East and South Asia region were better able to pay for U.S. materiel and training because of increased revenues resulting on increases in the price of oil. The Persian Gulf region became the focus of U.S. security assistance efforts
due to the Iranian revolution and Soviet invasion of Afganistan in 1979. These events led President Carter to ennunciate the Carter Doctrine, in which the United States would consider any attempt by any outside force to gain control of the Persian Gulf as an assault on America's vital interests, and that the United States stood ready to repel the assault by any means necessary, including the use of American combat forces.  

The United States took steps to enable it to back up this declaration which affected the security assistance program. The United States sold large numbers of advanced weapons systems to Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, and the United Arab Emirates to increase the defensive capability of these states and counter the radical regime in Iran. It established the Rapid Deployment Force as the means of projecting U.S. military force into the region. This required arrangements with nearby counties for the use of airfields, ports, and other local military support facilities as staging areas. This led to base access agreements with Kenya, Oman, and Somalia, which led to increased military assistance for these countries in reciprocation.
CONCLUSION

Between 1950 and 1989, the U.S. military services trained 555,012 officers and soldiers representing 126 foreign nations.\textsuperscript{25} Funding for all grant assistance training programs through 1987 totaled $2,304,354,000\textsuperscript{26} or approximately 1 percent of funding for military assistance programs. For this reason, it is considered a low-cost, low-profile, and low-risk program.\textsuperscript{27}

This chapter has identified the phases of development in America's post-war foreign policy. Successive administrations demonstrated support for friendly and allied nations by providing defense articles and training to bolster the capabilities of anti-communist governments. Increasingly, these governments were in Third World countries in which the United States wished to build stable, democratic institutions. As the foreign students trained by the United States military came increasingly from these lesser developed countries, the U.S. government sought to make use of this opportunity to develop pro-democratic, pro-American attitudes in these individuals. The chapters which follow explore the program and organizations which have been established to achieve these goals.
Notes (Chapter I)


2 Ibid., pp. 233-235.

3 Ibid., pp. 279-282, 286-295, 311.

4 Harry S Truman, quoted in Ibid., p. 283. For a detailed discussion of the Truman Doctrine, see Cecil V. Crabb, Jr., The Doctrines of American Foreign Policy: Their Meaning, Role, and Future (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1982), pp. 107-139.


6 Ibid., p. 101.


10 Ambrose, Rise to Globalism, pp. 140-145.

11 Ibid., pp. 160-164.

12 Ibid., p. 165; Crabb, Doctrines of American Foreign Policy, pp. 153-187.


14 Ibid., pp. 338-355.

15 Ambrose, Rise to Globalism, p. 182.

16 Ibid.

17 Ibid., pp. 210-230.

18 Ibid., pp. 231-235; Crabb, Doctrines of American Foreign Policy, pp. 278-324.

20 Ibid.


22 Crabb, *Doctrines of American Foreign Policy*, pp. 325-370.


26 Ibid.

CHAPTER II

SECURITY ASSISTANCE: POLICIES AND OBJECTIVES

Since the early stages of the Cold War, the United States has considered security assistance to be an integral part of its worldwide strategy. The Truman administration responded to Soviet and communist threats to Eastern Europe, Greece, Turkey, and Korea during the first decade following the Second World War through a policy of active containment through diplomatic and military actions.

The military component of this strategy has been to promote a global deterrence against Soviet expansion through collective security and a forward defense. Formal collective security arrangements resulted in American participation in the NATO, SEATO, ANZUS, CENTO, and a series of bilateral military programs among the United States and other developing nations. Often, these agreements have resulted in the establishment of American military bases and facilities.
throughout the world as part of this strategy of forward defense.

SECURITY ASSISTANCE OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the Security Assistance program, as articulated by the Department of State, are: to strengthen U.S. alliances and other cooperative agreements; enhance U.S. overall military strength and deterrence; facilitate access to overseas military facilities, thus increasing U.S. ability to project power and respond to crises; promote economic development and regional stability; support friendly countries threatened by aggression and subversion; and simultaneously increase the efficiency of United States defense production while lessening U.S. military requirements.2

The Department of Defense and the Department of the Army have refined these broad objectives as follows:

1. Support U.S national interests and strengthen the military capability of selected friendly countries by enabling them to-
   a. Contribute to collective security and deterrence.
   b. Defend against external threats.
   c. Maintain regional military balances and defense.
   d. Maintain internal security.
2. Foster favorable attitudes toward the United States and its policies.
3. Encourage friends and allies to pursue national objectives compatible with U.S. foreign policy and military strategy.
4. Assist in obtaining and maintaining the necessary base rights, authorizations, and facility arrangements at key foreign locations for U.S. and allied forces.
5. Develop other nations' defense self-reliance, thus reducing the need to commit U.S. forces in local crisis situations."^3

SECURITY ASSISTANCE PROGRAM COMPONENTS

Since the adoption of the Arms Export and Control Act in 1976, the U.S. Security Assistance Program has operated under seven major component programs. These programs are tailored to meet one or more of the security assistance program objectives. These programs include:

The Military Assistance Program (MAP). Under MAP, military equipment, services, and administrative support is provided to selected foreign governments on a grant basis. It was originally developed to assist Western European nations reconstitute their military forces as a deterrence to Soviet threats following the Second World War. MAP was the principal U.S. security assistance program during the 1950's and early 1960's. Under this program, the United States transferred over $1,000,000 worth of equipment, services and training each year between 1951 and 1969.\(^4\) The peak deliveries took place in 1953, with over $8,000,000 worth of military assistance provided primarily to NATO allies.\(^5\) Training was conducted under MAP until 1976, when IMET became the sole source of grant training.
The International Military Education and Training Program (IMET). The IMET program provides instruction and training in U.S. military skills and doctrine on a grant basis to friendly and allied countries. It is intended to be a low-cost, low-risk program for promoting U.S. interests in developing nations. The Reagan administration viewed IMET as a means of establishing valuable channels of communication with potential elites and leaders in Third World countries. The IMET is intended to improve the ability of recipient nations to better manage defense and national resources, particularly those defense items obtained from the United States.

The IMET program is the only grant training program allowed under current U.S. law. The IMET program allows for training of foreign military and related civilian personnel. Though the provisions of IMET permit this training to take place in foreign countries, the IMET program emphasizes training at U.S. military service schools in the United States. A relatively low cost Security Assistance initiative, the IMET program, since its creation in 1976, has accounted for approximately one percent of total U.S. security assistance activities. Its low cost and perceived high impact have encouraged government officials and former foreign military students to call the IMET program "the most cost effective of the security assistance programs."
The purposes of the IMET program are defined in section 543 of the International Security Assistance and Arms Control Act, passed in 1976:

A. To encourage effective and mutually beneficial relations and increased understanding between the United States and foreign countries in the furtherance of the goals of international peace and security;
B. To improve the ability of participating foreign countries to utilize their resources, including defense articles and defense services obtained for them by the United States with maximum effectiveness, thereby contributing to greater self reliance by such countries;
C. To increase the awareness of nationals of foreign countries participating in such activities of basic activities involving internationally recognized human rights. 10

**Foreign Military Sales (FMS).** The largest component of the current U.S. security assistance program is FMS. Under FMS, eligible foreign governments buy U.S. military equipment, services or training. Payment must be made prior to delivery of assistance, and the foreign government must pay in U.S. dollars. To assist developing nations make the transition from grant aid under MAP or IMET, to cash purchases under FMS, the U.S. government has established a financing program which requires congressional authorization. Thus, countries able to buy U.S. military equipment may also purchase training needed to learn to operate, maintain and employ that equipment. 11

Foreign Military Sales has existed since 1950 when the
United States sold only $5,195,000 to other countries.\textsuperscript{12}
As NATO countries recovered from the ravages of World War Two and were better able to share the costs of defense, the United States has decreased MAP support and increased reliance on FMS. In 1977, FMS peaked at $7,022,408,000.\textsuperscript{13}

THE SECURITY ASSISTANCE TRAINING PROGRAM

The Department of Defense has established the Security Assistance Training Program (SATP), which consists of all U.S. military training Assistance to foreign countries. The two components of the SATP are IMET and FMS-funded programs.

There are seven clearly defined objectives of the SATP. These objectives apply equally to foreign military students trained under FMS as well as under IMET.

The first objective is to "develop skills needed for the effective operation and maintenance of equipment acquired from the United States."\textsuperscript{14} The General Accounting Office has occasionally issued reports identifying the improper use and lack of maintenance given by Third World recipient nations to equipment provided by the United States.\textsuperscript{15} The reports also point out poor supply management, inadequate storage, and a lack of training of equipment operators and maintenance personnel. The SATP attempts to develop operator, maintenance, and basic supply management skills in the foreign soldiers who are
responsible for using and maintaining this equipment so as to provide maximum use of the equipment and prolong its usefulness.  

A second objective of U.S. security assistance training is to "assist the foreign country in developing expertise and systems needed for effective management and operation of its defense establishment." Besides training operators and mechanics the fundamental skills mentioned above, the United States trains mid-level and high-level managers and administrators within the recipient nation's defense establishment to develop managerial skills necessary for the proper use of the equipment within their armed forces.

The third SATP objective is to "foster the foreign country's development of its own professional and technical training capability." The conscript soldiers of lesser developed countries are generally lacking in reading, writing, and technical skills. The United States' goal is to help the foreign nation develop self-sufficiency in its indigenous training capability. It does so by training foreign soldiers in technical subjects and by sending potential instructors to instructor training courses at U.S. military service schools.

Fourth, U.S. military assistance training is designed to "promote U.S. military rapport with the armed forces of the foreign country". The U.S. government views this
person-to-person contact as extremely valuable in developing influence with future elites within strategically important foreign countries. For example, General John Vessey, who served as Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff from 1982 to 1985, was sent to the Philippines in March 1986 to express U.S. support of President Corazon Aquino to the Chief of Staff of the Philippine Army. General Vessey had been a classmate of the Phillipino general at the U.S. Military Academy three decades before.\textsuperscript{20} In fact, many foreign leaders were trained under U.S. military assistance programs. By 1970, 12 had become heads of state or premiers, 112 cabinet ministers or ambassadors, 80 commanders of national armed services, and 922 general officers.\textsuperscript{21}

A fifth objective of the SATP is to "provide an alternative to Soviet military training by reducing country training dependence on the U.S.S.R. and its allies".\textsuperscript{22} While the Soviets have been active in providing equipment and training to foreign nations and Communist insurgent movements throughout the Cold War period, its training effort has been much smaller than that of the U.S. Between 1955 and 1978, the Soviets trained only 43,790 foreign military students, according to report by the Central Intelligence Agency.\textsuperscript{23} One fundamental difference between the American and Soviet security assistance training programs is that the U.S. program attempts to enhance the
ability of the recipient nation to become self-sufficient in its training methods. This is part of the U.S. "total package approach," in which recipient nations "are aware of and afforded the opportunity to plan for and obtain all necessary support items, training, and services required to effectively introduce and operationally sustain major items of equipment/systems." While the United States has offered training as part of this total package approach for many years, the Soviets do not place a great emphasis on their training program. Instead, it emphasizes dependency of recipient nations by providing sophisticated equipment without training the foreign nation adequate sustainment skills. Thus, the foreign nation must rely on a large number of Soviet trainers and technicians stationed within their country. The Soviets view this as providing them leverage and influence over the recipient nation.

The sixth SATP objective is to "promote better understanding of the United States, its people, political system, institutions, and way of life." The American government hopes to use the foreign student's time in the U.S. to expose them to the accomplishments of democracy. The U.S. goal is that these future elites will return to their home countries impressed by what they have seen in America and will work to support democratic institutions within their own countries. This is considered an important
aspect of the security assistance program. This objective was included in the ACEA and the Department of Defense has established and "Informational Program" to meet this objective. Due to its significance within the SATP, chapter V is devoted to the Informational Program.

The seventh, and most recently added, objective of American military training assistance is to "increase the foreign military trainee's awareness of the U.S. commitment to the basic principles of internationally recognized human rights". During the 1970's, human rights became an important consideration in American foreign policy. In 1973, Representative Donald Fraser chaired a series of 15 hearings before the International Organization and Movements Subcommittee with the intention of raising the priority given human rights in U.S. foreign policy. The final report urged the Department of State to make human rights factors a regular part of the U.S. foreign policy decision-making process. Congress became increasingly assertive in these demands for higher awareness of human rights by inserting human rights provisions into appropriations legislation in 1973 and 1974. The Carter administration elevated human rights considerations in foreign policy formulation. The Department of Defense added human rights as an Informational Program topic as a result this increased emphasis.
SECURITY ASSISTANCE TRAINING PROGRAM POLICIES

In view of the objectives listed above, the Department of Defense has formulated specific policies which support the security assistance programs goals. The remainder of this chapter discusses U.S. policy on the types of foreign students to be trained under IMET, the types of training these students will be allowed to receive, and how these students should be employed within their countries following their training.

STUDENT SELECTION CRITERIA

In view of the objectives of the SATP, the Department of Defense has issued guidance on which foreign individuals should receive priority during the selection for training under the IMET program.

1. Leadership potential. The U.S. wants to train individuals who are likely in the future to occupy positions of influence or prominence within the foreign country's armed forces or political system.\(^{31}\)

2. Retainability. Training should be given to individuals who are career personnel rather than conscripts who will revert to reserve status within several years following training.\(^{32}\)
3. Utility. The U.S. government should fund training for officers and soldiers who will be employed in the skill for which trained for a sufficient period of time to warrant the training expense.\(^{33}\)

4. Instructor ability. To enhance the foreign country's indigenous military training capability, strong consideration should be given to selecting persons who can serve as instructors.\(^{34}\)

Additionally, the Security Assistance Management Manual (SAMM) published by the Defense Security Assistance Agency (DSAA) emphasizes three specific areas of emphasis for Security Assistance Officers to consider while developing a foreign country's training program.\(^{35}\) These include:

1. Leadership potential, as discussed above.

2. Encouragement of professionalism. Selection of training which encourages military professionalism and the interchange of military doctrine, particularly by attendance at U.S. service schools at the advanced career, command and staff, and war college levels.\(^{36}\)

3. Management of resources. Training related to the management of resources at all levels within the military establishment.\(^{37}\)
CATEGORIES OF TRAINING

The United States military services train foreign military students in a wide range of courses. The decision to accept foreign military trainees into a particular course is made after a review of the course content in light of U.S. policies on disclosure of information to foreign nationals, technology transfers, and human rights considerations. Generally, these courses can be classified as either professional development courses or technical training courses.

Foreign military officers are invited to attend professional development courses, which are termed Professional Military Education (PME). PME courses begin with entry level courses attended by newly commissioned officers and end with courses designed to train senior field grade officers for important assignments as colonels and general officers. These courses include Officer Basic courses, Officer Advanced courses, The Command and General Staff course, and Senior Service College courses.

**Officer Basic courses.** These courses are conducted by each branch (i.e., infantry, armor, transportation, etc.) for entry-level training for newly-commissioned lieutenants. The emphasis of the course is on developing troop leading skills and technical branch-specific knowledge to prepare
junior officers for their first duty assignment. These courses are approximately 20 weeks long or shorter, and are usually attended by foreign lieutenants or junior captains.\textsuperscript{39}

**Officer Advanced courses.** Officer Advanced courses are designed to prepare senior first lieutenants and captains for assignments as company commanders and staff officers at the battalion and brigade level. Branch advanced courses last between 20 and 26 weeks. Foreign students are usually senior first lieutenants, captains, or majors.\textsuperscript{40}

**The Command and General Staff course.** The Command and General Staff College prepares mid-career officers for command and staff assignments at the grades of major and lieutenant colonel. Students are taught the principles and techniques of military operations at the division and corps level. Among subjects covered during the 40 week-long course are military history, low-intensity conflict, operations with other services, international relations, and management. The staff college is located at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.\textsuperscript{41}

**Senior Service College courses.** The senior service colleges are at the apex of the professional military education system. They prepare lieutenant colonels and colonels for important senior command and staff positions within the Army and the Department of Defense. The Army War
College, at Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania, lasts just under one year.42

The other type of course offered falls in the category of technical proficiency training. These courses strive to develop a specific level of skills required to operate and maintain weapons systems, or to perform functions within a military occupational specialty. This category of training covers a wide range of courses, such as those listed below:

- Patriot Missile System Maintenance Technician
- Air Defense Radar Repair
- Aircraft Maintenance and Repair Technician Course
- Rotary-wing Aviator Course
- Air Traffic Control Operators Course
- Nuclear, Biological and Chemical Defense Course
- Resource Management and Budgeting Procedures Courses
- Computer Programmer/Analyst Courses
- Ammunition Inspector Course
- Track Vehicle Repair Course
- Parachute Rigger Course
- Petroleum Laboratory Specialist Course
- Tactical Satellite Microwave Systems Operator43

POLICY CONSTRAINTS ON THE TYPE OF TRAINING AVAILABLE

The Security Assistance Management Manual lists twenty-three specific restrictions on training requests from foreign governments. These restraints are imposed by law or by DSAA interpretation of the objectives of the SATP. These include provisions against the training of non-career personnel, training at U.S. civilian institutions,
repetitive training, training to support equipment bought through FMS, and others. Two specific prohibitions deserve special mention. Those restrictions are on police and intelligence training.

The Foreign Assistance Act places restrictions on police, internal intelligence or surveillance, or law enforcement training which may be given to foreign nationals, whether they are trained in the United States or in a foreign country. The FAA defines "police" to include military as well as civilian police if the military police perform civilian law enforcement functions. The FAA further states that neither the name given to a unit by the foreign government nor the ministerial authority under which it operates is sufficient in and of itself to determine whether or not a particular force is a "police unit." The determining factor is the nature of the function performed by that unit. Prior to scheduling a foreign military student to attend military police training, the Security Assistance Officer must obtain certification from the foreign government that the student "will not be involved with or assigned to a unit performing in any civilian law enforcement functions for a period of at least two years following completion" of military police training.

This prohibition does not apply to internal defense training in support of standard military instruction. For
example, every PME course taught in Army service schools devotes a part of the program of instruction to U.S. Low Intensity Conflict (LIC) doctrine. While High Intensity and Mid Intensity Conflict are defined as war between two or more nations, Low Intensity Conflict is limited to combat operations against an indigenous threat. It includes internal "defense and development assistance operations involving actions by U.S. combat forces, or U.S advice ...and...support for indigenous or allied forces engaged in establishing, regaining, or maintaining control of specific land areas threatened by guerrilla warfare, revolution, subversion, or other tactics aimed at internal seizure of power."

The U.S. Army's doctrine concerning LIC is found in Field Manual 100-20, Low Intensity Conflict. This publication is given to all students enrolled in the PME course, and it is from this manual that classroom instruction is based. Students are taught that social, political, and economic conditions in developing countries often hold the potential for internal conflict. Insurgency and guerrilla organization and tactics are described, as well as defense strategies and operations which may be employed by the national government to combat these threats. Topics include guidance on collection of intelligence on insurgent activities; psychological operations designed to
foster local support of the government; civil-military operations aimed at enhancing the relationship between the military, civil authorities, and the people; methods and measures which could be employed to preserve or reestablish the state of law and order; and advisory assistance activities by U.S. forces to train and support national defense forces.48

The second type of training activity carefully regulated by the Defense Security Assistance Agency is military intelligence training. Military intelligence training normally available to foreign military students is limited to tactical intelligence, or combat-related intelligence. Service schools are prohibited from extending tactical intelligence training to include training in support of national intelligence programs of foreign countries.49

UTILIZATION OF TRAINEES

Once a foreign student has been trained in a U.S. military school at U.S. expense, Security Assistance Officers are responsible for obtaining appropriate assurances that these personnel are properly and effectively utilized. The former student should be promptly employed in the skill for which he was trained, and should remain in
such a position for a reasonable amount of time. For example, DSAA guidance to Security Assistance Officers is that optimum assignment periods following flight instruction and other highly technical training such as missile training to be three years. For all other types of training, the period should be at least two years. Security Assistance Officers must also monitor the use of students who have received instructor training in the expectation that the foreign country's own training capability will be enhanced.50

CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the principal objectives of the Security Assistance Training Program as it exists within the broader framework of U.S foreign policy and overall American military assistance efforts. As the U.S. began to provide military aid to Third World countries in opposition to Soviet expansion, the SATP became a mechanism for exposing foreign officers to ideas and values which should help foster closer relations with the United States and help in the general stability and "nation building" programs within these lesser developed countries. The goal is for these future elites, once exposed to American democratic principles, to return to their home countries inclined to
help build and support stable democracies while wanting to maintain strong ties to the United States.
Notes (Chapter II)


2 Ibid.


5 Ibid.


7 Ibid.


10 AR 12-1, pp. 14-16.

11 Ibid., pp. 14-16.

12 Reluctant Supplier, p. 131.

13 Ibid.


16 JSAT, p.1-1.

17 Ibid.

18 Ibid.
19 Ibid.

20 Donald H. Waylett, "Thoughts on U.S. Military Representation Overseas," The DISAM Journal 11 (Spring) 127.


22 JSAT, p. 1-1.


24 AR 12-1, p. 6.


26 JSAT, p. 1-1.


28 JSAT, p. 1-1.


30 Ibid., pp. 12-7 through 12-11.


32 Ibid.

33 Ibid.

34 Ibid.

35 Ibid.

36 Ibid.

37 Ibid.

39 Ibid.

40 Ibid.

41 Ibid., p. 8-93.

42 Ibid., p. 8-280.

43 Ibid., pp. 8-440 through 8-469.

44 SAMM, pp. 10-2 through 10-4.


46 Ibid.


48 Ibid., pp. 137-146

49 SAMM, p. 10-4.

50 Ibid., p. 10-18.
CHAPTER III

ORGANIZATION FOR SECURITY ASSISTANCE TRAINING

Long before a foreign student arrives at a U.S. Army installation for training under the Security Assistance Training Program, a complex process involving many elements of the executive branch have had an impact on the development and implementation of the program. This chapter describes the functions of governmental organizations involved in the Security Assistance Training Program's (SATP) development and the process through which this training is managed.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

The Secretary of State is charged with primary
responsibility for the supervision and direction of all security assistance programs. The statutory role of the Secretary of State is contained in the Foreign Assistance Act and the Arms Export And Control Act. The Secretary determines whether a particular country is eligible for security assistance training, and proposes the value of the program. The State Department, jointly with the Department of Defense, request funding for the International Military Education and Training Program from Congress.¹

The principal policy advisor within the State Department for security assistance matters is the Under Secretary of State for Security Assistance, Science, and Technology. The Under Secretary serves as chairman of the Arms Transfer and Management Group, an interagency board with representatives from the Departments of Defense, Commerce, and Treasury, the Central Intelligence Agency, the National Security Council, the Office of Management and Budget, and others. This board has broad policy planning and review functions, and sets basic policy on security assistance and arms export control.²

The State Department's Bureau of Political-Military Affairs is more directly involved on a daily basis. It advises the Secretary of State on issues and policy problems which arise between foreign policy and defense policy. It serves as the principal liaison between the Departments of
State and Defense, and supervises all military assistance programs for the Secretary through the bureau's Office of Security Assistance and Sales. This office coordinates directly with the Defense Security Assistance Agency and the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (International Security Affairs). It is also the office responsible for security assistance budget preparation and presentation before congressional appropriations committees.3

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

The Department of Defense role in the Security Assistance organization is to implement the Security Assistance policies of the State Department. Obviously, representatives of the Defense Department are involved with aspects of policy formulation, but the Defense Department's primary function is to execute the policy in accordance with legal provisions and congressional appropriations.

The Secretary of Defense. The Secretary of Defense is responsible for the supervision of the training of foreign military personnel. Within the Office of the Secretary of Defense, this supervisory responsibility is conducted by the Assistant Secretary of Defense (International Security Affairs). This office is concerned with much more than just security assistance. However, it interprets executive policy
and develops the Defense Department's security assistance policies and programs. It also exercises direction, authority, and control over the Defense Security Assistance Agency. 4

The Defense Security Assistance Agency (DSAA). The Director, DSAA, under the direction and authority of the Undersecretary of Defense for Policy, has responsibility for establishing Security Assistance Training Program policy and for directing and supervising the implementation of the SATP. The DSAA was created in 1971 to integrate the training efforts of the separate military services into a comprehensive Department of Defense training program. The lieutenant general serving as DSAA Director is also responsible for publishing guidance to field operating activities, such as the Security Assistance Management Manual (SAMM) and the Military Articles and Services Lists (MASL). The SAMM is the policies and procedures manual used by Security Assistance Officers managing the SATP in U.S. embassies worldwide. The MASL is a catalog of courses taught in U.S. military schools which have been approved for attendance by foreign students from selected countries. The DSAA is divided into functional offices which provide comptrollership, data and management information services and IMET program management authority. 5

Unified Commands. These four star commands play
important roles within the Defense Department's SATP organization. Unified Commands are multi-service, regionally-oriented commands having a broad and continuing mission within a specific region of the world. Examples of Unified Commands include U.S. Southern Command, responsible for U.S. military activity in Latin America, and U.S. Central Command, responsible for U.S. military activity in the Middle East and Southwest Asia. Other Unified Commands support the Pacific, Atlantic, European/NATO and African regions.6

Unified Commands serve as an intermediate level for policy guidance and review between the Department of Defense, DSAA, and the Security Assistance Offices (SAOs) within the host country. The unified commander insures that all military security assistance plans and activities are coordinated, integrated, and in consonance with regional U.S. defense plans. They supervise the activities of the SAOs by providing guidance on IMET and FMS programs within specific countries. Generally, the channel of communication on approved security assistance training programs is between DSAA and the Unified Command. However, DSAA may communicate directly with the SAO. The normal flow of SATP planning is from the SAO through the unified command to the Assistant Secretary of Defense (International Security Affairs) where the SATP is coordinated and finalized. Upon approval, the SATP is implemented through DSAA.7
**Component Commands.** Within the unified command are the individual services' component commands. For example, within the U.S. Southern Command, U.S. Army South serves as the U.S. Army element. These component commands, in coordination with the directions of the Unified Commander, participate in planning and conducting security assistance training programs for countries within their area of responsibility. Their responsibilities include assessing the capabilities and limitations of allied and friendly forces and advising these countries on organization and modernization programs. They provide advice and assistance to the Army representative within the SAO on the development of each country's SATP.  

**Security Assistance Organizations (SAOs).** Security Assistance Organizations are established to manage security assistance operations within the foreign country. The title of these organizations vary from country to country, but the term SAO applies to all such activities. SAOs are usually divided along military component lines, i.e. Army, Navy, and Air Force sections. The SAO may vary in size depending in the size and scope of the security assistance effort within the particular country.

The SAOs respond through two command channels. They are under the direction and supervision of the U.S. Ambassador to the country, and as such are considered part of the
"country team." However, SAOs must also develop and maintain a relationship with the headquarters of the Unified Command, as that command influences the size and scope of all security assistance programs within the region. Finally, the SAO must develop a solid working relationship with the ministry of defense of the host country to facilitate security assistance planning.10

In developing the SATP for the foreign country's army, the SAO must demonstrate a strong working knowledge of both the U.S. Army's training system and that of the other nation. He should identify weaknesses within the foreign army's force structure and determine training requirements to overcome the deficiencies. He should determine what U.S. training schools and courses will best satisfy the foreign army's needs and coordinate with the foreign army a specific training plan. Throughout this process, he must consider U.S. security assistance objectives to insure that all training promotes regional and internal stability, and is in congruence with U.S. foreign policy. All of this must be done in consort with representatives of the foreign country's defense ministry so that consensus is more easily reached.11

Once the foreign country's training program has been approved, the SAO assists in the selection of foreign students to insure that appropriate personnel are trained.
The SAO screens the applicants to determine if they meet security, medical, English language, and technical requirements for training. Prior to their departure, the SAO training officer briefs all students to prepare them for their course. Upon their return from the United States, he will interview them to assess the quality of their training experience and the administrative support provided at the U.S. service school.12

DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY

The Army's role in security assistance training is directed toward attaining the goals specified in Chapter Two. Training which supports collective security, standardization, and inter-operability between the U.S Army and allied or friendly nations is encouraged. It makes available training in U.S. Army schools as well as in foreign countries, with a goal of developing the foreign army's ability to organize, manage and employ national resources allocated to defense. A great emphasis is placed in developing the foreign country's indigenous training organization so as to attain self-reliance in this fundamental area.

Headquarters, Department of the Army. At the Department of the Army level are two staff agencies with
responsibilities for security assistance training: the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Logistics (DCSLOG), and the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans (DCSOPS). The DCSLOG is the principal Army Staff representative for security assistance matters. He coordinates the Army's security assistance policy with the Secretary of the Army, appropriate representatives of the Undersecretary of Defense for Policy, the Defense Security Assistance Agency, and the Army agencies described below. The DCSOPS supervises the implementation of the SATP.¹³

U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC). TRADOC is the major U.S. Army command responsible for training and doctrine development and for conducting Army Training. TRADOC headquarters is at Fort Monroe, Virginia. Under the command of TRADOC are seventeen Army installations and twenty-four service schools. These service schools are organized along branch lines, e.g., Infantry, Quartermaster, Signal, etc. TRADOC exercises primary training responsibility within the Army for planning, developing, and executing the SATP. Within the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Training is the Security Assistance Training Field Activity.¹⁴

The Security Assistance Training Field Activity (SATFA). TRADOC administers and operates the SATP through SATFA. This entails management, planning, programming,
budgeting, and accounting. SAOs coordinate through the Unified Commands to SATFA to develop their SATPs. Most of this coordination is between the SAO and the country desk officers of the Regional Operations Directorate. Each desk officer handles all Army training actions for the countries falling within the geographical responsibility of a Unified Command. They work directly with the SAO to identify and plan training programs, notify the service school Foreign Training Officer (FTO) of projected foreign student training requirements, and coordinate the resolution of problems experienced by foreign students which are beyond the capabilities of the FTO to resolve.  

Also within SATFA is the Program Resource Management Directorate. This office projects, obtains and distributes quotas in Army courses for foreign student training. It also develops the Military Articles and Services List (MASL), which are catalogs of materiel, services and training available to selected foreign countries through MAP, FMS or IMET. These catalogs disseminate course identification, price, location, duration and other data to be used by SAOs and Unified Commands during SATP development. Finally, this directorate distributes funds to reimburse TRADOC schools for course costs, IMET travel and living allowances, and funds for use by the FTO to conduct of the Department of Defense Informational Program (DODIP, or IP).
Army Service School Foreign Training Officers (FTOs). Each school commandant appoints a FTO, who serves as the on-site administrator of the SATP at the training installation. His basic responsibilities include coordinating and monitoring the academic progress of foreign students, supervising the administration, welfare and support of the students, and planning and conducting the IP to broaden the students' experience while in the United States.17

OTHER AGENCIES

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER (DLIELC). Training in all U.S. military schools is conducted in English, except for training performed at the School of the Americas. Foreign students usually attend classes with American military personnel. To ensure that foreign students are able to understand, speak, and write in English well enough to benefit from the instruction, the Department of Defense has designated the Air Force to develop English language training and testing programs. The Air Force has established the Defense Language Institute English Language Center to fulfill this function. Located at Lackland Air Force Base in San Antonio, Texas, DLIELC conducts general English instruction for most foreign
students prior to their attendance at an Army service school. It also develops and distributes the English Comprehension Level (ECL) test which evaluates the student's proficiency in English. Student who do not score high enough to meet the ECL score requirements for the course they are to attend must undergo English language training at DLIELC as the first phase of their training in the United States. DLIELC trains and deploys English language specialists overseas to help foreign governments establish instructional programs in their countries, such as at foreign military academies. The Center also trains foreign military English instructors to upgrade foreign military language programs. Finally, DLIELC produces and distributes books, tapes and other training aids for use in military English language programs.\textsuperscript{18}

The Defense Institute of Security Assistance Management (DISAM). Established in 1976, DISAM provides instruction, research and consultation services to managers at all levels of security assistance organizations. It conducts resident courses at its facility located at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base near Dayton, Ohio to train security assistance managers from all services within the Department of Defense. There SAOs, officers assigned to Defense Attaché Offices, Unified Commands, and Component Commands attend a three-week Security Assistance Management-Overseas course to prepare
them for duties in these foreign locations. Other courses prepare SATFA desk officers, resource managers, and installation Foreign Training Officers for their respective duties in the United States.19

CONCLUSION

The United States has developed a large and complex network of agencies to manage the Security Assistance Training Program. The State Department determines which nations are eligible for grant training. Congress influences the process by deciding whether or not to fund a particular country's program. Once funded, the Department of Defense plans and manages the execution of the SATP through the Defense Security Assistance Agency, the unified commands, component commands, and Security Assistance Offices. At U.S. military service schools, the Foreign Training Officer supervises the actual training given each international student. The Defense Institute of Security Assistance Management has written that the "FTO plays the key role in the SATP," because the FTO has greater influence on the foreign student's experiences while in the United States, and the FTO conducts the Informational Program. The following chapters explain in greater detail the responsibilities of the FTO and the nature of the Informational Program.
Notes (Chapter III)


2 Ibid., pp. 103-1 through 103-3.

3 Ibid., pp. 103-3 through 103-4.

4 Ibid., pp. 103-8 through 103-10.


10 Ibid., pp. 104-13 through 104-20.


17 Ibid., p. iv.


CHAPTER IV

THE ROLE OF THE FOREIGN TRAINING OFFICER

As indicated in the preceding chapter, the United States security assistance apparatus is extremely large and complex, with numerous actors at each step of the management process. This chapter argues that the key role in this system rests with the service school Foreign Training Officer (FTO). With him rests the implementation of the training program and the Informational Program. He has the greatest personal impact on the total experience each international student has in the United States.

The Foreign Training Officer is responsible for coordinating the total support of the Foreign Military Trainee during the students presence for training. These support requirements may be summarized as falling into one of five general areas: administrative, academic, social,
Cross-Cultural liaison, and management of the Informational Program.

ADMINISTRATION

The administrative support given to each foreign student is an important part of the total training experience. A disorganized, inefficient administrative operation can leave a lasting negative impression which may negate all of the positive training and Informational Program efforts. Thus, the Foreign Training Officer must understand the administrative responsibilities of the SATP, and insure that the administrative staff provides competent service.

Several important actions should take place prior to the foreign student's arrival at the training installation. The Foreign Training Officer should assemble and forward information packets to the Security Assistance Officer in the student's country. These packets should include general information about the training installation, and suggestions on arrangements the student should make before leaving his country. This should include a mailing address for the student to give his family, uniform requirements, suggestions for civilian clothing, the amount of American currency the student will need for his immediate needs upon
arrival, information about the availability of housing in case he decides to bring his family, general information about the course, and instructions on how to get to the training installation should the Foreign Training Officer be unable to meet the student upon arrival at the local airport.¹

Also during the weeks prior to the foreign student's arrival, the Foreign Training Officer should receive information from the in-country Security Assistance Officer to help prepare for the student's reception. The Security Assistance Officer will forward the student's flight schedule, so that a representative from the Foreign Training Office may greet and assist the student in getting to the military base.² The Security Assistance Officer also sends a biographical information sheet on the student, describing the foreign student's previous education, fluency in English, military experience, and other useful information.³ Finally, a copy of the students Invitational Travel Order, explaining the agreement between the Security Assistance Officer and the foreign government concerning the courses scheduled for attendance, funding agreements, and other administrative information. The Invitational Travel Orders serves as a contract between the two governments, and the Foreign Training Officer's role is to interpret and execute the agreement on behalf of the military department.⁴
Finally, prior to the foreign student's arrival, the Foreign Training Officer should reserve appropriate quarters for the student's use. Most installations provide dormitory or hotel type rooms for officers, and barracks rooms for enlisted trainees. However, most installations do not have housing available for families of international students to discourage foreign students from bringing their families with them. Only students attending the senior level courses, such as the Command and General Staff College or a Senior Service College, are encouraged to bring their families. These senior courses are much longer than other courses: each is about twelve months in length. Students attending these senior level courses are lieutenant colonels or higher in rank, and are much better prepared to shoulder the financial burden of supporting their families here.  

A member of the Foreign Training Office should meet the arriving foreign student at the airport. The escort should transport the international student to the training installation, see to his immediate personal needs, and give him a chance to rest. The following day, someone from the Foreign Training Office should pick up the student and bring him to the Foreign Training Office for "in-processing". During "in-processing" activities, the Foreign Training Office staff perform a series of actions which will facilitate the international student's administrative
support during his stay. These include the issuing of an identification card which entitle the student to use all post facilities, such as the post exchange and athletic facilities. The student is usually asked to provide additional information about his background so that the Foreign Training Officer has a more accurate idea of who the student is and what his experiences have been. IMET students are reimbursed for travel expenses.\textsuperscript{7}

Students from non-English speaking countries are administered the English Comprehension Level test to verify their mastery of English. Should a student fail to achieve the required score for the course he is scheduled to attend, the Foreign Training Officer must obtain permission from the Commander, Security Assistance Training Field Activity to enroll the student.\textsuperscript{8} It is a rare occurrence for a foreign student to be returned to his country once he has arrived in the United States: SATFA usually approves a waiver if the student's score is close to the required level.

The Foreign Training Office staff must accomplish many other administrative actions during this "in-processing" phase. They issue the student U.S. Army uniforms, if required for his course, and identification tags with rank and name. As many international students are from tropical climates and rarely possess adequate winter clothing, many Foreign Training Officers stock and lend field jackets, caps
and scarves to students for use with their uniforms. The FTO explains U.S. postal services and the availability of post medical services.9

To facilitate the foreign student's orientation to his new environment, and to help prepare him for the course, the Foreign Training Officer schedules a series of briefings and events. He usually conducts a welcoming and orientation briefing within the first two days after the student's arrival. During this briefing, he explains administrative support the student will receive from the Foreign Training Office staff, the relationship between the staff and the academic departments who actually conduct the training, and American customs and military courtesies. A member of the staff usually takes small groups of students for van tours of the base and the local area to help the students settle in. The Foreign Training Officer usually escorts the students of a particular class to the training department where he introduces the foreign students to the department representative. The training department administrator briefs the students on matters pertaining specifically to their participation in the training course.10

Once the course begins, the Foreign Training Office staff may see the student from time to time as students come by to pick up mail, collect living allowances, or to sign up for the next Informational Program tour. Most Foreign
Training Offices have a lounge where students from several nations may gather and talk to their fellow students or the staff. This informal exposure to people from many different countries may be the first and last such opportunity for the foreign student, and, based on my conversations with them, is one of the most enlightening aspects of their time in the United States.

The Foreign Training Office staff provide "out-processing" support to the student as he prepares to return home or to proceed to another training installation. The staff assists the student to make travel arrangements, insure that his financial obligations are met prior to his departure, and that all equipment and uniforms that were issued to him are returned. Foreign students are allowed to retain the instructional materials issued by the academic department. These publications—army regulations, field manuals, and pamphlets which describe U.S. Army policy, procedures, and doctrine—are boxed by the staff and mailed to the Security Assistance Officer in the student's home country, who will forward them to the student.

Finally, the Foreign Training Officer prepares a written evaluation report summarizing the student's participation in the course and the Informational Program, and evaluates the student's performance. A number of
these countries-- Pakistan, for example-- seem to attach a
great deal of importance to these reports, using them in
promotion selection boards. One Saudi told me that his
country provided financial incentives for students for
positive academic reports. The emphasis placed on the report
varies from country to country. The Foreign Training Officer
usually relies on input from the academic department when
making this evaluation, as the instructors and class
administrators will have had daily contact with the
international student while the Foreign Training Officer
will see the student less frequently. The Academic Report is
mailed directly to the Security Assistance Officer, who then
distributes it to the student's ministry of defense.

ACADEMIC RESPONSIBILITIES

The Foreign Training Officer is responsible for
monitoring each international student's academic progress.
To do this, he should seek feedback from several sources.
The service school's Academic Records or Registrar's Office
can provide a weekly or periodic report listing the
student's test results and class standing. The student's
academic sponsor should be able to provide insight into a
student's poor performance, as can the instructors and
course administrators. Finally, the FTO must counsel
students whose performance is sub-standard.
The Academic Records Division of the school acts as the school registrar. It maintains a computerized file on each student which contains all test results. The Foreign Training Officer has a direct access terminal, or can be put on the weekly distribution list, to insure he has timely academic information.

In most courses, international students fail more exams, have lower grade averages, and are lower in the class ranking than their American classmates. Lack of native proficiency in English is one obvious reason. American military instructors use a lot of slang terms which are unfamiliar to the foreign student. One constant complaint is the frequent use of acronyms by the U.S. military. Highly technical terms pose another challenge. To complicate matters, foreign students lack an understanding of how the American military system is organized and operates, unlike his American classmates who have spent their careers working in the American system. All of these factors work to the international student's disadvantage.

The academic sponsor can be a valuable source of information about the student's adaptation to his new environment. Normally, an American student, enrolled in the same class, volunteers to assist the foreign student. His responsibilities usually include explaining classroom procedures, helping the foreign student study for exams,
coaching the student through practical exercises, and generally providing explanations of instruction that the foreign student did not understand. Potential problems exist when the sponsor is assigned, rather than volunteers for, the duty. This often happens when not enough American students volunteer. There have been instances when the foreign student demanded more assistance than the American student is capable or willing to provide.\textsuperscript{14}

The Foreign Training Officer must develop a rapport with the academic staff to insure that information flows freely and that neither side makes false assumptions.\textsuperscript{15} Army officers and Noncommissioned officers are assigned to instructor positions solely based on their rank and branch, i.e., Infantry, Quartermaster, Military Intelligence. Most have never been an instructor before, and few will serve in instructor positions after that assignment. To be qualified to instruct, one must pass a three week Instructor Training Course offered by the service school. Thus a sergeant may find himself working as a vehicle mechanic for ten years, and then find himself assigned as an instructor teaching two or three foreign students in a class of twenty. The Foreign Training Officer must devote a fair amount of time working with instructors to help them understand the cultural differences and language limitations of the foreign student and what can be done to improve the situation.
If the Foreign Training Officer learns that a student is in academic trouble, he must act as a counselor. He should explain to the student that he realizes there is a problem, and listen to the student's response. He should identify the cause of the problem and determine if the student's poor performance is due to his limited English ability, pressing personal problems, or simply a lack of motivation. While dismissal from Army service schools is not common if the student is genuinely trying, students should be advised that he could be expelled from the school and returned to his country, or be issued a certificate of attendance in lieu of a diploma. The Foreign Training Officer should consult the country desk officer at the Security Assistance Training Field Activity for guidance if the student's performance does not improve.

Finally, the Foreign Training Officer may establish an academic honors program to reward students for outstanding academic performance. Normally, a student's total participation in the course is weighed rather than only exam scores. This encourages the foreign students to join his American classmates in physical training and classroom participation.
SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES

One of the advantages of bringing foreign students to the United States rather than sending U.S. training teams abroad is in the opportunity for the students to meet Americans and learn more about this country's people, ideals, and values. The Foreign Training Officer should develop a program of social events aimed at expanding the student's contact with Americans, especially in small, informal groups or with individuals.¹⁷

If at all possible, each student should be have a social sponsor to serve as a sort of "host family." Social sponsors should be recruited from the military population and local civilian community. These sponsors can have the student to their home, take him to local points of interest, take him to a football game, or take him shopping, for example. The key is that a good social sponsor will complement an active Informational Program by broadening the foreign student's understanding of the United States.¹⁸

CROSS-CULTURAL LIAISON

For a student from another country, an opportunity to travel to the United States can be a positive, memorable, even life changing event. Or the student can return to his
home country angry, resentful and disappointed with his American experience. Many factors combine to make each student's experience unique. However, an understanding of cultural differences and the cross-cultural communication processes can help the Foreign Training Office staff and service school staff create a positive climate for learning.

The Foreign Training Office staff must be sensitive to differences between American culture and the numerous foreign cultures they will encounter. The English language capabilities of the students are not the only barriers to understanding. Communication is an exchange of meanings between people, but individuals communicate within the context of their own cultures.  

When Americans communicate with each other, they generally share some patterns of behavior, values, attitudes, customs and traditions. To be sure, there are significant variations within their culture. But there is enough common ground for them to identify a unique American culture. Aspects of American culture include:

1. Individualism. The belief that each person is a distinct entity and ought to assert and achieve independence from others.
2. Egalitarianism. Advocating full and equal social and political equality for all people, to include equality of opportunity.
3. Definition of people in terms of their work and self-achievements as opposed to family heritage.
4. Placing a higher value on utilitarian aspects of experience rather than on aesthetic ones.
5. A belief that competition is a good way of motivating people.
6. Deductive reasoning, and the idea that decisionmaking requires evaluation of the consequences of alternative courses of action and selection of the one that, on balance, seems the best.
7. Impatience. The tendency to be annoyed by the pace of activities, if it is slow by one's own standards. Most Americans are impatient in interpersonal situations. They are concerned with "getting down to business" and have a concern for the efficient use of time.
8. Directness in interpersonal relations. The American idea of constructive criticism may be interpreted as a personal attack by cultures who value discretion, indirectness, and harmony in social relationships.21

From the moment the international student arrives at the training installation, he is in continuous interaction with Americans and other foreigners. Every interaction between these groups may be misinterpreted due to differing attitudes and expectations resulting from differences in cultural conditioning. The Foreign Training Officer and his staff must recognize these potential barriers to communication and take actions to increase the cross-cultural sensitivity of both the Americans and foreign student.

To develop the cross-cultural awareness of the Foreign Training Officer, the Defense Security Assistance Agency requires all newly-appointed Foreign Training Officers attend a short "Cross-Cultural Communication Course."22 The course is five days in length, and is taught by the
United States Air Force Special Operations School at Hurlburt Field, Florida. The course, which is conducted approximately nine times per year, begins with an overview of the relationship between culture and the communication process. Instructors explain the importance of non-verbal communication in this process. For example, gestures and body language can be misinterpreted by either persons of different cultures. The course also discusses the phases of culture shock and suggests how to help the international student adjust to his new surroundings. The instructors advise the Foreign Training Officers on effective counseling techniques.²³

More than half of the course is devoted to instruction on the cultural patterns in specific regions of the world, i.e., Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, Europe, the Middle East, etc. Air Force officers, each a regional specialist, describe the geographical, economical, historical and other factors which contribute to the cultures of the region. Obviously, the instruction is very general, as each region is covered in about four hours. But it provides the novice Foreign Training Officer with basic exposure to cross-cultural communication, important insight and techniques which can be of great value.²⁴

Upon return to his own service school, the Foreign Training Officer must use this cross-cultural expertise to
interpret the actions and reactions of International students and to ease their adaptation to living in the United States. He should conduct cultural sensitivity classes for instructors and support staff who will come into frequent contact with the foreign students. The FTO can easily achieve this through officer and noncommissioned officer professional development classes which are held monthly within the training departments. I found that the instructors were genuinely interested in advice on how to better interact with the foreign students and welcomed these training sessions. The emphasis should be on creating an awareness of differences and building a sincere desire to make the total experience as pleasant as reasonably possible for the foreign student while requiring him to meet all course requirements. Instructors should be briefed on the Security Assistance Program's objectives, and understand their role within the program.

Regardless of the efforts of the Foreign Training Officer to develop this sensitivity among the service school staff, the foreign student will also have to learn to adjust to American culture and the American way of doing things. The Army, as an institution, expects its members to conduct their behavior in congruence with certain values. These values are often extremely ethno-centric and may cause U.S. military personnel to question the competence or values of
the foreigner. The Foreign Training Officer must explain critical aspects of our culture, military subculture, and the training environment which may be significantly different from what they have experienced in their own culture. This has become increasingly true as the United States has shifted its training emphasis from training NATO allies in the 1950's, with whom we share a cultural heritage, to training Third World nationals, with whom we may share little cultural common ground.

The Foreign Training Officer is faced with many challenges in trying to attune the school staff and the foreign trainees to each other's cultural expectations of behavior. He can not expect to change either group's attitudes, habits or customs during the foreign student's short time in the United States. Instead he must simply aim to increase each group's sensitivity to cross-cultural awareness by proactive measures and serve as a mediator when problem situations develop.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of the duties of the Foreign Training Officer. The ideal FTO must possess organizational and management skills to enable the Foreign Training Office to provide timely, efficient administrative
support to all international students assigned to the school. The FTO must have effective interpersonal skills with which to provide sound counsel to foreign students facing varied problems adapting to life in the United States Army. The FTO must sometimes mediate problems between the student and the training department, or even civilians with whom the student has encountered problems.

Most officers, when assigned to duties as the FTO, are competent administrators. Officers are trained to be managers and leaders, so the administrative responsibilities of the FTO usually come easily to newly appointed FTO's. The most unusual aspects of the position lie in the areas of cross-cultural communication and the management of the Informational Program. If the Security Assistance Training Program is to achieve its fundamental goals of promoting understanding between Americans and future foreign leaders, it is critical that the FTO develop a sound IP at the installation. Due to the criticality of the Informational Program within the context of the SATP, the following chapter is dedicated to this important program.
Notes (Chapter IV)


2 Ibid., pp. 10-1 through 10-2.

3 Ibid., p. 10-20.

4 Ibid., pp. 7-1 through 7-3.

5 Ibid., p. 10-21.

6 Ibid., p. 10-1.


9 Ibid., pp. 10-5, 10-10, 10-14 through 10-16.


11 Ibid., p. 3-6.


13 Ibid., p. 10-3.


15 Ibid., pp. 3-2 through 3-9.


18 Ibid.
19 Ibid., p. 5-1.


21 Ibid., pp. 18-19.

22 U.S.A.F. Special Operations School, Cross Cultural Communication Course, n.d., pp. 3-1 through 3-5, 8-1 through 8-2, all of chapters 9-17.
CHAPTER V

THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE
INFORMATIONAL PROGRAM

As was stated in chapter two, the intent of the Security Assistance Training Program is to provide more than instruction in military and technical subjects. One important goal of the SATP is to "promote a better understanding of the United States, its people, political system, and way of life."\(^1\) Another is to "increase the Foreign Military Trainee's awareness of the U.S. commitment to the basic principles of internationally recognized human rights."\(^2\)

To accomplish these objectives, the Department of Defense established an Informational Program, or IP, in 1965
with the development and publication of Department of Defense Directive 5410.17. The basic concept of the program is that, through a series of tours and lectures, and by providing materials for individual reading and study, foreign students will gain a better understanding about American society. This improved understanding will lead to an appreciation of American values, closer relations between military officers of other nations and the U.S., and some degree of influence by the United States over these foreign officers.³

INFORMATIONAL PROGRAM TOPICS

Department of Defense Directive 5410.17 specifies the topics to be covered within the framework of the IP. These topics include:

1. **U.S. Government Institutions.** Local, state, and national governments; the relationships between them; the principle of checks and balances and the effect upon executive initiative.
2. **The Judicial System.** The federal and state judicial systems and doctrine of judicial review, and the Constitutional legal status of the U.S. Armed Forces, with emphasis of their nonpolitical character.
3. **Political Parties.** American political parties and electoral procedures; the role of opposition parties.
4. **Press.** The role of a free press and other communications media.
5. **The Diversity of American Life.** The geographic, racial, ethnic, religious, and social diversity of American life; how recent technological changes and urbanization processes are affecting this.
6. Women and Minorities. The recent progress in applying American ideals to women and minorities and the current steps underway to improve their opportunities.

7. Agriculture. The factors underlying agricultural productiveness; the changing life and role of the farmer.

8. Economy. The national economy, diversity of industrial and business enterprises; the role of the Government and the free enterprise system; and the role of government, private, and commercial credit.

9. Labor and Labor-Management Relations. The independent roles of labor and management in negotiating pay, working hours and conditions, and other benefits associated with employment.

10. Education. The purpose and range of educational institutions; the relationship between education and a responsible citizenry.

11. Public and Social Welfare. The care of the indigent, particularly the sick and the aged; public assistance; unemployment benefits; the Social Security System.

12. Human Rights. The way in which all of the above elements reflect the U.S. commitment to the basic principles of internationally recognized human rights. Consistent with the responsibilities and duties of trainees, the Geneva Convention (concerning the principles and rules of the laws of armed conflict) should be included. 4

INFORMATIONAL PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

The Informational Program begins before the foreign student leaves his own country. The Security Assistance Officer (SAO) develops a predeparture orientation to prepare the student for their trip to the United States. He will give each student informational materials for individual study which describe the United States, his school, his course, and administrative requirements for the trip. The
SAO must personally interview the student to explain or answer questions the student may have, and monitor or assist in English language training. Finally, he may arrange social contacts with American personnel prior to the trip.  

The Foreign Training Officer (FTO) is responsible to his service school commandant for developing and executing the school's IP. He must design a program which meets the twelve objectives within the framework of resources available and specific planning guidelines. How well the FTO accomplishes this is dependent largely on his imagination, understanding of the topics, and support from the school commandant.

Several points need to be made. The IP is strictly voluntary. The FTO should encourage each foreign student to participate, but the FTO may not force the student to attend an IP function. This may represent a challenge to the FTO, but an IP event or tour which is intelligently presented will usually be well attended. It offers the student a break from their course work and gives them an opportunity to see something more of the United States than their training base.

The program should be viewed as an exposure to U.S. institutions, ideals, and society to help create an understanding. It should not be presented in a manner to
suggest that it is indoctrination or propaganda. This would certainly be rejected by the foreign students and would be counterproductive to the IP's objectives. The FTO must study any presentation material and determine the most suitable forum for a free and open exchange of ideas. The idea of the program is to stimulate the students to think seriously about American society and institutions and to answer their questions, not to make them experts during their relatively short visits.8

In arranging IP activities, the FTO must make maximum use of local civic groups, organizations, agencies, facilities, and historical attractions.9 This both conserves the financial resources at his disposal, but also demonstrates the local nature of many American institutions, such as government, education, and press. Many students are from countries in which local agencies are more local offices of a national beauracracy rather than an autonomous institution. The concept of local control of significant governmental functions is a key objective of the IP.10

The FTO may find it possible to incorporate some IP topics into the formal course of instruction.11 For example, human rights, civil rights, and legal due-process could be covered in the classroom presentation on military justice. This method is acceptable provided it does not
appear to be indoctrination. The atmosphere must be kept informal, and questions or participation in discussions should be encouraged, but not made mandatory.

An excellent method of exposing the student to the IP topics in an informal manner is through "people-to-people" exchanges. The FTO may develop an active community participation program for the international students with local civic organizations. Parent-Teacher Organizations are often interested in having foreign students visit their schools and speak to small groups of American students. Civic organizations, such as the Lions Club or Rotary Club, often enjoy having a group of students as guests for their monthly luncheons.¹²

The Foreign Training Officer should develop a sponsorship program. The international student will always have an academic sponsor who will assist him in the classroom. This academic sponsor may invite the student to join him during off-duty hours in social activities. This helps broaden the student's experience of the United States, and should be encouraged. The FTO may also be able to find civilian social sponsors or host families who would enjoy spending time with the student.¹³ Many military bases have large numbers of retired military personnel living in the surrounding community who may be interested.
Another vehicle for exploring an IP topic is to provide special lectures by a guest speakers who are expert in their fields. This method presents the danger of appearing propagandistic, but a very informal atmosphere will help overcome this perception. It is a good idea to incorporate the lecture into a special luncheon and to include other activities beside the lecture. For example, the FTO could sponsor a monthly "hail and farewell" luncheon to welcome new students and bid farewell to students who will depart during the coming month. The students will be more relaxed and should get some benefit from the lecture so long as it is relatively short and simple.

The most common form of IP activity is the field trip. The FTO conducts a visit to some point of interest, such as a farm, school, historical point, local industry, or sports event. These tours are generally conducted during off-duty hours and on weekends to ensure maximum availability of students. In this way, the student learns by seeing and doing, which is often more effective than a lecture. These tours are usually very informal and popular with the students. These tours require careful planning and coordination. The FTO should give the foreign students a short informational briefing prior to departure from the installation so that the students better understand what
they will experience. The FTO should arrange for escorts to help control the group and to help answer questions and stimulate discussion. It is also very important that the FTO ensure that the tour guide or any person who addresses the students understands the overall purpose of the program, the specific purpose of the visit, and the general English language comprehension ability of the students.

INFORMATIONAL PROGRAM ACTIVITIES

This section describes the types of activities which FTO's frequently use to expose international students to the specific Informational Program objectives. The list is based on my experience as an FTO, suggestions in the Foreign Training Officer's Guide, and the faculty of the Defense Institute of Security Assistance Management.

U.S. Government Institutions. The FTO should explain some of the fundamental principles and characteristics of the U.S. government. Many international students come from countries which have unitary governments. The FTO should emphasize the strong tradition of local government in the United States and the autonomy of local and state governments from the federal government. Also, the system of division of powers among the three branches of
government, the system of "checks and balances," and the necessity for cooperation and concensus to accomplish progress should be discussed, as the situation presents itself.\textsuperscript{16}

The Foreign Training Officer should establish a relationship with the local civilian authorities, and should bring the international students to visit the agencies and meet the key individuals in the local city, town, or county government.\textsuperscript{17} These local officials often have an "honorary citizen" program which might be an appropriate forum. During the visit, the point should be made that the local government officials are locally elected and responsible to local people rather than the federal government.

Most training installations are within a reasonable drive from the state capital.\textsuperscript{18} The FTO should bring the students to the state capitol and arrange for the students to meet the Governor, Lieutenant Governor, or other high state officials. The students should see the legislature in session, and visit the state supreme court building. Again, a key purpose of the visit is to stress the autonomy of the state government and the independence of the Governor and state legislature from the federal government.

Only a few installations are close enough to provide
visits to the federal government in Washington, D.C. The Joint Security Assistance Regulation specifies that IP trips shall be limited to 500 miles round trip. However, all officers attending service school advanced courses, the Command and General Staff College, or the War College attend a week-long tour of Washington, D.C. sponsored by the Department of the Army. On this trip, the students visit the Pentagon, the State Department, the White House, Congress, the Supreme Court, and many other points of interest. ¹⁹

**The Judicial System.** Specifically, the FTO should discuss the Federal and State judicial systems and the doctrine of judicial review. The tour leader should emphasize the independence of the judiciary from the executive branch, as well as the constitutional and legal status of the U.S. Armed Forces and their nonpolitical character. ²⁰

Suitable tours include visits to jails and correctional facilities in addition to municipal, state, and Federal courts. Officials of these organizations should explain to the students the functions and responsibilities of these institutions, as well as the rights of prisoners and defendants.

**Political Parties.** This topic includes an understanding of the characteristics of American political party
organization, particularly at the "grass roots" level.\textsuperscript{21} This topic is usually best presented by bringing the international students to visit the local party headquarters. There, representatives of the political party can give them an idea of how our political parties are organized, the means by which candidates are chosen, the use of publicity to gain support, and the relationship between local, State, and national party organizations.\textsuperscript{22}

Students should also meet the political party in opposition. This is particularly important for students from countries with no tradition of tolerance of multiple parties. The FTO should arrange for the students to talk with leaders of the opposition party to demonstrate the nature of a "loyal opposition," and the role of compromise and consensus within our political system.\textsuperscript{23}

\textbf{The Press.} The FTO should emphasize the role of the free press and other communications media. The objective is to demonstrate how a free press works and the ways in which editors and publishers define their responsibilities to the public. The FTO should arrange visits to local newspaper, radio and television offices, with an emphasis on the management of information, the role of the editor, and news reporters.\textsuperscript{24}

\textbf{The Diversity of American Life.} This is a "catch-all"
topic which is intended to show the foreign visitor the geographic, racial, ethnic, religious, and social diversity of American Life. Tours related to this topic include trips to historical sites, parks, and national monuments, sporting events, religious institutions, circuses, and amusement parks. The emphasis should be on uniquely American activities, such as rodeos, county or state fairs, or school sponsored extra-curricular activities.

**Women and Minority Groups.** The FTO should explain that the United States is a nation of immigrants, and that, while Europeans comprised the earliest immigrant groups, more recent groups have included larger numbers of non-Europeans, such as Cubans, Vietnamese, and large numbers of people fleeing oppression in their native countries. The FTO should emphasize the continuing progress in applying American ideals to all groups and the current measures underway to improve the opportunities of minority groups. The FTO should consider displays or lectures by responsible leaders of minority groups, such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. The students may also be impressed by the mere existence of female and minority officers within their classes or school staff.

**Agriculture.** Presentations and tours explaining agriculture should focus on factors which influence
agricultural productiveness, as well as the changing lifestyle and role of the modern farmer. To illustrate the impact of mechanization, technology, and economies of scale in modern farming operations, the FTO should take the students on trips to individually-owned and corporate farms. Such trips should not only demonstrate the size and business-like approach that American farmers take to farming, but should emphasize marketing procedures, farm credit institutions, and the kinds of aid farmers receive from the federal, state, and other agricultural services in combating pests and diseases, controlling breeding stock, and introducing improved varieties of crops. A trip to an agricultural experiment station will demonstrate the beneficial research being conducted to make information available to farmers. Also, a visit to the agricultural college of a nearby land-grant university will emphasize the relationship between institutions of higher learning and farmers. 27

The Economy. International students should be given an idea of the scope, diversity, and independence of privately-owned businesses and institutions, and their significance within the national economy. The role of the United States government in this free-enterprise system, and the importance of private and commercial credit must be
included. Tours and activities are generally available close to the military base. Tours may be arranged to industrial plants, manufacturing centers, or other types of enterprise. The FTO should include trips to local stores of national chains as well as smaller, locally-owned businesses. Business representatives should be asked to explain the relations between the ownership and management of the company, between management and labor, product research and development, marketing, quality control, cost control, and the significance of government regulation, if applicable.

To help explain the importance of the financial institutions upon which American businesses rely, the FTO should visit banks, credit unions, savings and loan associations, Federal Housing Administration offices, and agricultural cooperative credit institutions to portray the types of credit available to the average American. Finally, the FTO can demonstrate the importance of the transportation network on the American economy by visiting large transportation centers for rail, air, watercraft, truck, or pipeline. Students should be allowed to discuss the systems of management, scheduling, maintenance, and interconnection with transportation officials and representatives.

Labor and Labor-management Relations. Informational
Program events should stress the independent roles of labor and management in negotiating pay, working hours and conditions, and other benefits associated with employment. The foreign officer should meet with union officials at the local level, and when possible, at the regional or national level. This will demonstrate the scope of unions, the objectives of their leadership, and their political and financial independence from industry or the government. Students should also meet with union representatives during industrial tours.

**Education.** Most foreign students will see a significant difference between the American system of education and the systems of their own countries. Most lesser developed countries have patterned their systems on the European model. In these countries, a national education ministry dictates educational policy and procedures to regional authorities, then down to local schools. A series of national examinations determine college eligibility, and a small percentage of the population attend a university. This is in contrast to the American system in which locally controlled school boards formulate and administrate school programs. The national and state Departments of Education set broad guidelines for accreditation and provide some funding.
The Foreign Training Officers should arrange visits and exchanges to nearby schools, colleges, and universities to demonstrate the general range of education, laboratories and research facilities, extension course programs, agricultural experiment stations, and athletic and cultural activities. Visits to high schools will help the students understand the emphasis Americans place in school sponsored extracurricular activities as vehicles for promoting social development of students.

**Public and Social Welfare.** Visits should include publicly supported housing developments, model houses, and apartments designed for low and middle income groups. The students may find interesting trips to public health agencies, clinics, welfare agencies, national and state employment services, Social Security offices, and local Red Cross offices. Representatives of these public and private agencies can explain the nature and scope of assistance available in the United States.32

**Human Rights.** There are really few tours which can cover human rights without appearing propagandistic. Visits to offices of Amnesty International, for example, would probably be unpopular and participation would be low. Instead, a more realistic approach is to cover this topic by making the students aware of how the other eleven topics
reflect American commitment to human rights. Visits to jails and correctional facilities should demonstrate the rights of prisoners and persons accused of having committed crimes. American progress in protecting the civil rights of minorities and the guarantees of the Bill of Rights should be discussed. Access to education and freedom of religious expression should be evident during a visit to a church affiliated university, for example.  

CONCLUSION

Lieutenant General Charles Brown, Director of the Defense Security Assistance Agency, has testified before congressional appropriations committees that training foreign students in U.S. military service schools is the United States' most cost-effective foreign assistance program.

By studying in the United States, foreign military students learn our ways and are exposed to our values of support for democracy and personal integrity based on pride in military professionalism. They, in turn, help spread these values in their countries by sharing their experiences with military and civilian counterparts.

The American government expects the Security Assistance Training Program to do much more than teach foreign students
military skills. The Informational Program was developed to define the non-military objectives of the SATP. While the fundamental policy is sound, the key to success lies in the conduct of the IP at each training installation, for that is where the policy is translated into action.
Notes (Chapter V)


2 Ibid.


4 Ibid., pp. 2-3.

5 JSAT, pp. 2-1 through 2-2.


7 JSAT, p. 11-1.

8 FTO Guide, pp. 11-6 through 11-7.

9 Ibid., p. 11-8.


11 Ibid., p. 11-8.

12 Ibid., pp. 3-32 through 3-33.

13 Ibid., p. 3-31 through 3-32.


15 Ibid.


19 ATO Handbook, pp. 5-9 through 5-10; JSAT, p. 11-2.
20 ATO Handbook, p. 5-5; FTO Guide, pp. 15-36 through
15-46.

21 ATO Handbook, p. 5-5; FTO Guide, pp. 15-48 through
15-55.

22 ATO Handbook, p. 5-5; FTO Guide, pp. 15-48 through
15-55.


14-28.

25 ATO Handbook, p. 5-5; FTO Guide, pp. 13-1 through
13-7.

14-59.

27 ATO Handbook, p. 5-6; FTO Guide, pp. 16-1 through
16-8.

28 ATO Handbook, p. 5-6; FTO Guide, pp. 16-10 through
16-25.


30 ATO Handbook, p. 5-6; FTO Guide, pp. 16-26 through
16-38.

31 ATO Handbook, p. 5-6; FTO Guide, pp. 14-1 through
14-21.

16-48.

33 ATO Handbook, p. 5-6; FTO Guide, pp. 12-1 through
12-21.

34 Charles W. Brown, "Military Assistance Requirements for Fiscal Year 1990," The DISAM Journal 11 (Spring) 47.
CHAPTER VI

STRENGTHENING THE SECURITY ASSISTANCE TRAINING PROGRAM

This chapter proposes changes in the conduct of the Security Assistance Training Program (SATP). Some changes must take place at the training installation, others at SATFA. Some suggestions will be welcomed by Foreign Training Officers, as they identify weaknesses in the system. All proposals will strengthen the execution of the SATP in meeting the goals of the program.

QUALIFICATIONS AND SELECTION OF FOREIGN TRAINING OFFICERS

The Security Assistance Training Program's overall goal
is for the international student to have a positive training experience in the United States. The student's total experience should leave him with a better understanding of American society. ¹

As the preceding chapters have detailed, there are many individuals in numerous organizations involved in the Security Assistance Training Program. However, the individual with the greatest impact on the achievement of the program's objectives is the service school Foreign Training Officer. ² The Foreign Training Officer is responsible for the administration of the Security Assistance Training Program during the student's entire stay at the training installation.

A successful Foreign Training Officer must have many unique qualifications. He must earn the respect of the international student and be able to gain his trust. The FTO should have excellent interpersonal skills so that he may work effectively with the students and the service school staff and faculty.³ The ideal Foreign Training Officer must have a solid educational background which facilitates his effectiveness as the Informational Program manager.⁴ He must understand enough about each topic of the Informational Program to be able to present it effectively and answer students' questions intelligently.

One critical requirement for a Foreign Training Officer.
is a clear understanding of the cross-cultural communications process and the stresses that the students will be under while living in the United States. Not only must the FTO understand enough about cross-cultural communications to be able to detect whether the Informational Program presentations will be understood by students from many cultures. He must be active in developing a cultural sensitivity in the service school staff and faculty.

He must also be a capable counselor, patient and willing to help students with whatever problems develop. He must be sensitive to the disorientation and culture shock that each student experiences. He must be able to establish instant credibility with the foreign students by his maturity, seniority, and competence.

Finally, the Foreign Training Officer must be a capable administrator, manager and leader. He must make certain that the administrative aspects of the office are handled properly, so that the credibility of the office is not called into question. He is entrusted with a substantial amount of money for use in the Informational Program. He must design a program which delivers the maximum benefit for each dollar spent. He must understand the applicable regulations governing Informational Program expenditures.

With these significant responsibilities, one would
assume that a Foreign Training Officer would be chosen only after a thorough selection process in which all of their academic and work-related experience would be evaluated.

A review of the Foreign Training Officers assigned within the U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command's service schools during 1986 indicate that the the selection criteria used during the selection process vary from school to school. The qualifications of the individuals selected to fulfill the objectives of the program varied greatly. Indeed, some individuals lacked some of the fundamental prerequisites of appropriate educational achievement and experience.

Four schools had civilians assigned to the position. Two of these civilians were retired Army officers, one was a retired noncommissioned officer, and the other was a civilian with no active duty military experience. Among the eighteen military Foreign Training Officers, there existed a wide variation in rank, largely due to the level of the service school within the Professional Military Educational hierarchy or the total number of foreign students trained during the academic year. For example, lieutenant colonels were designated Foreign Training officers at three schools: the Command and General Staff College (CGSC), the Air Defense Artillery School, and the Aviation School. The CGSC is second only to the War College
in the military educational system, while the other two schools often receive entire teams, detachments, or even companies of foreign personnel for unit-level training.⁹

The distribution of rank among the remaining service schools demonstrates the importance each school attaches to the position. Of the fifteen other Foreign Training Officers, one was a major, eleven were captains, two were lieutenants, and one was a senior noncommissioned officer.¹⁰

I cite this great variance of rank because of the impact it has within the military as a means of establishing credibility and authority. Officers are promoted based on meritorious performance which indicates a potential for service at a higher level.¹¹ A major or lieutenant colonel has been promoted to that grade after a stringent selection process. A captain has achieved that grade after a much less demanding evaluation. A lieutenant has not yet faced such an evaluation. To entrust such an important program to a junior officer is to entrust it to chance.

Another important point of consideration is the grade of the Foreign Training Officer vis-a-vis the grade of the international students under his supervision. Approximately twenty percent of the time, the foreign student will hold the rank of major or above. Seventy percent of the time, the foreign student will be a captain or above.¹² That means
that a captain serving as Foreign Training Officer can expect to outrank only thirty percent of his students. This can severely hamper his attempt to establish credibility as a counselor and authority figure.

Educational qualifications are also not evident in the selection of officers for this critical position. The fifteen positions filled by captains, lieutenants or sergeants carry no specialized requirements. The positions are simply coded to be filled by any officer of that branch.\textsuperscript{13} For example, the Foreign Training Officer position at the Quartermaster School is identified only by the Quartermaster Officer specialty code, 92A00.\textsuperscript{14} Therefore, personnel officers could have legitimately assigned any of the hundreds of Quartermaster captains to that position. Furthermore, the position does not even specify that the officer have even a bachelor's degree in an area somewhat related to the requirements of the position, much less any advanced degree.\textsuperscript{15}

The practice of not establishing qualifications for Foreign Training Officers beyond grade and branch results in substantial disparities within the program. One would expect a Foreign Training Officer to have a degree in a field such as history, political science, international relations, or sociology, or an interdisciplinary area studies program. This is not the case. Most military Foreign Training
Officers with whom I spoke had undergraduate degrees in topics as varied as engineering, biology, computer science, or physical education. Relatively few had studied foreign languages in college, and many demonstrated a weakness in world geography, history, and current events. My impression is that few of them could discuss Informational Program topics in any depth.

Another practice which disrupts the stability and development of the SATP at an installation is the short period that an officer will remain in the position of Foreign Training Officer. To enhance their chances for promotion, officers must aggressively seek out command and operational assignments in troop units. To remain in the FTO position for longer than 18 to 24 months could be detrimental to an officer's career. Normal assignment policy within the Army is for an officer to serve in a position for no longer than two years, with eighteen months as the goal. This policy leads to frequent turnovers in military FTO's. For example, thirteen officers have served as FTO at the U.S. Quartermaster School between 1976 and 1990. Thus, after serving in the position long enough to understand the peculiar requirements of the SATP, the FTO is replaced by another officer, and the educational cycle begins again.

A fundamental flaw in the operation of the SATP,
therefore, is the lack of specific entry-level educational qualifications and appropriate work experience expected of prospective FTO's, and the lack of continuity in a school's program due to the frequent rotation of military officers in this critical position. There appears to be two possible solutions to this problem: assignment of an apprentice Foreign Area Officer to be the Foreign Training Officer, or the conversion of the position from military to a well-qualified Department of the Army civilian. Either option would improve the qualifications of Foreign Training Officers.

Under the first option, newly-designated Foreign Area Officers would be assigned to a service school to be the Foreign Training Officer for a three or four year assignment. Foreign Area Officers are the Army's "soldier-statesmen." Officers who are successful in their basic branch assignments, including a successful company command, and who possess relevant entry-level skills, are eligible to volunteer for assignment as designation as a Foreign Area Officer. These officers are then trained and assigned as attachés, security assistance officers, political-military staff officers within the pentagon or regional unified command, or as an instructor at the staff college or war college level. Entry-level training includes language training, attendance in a graduate school
area studies program, and eighteen months of studies within the country or region of specialization.  

Currently, there are no Foreign Area Officer positions below the grade of major. The Foreign Training Officer position would serve as an excellent apprenticeship for captain Foreign Area Officers. It would give them an opportunity to work within the security assistance field earlier in their careers than is now possible, giving them a chance to develop the skills, such as cross-cultural communication skills, which will become critical at senior levels. And it will give them valuable experience when they are called to manage the security assistance operations in Security Assistance Organizations overseas.

The other alternative is to designate the position of Foreign Training Officer for Department of the Army civilian hire. This has already been done at four installations with good results. A civilian, carefully selected, can provide continuity for many years, as opposed to the military Foreign Training Officer, who must remain no longer than two years. Two of the most outstanding programs within TRADOC are at the Signal School at Fort Gordon, Georgia, and at the Military Police School, at Fort McClellan, Alabama. These two individuals have been active FTO's since 1964 and 1965, respectively. At Fort Gordon, the Foreign Training Officer, Mr. Russell Maddox, is a retired lieutenant colonel
who has managed to elevate the command interest in the program. To recognize this individual's achievements, he was recognized as the "Outstanding FTO" by the U.S. Army Security Assistance Training Field Activity (SATFA) in 1988.26

GREATER SUPPORT STAFF STANDARDIZATION

In the same way that the qualifications of Foreign Training Officers vary among service schools, so does the composition of the administrative staff of the Foreign Training Office.27 There are no published guidelines to assist school commandants in organizing the Foreign Training Office. Thus, the present situation can be characterized as each school "reinventing the wheel."

My survey of the TRADOC service schools revealed that the schools with the lowest foreign student population may consist of the Foreign Training Officer and a noncommissioned officer to perform administrative functions. Some schools have hired a civilian to serve as the Informational Program coordinator, while at other schools, the Informational Program is managed solely by the Foreign Training Officer. The U.S. Army Signal School hired a civilian to operate a language laboratory to help students study and develop English abilities.28 Throughout the
system, schools have no standard organization or staffing to perform the administrative and Informational Program functions.

Due to the importance of the Informational Program as a specific objective of the Security Assistance Training Program, the Security Assistance Training Field Activity should develop a standardized staffing guide for Foreign Training Offices. The staff should consist of the Foreign Training Officer, a full-time Informational Program coordinator, and administrative specialists. The number of administrative specialists would increase as the student population increases.

The addition of a full-time Informational Program coordinator would free the Foreign Training Officer from the time consuming planning, budgeting, and execution of the Informational Program activities. Qualifications for the Informational Program coordinator should include appropriate educational background, such as a bachelor's degree in a social science or education. The individual should have a firm grasp of the Informational Program topics. Moreover, by establishing a permanent position, the coordinator will be able to achieve continuity in the installation's Informational Program.

Finally, all individuals assigned to work on the Foreign Training Office staff must receive adequate cross
cultural communication training. Often, soldiers are assigned to the staff for a two- or three-year period. Upon assignment to the Foreign Training Office, each individual should be required to attend the Cross-Cultural Communications Course within the first two months of assignment.

INCREASE COMMAND SUPPORT

The Joint Security Assistance Training Regulation charges the service school commandant with the responsibility of appointing the Foreign Training Officer. As in any organization, the greater the emphasis the chief executive officer gives a program, the greater the resources devoted to that program. Therefore, command support is critical if the Security Assistance Training Program is to meet all of its objectives. In fact, the training program is meeting the training objectives of the program very well, but needs greater support to obtain facilities, resources, and personnel to meet the Informational Program objectives.

Much of the problem is a lack of knowledge about the Informational Program by school commandants, a lack of active liaison between the Security Assistance Training Field Activity and the service school commandants, and the lack of competent, long-term Foreign Training Officers.
Again, the key is to increase the perceived importance of the program. The school commandant is usually unaware of the objectives of the SATP, and the advice from the Defense Institute of Security Assistance Management is for the Foreign Training Officer to brief the school commandant on the SATP as soon as possible in order to establish influence with the commandant and cultivate support of the program. In fact, the commanding general of all but the smallest school is extremely busy and is usually briefed by lieutenant colonels or colonels, who are the department heads. A captain serving as the Foreign Training Officer will simply not have access to the school commandant without passing through at least two or three intermediate supervisors. These intermediate supervisors have other responsibilities besides the Security Assistance Training Program and are usually not well informed about the program. Thus, the Foreign Training Officer must educate two or three levels of supervisors about the program before he can hope to brief the Commanding General. The idea that the captain Foreign Training Officer can influence the commandant significantly is simply unrealistic.

The optimum situation is found at the United States Army Signal School. There, the Foreign Training Officer is a senior grade civilian (GM-14) and his position is equal to the directorate level. As a director, he has immediate
access to the Commandant. As a senior staff member, his credibility has been established and his advice is more easily accepted. The civilian currently serving as the Foreign Training Officer at the Signal School has served in that position for over twenty five years. Once a Foreign Training Officer has built his credibility over time, he will be much more effective than a captain who will be in the position for no longer than two years.

Once the Foreign Training Officer has the seniority and credibility to garner command support, resources with which to conduct the SATP will be easier to obtain. The Foreign Training Officer will be able to obtain adequate facilities and staffing to insure a first class operation. Frequent events, such as ceremonies and social functions, may be scheduled with the commanding general to demonstrate the commander's interest in the program to both foreign students and the school staff. Publicity in the base newspaper will be easier to obtain, as will be social sponsors.30

MORE ACTIVE SUPPORT BY SATFA

Another change which would result in a stronger Security Assistance Training Program would be a more active relationship between SATFA and the service school. SATFA could support the Foreign Training Officer better by
providing more activities to generate interest in the program by the commandant and senior key officials with in the school staff.

As we have discussed, the captain serving as the Foreign Training Officer has relatively little clout within the service school. The Commander of SATFA could play a much stronger role in elevating the importance of the SATP in the eyes of the school commandant by strengthening the liaison between the school and TRADOC. Currently, all coordination between SATFA and the school is conducted between the regionally-oriented desk officers at SATFA and the Foreign Training Officer. Rarely does SATFA communicate with the school commander or other senior school officials. In all but the most urgent cases, SATFA's policy is that the Security Assistance Training Program is the school commander's program and that SATFA does not wish to dictate to the school commander how to organize and execute his program. The unfortunate result of this policy is that the junior Foreign Training Officer is left to fend for himself within the school for resources. Ultimately, the program suffers.

SATFA must provide more active support of the Foreign Training Officer. First, the Commanders of SATFA and the Defense Security Assistance Agency must convince the Commander of TRADOC that the Security Assistance Training
Program must receive a high priority within TRADOC. Once the Commander of TRADOC raises the level of interest in the program, the school commandants will also do so. Command support must be built from the top down.

A second suggestion is for SATFA to make more frequent field visits to TRADOC schools to assess the effectiveness of each Foreign Training Office. An assessment team from SATFA could review the organization, staffing, operations, resources, and general support of the Foreign Training Office annually. After reviewing relevant data and observing the program during a two or three day period, the team could make an evaluation of how well the program is meeting all objectives of the SATP, including the Informational Program, and make recommendations to the school commandant, and the Commanding Generals of TRADOC and DSAA. This formal assessment program would insure that Security Assistance Training has high visibility within the school, and could insure that the Foreign Training Officer has the school commander's support. The school commander would certainly be very selective of the individual chosen to be the Foreign Training Officer.

Another improvement would be for SATFA to insure that the school commandant is aware of the objectives and importance of this training program. Rather than assume that the Foreign Training Officer has adequate access to the
Commandant, SATFA should require that every newly-appointed commandant receive a briefing by the commander of SATFA or senior SATFA personnel, on the commandant's role and responsibilities within the program. This higher level presentation should be followed by frequent communication between the Commander of SATFA and the school commandants. Occasionally, the Commander of SATFA should get the Commanders of TRADOC and DSAA to generate letters and messages reemphasising the importance of the program.

The Security Assistance Training Field Activity should also monitor more closely the Informational Program activities of each school. As currently conducted, the Informational Program Activities are too heavily weighted toward social and recreational activities. While the program must be enjoyable to maximize student participation, more events which provide coverage of all Informational Program topics is needed. The key to having an effective Informational Program is having well-educated, enthusiastic Informational Program coordinators. Once the professional level of IP coordinators is raised, SATFA can expect more from them, and the IP will succeed in meeting its objectives more frequently.

Finally, SATFA should sponsor frequent conferences and seminars for individuals assigned to SATP positions. Currently, SATFA hosts a FTO conference every twelve to
eighteen months. FTOs from all TRADOC schools meet to hear briefings from DSAA, DA, and SATFA officials on aspects of the SATP. Small group seminars with FTOs and SATFA personnel discuss frequently occurring problems, and attempt to find solutions by drawing on the experiences of other, more experienced FTOs. These seminars prove extremely helpful for novice FTOs, and should be conducted more frequently. If an FTO is appointed shortly after a conference is held, he may not get to attend such a conference during his tenure as FTO. Without the network of experienced FTOs to call upon, a junior FTO may spend a great deal of time and effort trying to solve a problem which other FTOs have solved long ago. These valuable conferences should be held at least semi-annually.

In addition to conferences for FTOs, SATFA should schedule and host conferences for IP coordinators. These conferences could include seminars in which experts in various IP topics could give ideas for successful IP events. IP coordinators would have a chance to exchange information about successful and unsuccessful events. This cross fertilization of ideas would create a stronger IP Army-wide.

Also, SATFA should require FTOs and IP coordinators to plan IP activities for an entire year. As it exists now in the Army, IP planning activities are decentralized to the installation FTO. SATFA only requires FTOs to report on
IP activities which have taken place during the preceding six months. Many FTOs are simply not qualified to prepare an IP program and schedule repetitive tours to amusement parks, picnics, and social events. While the ultimate responsibility for planning IP events should rest with the FTO, closer scrutiny of planned IP events by the SATFA IP monitor would result in a better planned, more varied IP. SATFA should require a plan of IP events scheduled for an entire Fiscal Year. This plan would have to reflect events and tours to support all twelve IP objectives every four months. The plan would require prior approval by SATFA for any changes to the annual IP forecast. This system would hold FTOs more accountable for the thoroughness of their IP.

IMPROVED FTO TRAINING

Defense Security Assistance Agency should improve training of Foreign Training Officers. Presently, training for Foreign Training Officers consists of two short courses: the Foreign Training Officer Course and the Cross Cultural Communications Course. These courses are designed as introductory courses for newly-appointed FTOs, and provide basic instruction in administration, the IP, and fundamentals of U.S. security assistance policy. The
restructuring of the existing courses and the addition of several other courses would serve to strengthen the Security Assistance Training Program.

The Foreign Training Officer Course, taught at the Defense Institute of Security Assistance Management, is a broad entry-level course. It covers, in four and one-half days, U.S. Security Assistance policy, Student Administration, the Informational Program, and Cross-cultural Communications. Students are not given examinations. In short, the course covers too much material in too short a period, without holding students accountable for learning the material presented. For example, the Informational Program is one of the fundamental objectives of our security assistance efforts. Yet only three and one-half hours are reserved for instruction about the IP. Seven and one-half hours of instruction are allotted to seminars on regional cultural aspects, which effectively duplicate instruction presented in the Cross-Cultural Communications Course.

DISAM should expand the FTO Course to two weeks in length, make it more demanding, and non-repetitive. All blocks of instruction should include examinations to measure student comprehension. The regional cultural aspects should be eliminated from the FTO Course, as should the portion on cross cultural communications, for this simply is a weak imitation of the Cross Cultural Communications Course.
The course should be restructured into two week-long phases. During the first week, the students would receive instruction on U.S. Security Assistance as an instrument of foreign policy, including the historical background, basic legislation, and legal constraints. The U.S. SATP would be discussed, to include policies, objectives and the organization for security assistance training. The role of the DSAA, DA, TRADOC, the SAO, and the FTO would be emphasized. The final three days of the first phase would focus on the administrative operations of the Foreign Training Office, liaison with the academic departments, and aspects of monitoring student progress and handling student problems. Students would learn techniques of counseling and a final practical exercise would have students role play problem situations which commonly arise during training.

The second phase of the FTO Course would focus on the Informational Program. During this phase, adjunct faculty from local universities would present instruction on each topic of the IP, to insure that FTOs have a solid base of knowledge on which to build. Students would be assigned reading assignments and serve as discussion leaders during seminars on each topic. They would be taken on sample IP tours and events in the local area to see first hand how to plan and execute an IP tour. Finally, students would participate in a practical exercise in which they planned an
annual IP schedule and individual IP events. This would give them a much better understanding of how to meet the IP objectives at their own training installation.

All instruction on Cross-Cultural Communications and regional cultural aspects should be given in the Cross-Cultural Communications Course, a one week course taught by the U.S. Air Force Special Operations School at Hurlburt Field, Florida. However, this course is also too easy and too short. No exams are given. The course should also be expanded to two weeks long: the course compresses too much information in a single week and relies too much on lectures. Instructors should review world geography, and students should be quizzed on this. The regional orientation currently used is good, but should be expanded. Students should have to participate in practical exercises in which they must demonstrate an understanding of a foreign student's cultural background. Students should be responsible for reading assignments and leading discussions. In short, the course should balance lectures with performance-oriented exercises.

Defense Security Assistance Agency should consider establishing a professional development program for Foreign Training Officers. Presently, the only training available for FTOs consists of the two above-mentioned courses. DSAA should require DISAM to develop refresher training and
advanced training for FTOs to increase their understanding of their role within the U.S. security assistance system and to promote a deeper understanding of the IP topics.

Finally, DSAA should task DISAM to develop an executive course for school supervisors of FTOs. This course need last no more than three days, and should provide a frame of reference for supervisors of FTOs so they better understand the objectives of the SATP and the IP. TRADOC could require attendance at this course for newly-appointed supervisors.

All newly-assigned FTOs, upon completion of the FTO course, should complete a period of on-the-job (OJT) at another training installation, observing the program of an experienced FTO. This OJT would complement the classroom instruction with practical experience. The period of OJT need be no longer than two weeks.

Under this enhanced FTO training program, new FTOs will have a better grasp of the skills they will need in developing a successful SATP at their installation. Their supervisors will also have a better appreciation for the scope of the SATP. All FTO staff members will have significant cross-cultural communications skills, and FTOs will have experienced mentors available for advising them on improving their operations.
IP-RELATED MATERIALS

Another problem Foreign Training Officers encounter is a lack of appropriate training aids and materials for use in conjunction with the Informational Program. Without appropriate training aids to support and reinforce the IP, the learning experience of the foreign student is weakened. This section suggests that the effectiveness of the IP can be enhanced by the development and distribution of supplemental materials.

English language training of foreign students at the Defense Language Institute English Language Center concentrates on teaching students terminology focused on the military-related instruction they will receive at their follow-on service school. Most of the specialized terminology is technical in nature, such as electronic communications, aviation, logistics, or medical terms. For students to understand the somewhat more abstract terms and concepts they will encounter during IP events, DLIELC should incorporate IP-related vocabulary in the general curriculum. In this way, students arriving at their primary training installation will be better prepared to gain immediate benefits of the school's IP activities.

Another measure which DSAA could take to support the FTO conduct an effective IP would entail developing and
distributing reference materials for the FTO's use. Most
FTOs rely solely on the Foreign Training Officer's Guide for
advice on cross-cultural communications, regional cultural
aspects, and Informational Program topics. While it is a
very good single source, the guide is for the FTO's personal
use. A good use of IP funds would be to develop a book to be
given to each international student which covers each IP
topic. The style of the book would be very informal and must
avoid a propagandistic tone. Instead, the approach could be
one of "Welcome to the United States. Here is some
information about our country which may help you during your
visit here". A "souvenir" type book, which the student would
proudly display to his family and friends in his home
country would be very effective. The book should include a
page for affixing a snapshots of the FTO staff, the school
commandant, and the student receiving his school badge or
participating on an IP tour. The first chapter would welcome
the student to the United States and give the students tips
about American culture and U.S. military customs. Subsequent
chapters would describe a little about this country's
history, geography, government, people, until all IP topics
are covered. The language must be relatively simple and each
chapter should include attractive photographs and maps. The
book should include a few pages as a scrapbook so the
student could personalize it with photographs, ticket stubs,
or other similar items. Of course, the book should be hard cover and of high quality. Such a book would become a treasured momento of the student's visit to the United States, and would certainly supplement the informal nature of the IP.

Every FTO should develop an IP library for students to use during their leisure time. DSAA should develop a bibliography of relatively simple books, posters, and audio-visual items related to each IP topic. The FTO could use existing IP funds to purchase these items.48 Besides establishing an IP library for foreign student use, the FTO could purchase books and materials related to cross-cultural communication, regional and country studies, sociology, U.S. foreign policy, international relations, and geography for use by the FTO staff, school staff and instructors, and social and academic sponsors.49

There are a number of such items commercially available. For example, each locality has some sort of school supply store with many posters which could be used in conjunction with IP activities. These include posters about minorities, government, and business. Only the student IP souvenir book would require creation of a new product. However some organization must develop the bibliography and identify vendors. Presently, each FTO develops his own reference materials. Some are not doing so at all.50 DISAM would be the logical choice to accomplish this task.
SCHOOL STAFF TRAINING

Currently, only the Foreign Training Officer benefits from training on cross-cultural communications. However, the majority of the student's time during the duty day is spent with instructors and classmates. There is no formal program to prepare these individuals for their interaction with the international students in their classes. Most instructors have little understanding about the aim of the SATP or how to relate to the foreign students who appear in their classes. In my discussions with these sergeants and officers, I came to realize that there should be a systematic approach so that all instructors receive this training prior to their teaching foreign students. This can be done relatively easily. Every newly-designated instructor must attend a three-week Instructor Training Course. During this course, the novice instructor learns how to teach. It would be easy for the Foreign Training Officer to present a period of instruction on basic concepts of training and working with foreign students. Not only would instructors receive this critical class at the beginning of their assignment, but they would meet the Foreign Training Officer and know to whom to turn should additional advice be needed. TRADOC could mandate the incorporation of this training into the Instructor Training Course. The Foreign
Training Officer should also conduct refresher training sessions within each training department periodically.

PREPARATORY COURSES FOR ALL PROFESSIONAL COURSES

At present, only five schools require international students to attend preparatory courses. These courses prepare groups of international students for entrance into certain professional military education courses. For example, the Command and General Staff College offers a four-week long course:

To prepare the International officer's ability to participate in the CGSC environment using the English language; to familiarize the student with the small group instruction methodology and resulting classroom environment; and to provide an appreciation of the political, social, and economic factors that have a bearing on U.S. people, their traditions and way of life. Training includes English language enhancement, military terminology usage, classroom participation exercises and local area, Fort Leavenworth and CGSC orientation.

Other service schools conduct preparatory courses ranging from one to two weeks in length, mostly covering technical terminology in communications-electronics or infantry subjects, for example.

To insure that the U.S. government gets the best return on its IMET investment, all service schools should organize
two-week long preparatory courses for PME courses. The preparatory course should be patterned on the CGSC course. In this way, the international student receives a better grasp of U.S organizations, doctrine and military terminology. This would also give the FTO time to introduce subjects related to the IP.
Notes (Chapter VI)


3 Ibid., pp. 3-2 through 3-3.

4 Ibid., pp. 11-1 through 11-4.

5 Ibid., pp. 5-1 through 5-6.

6 Ibid., pp 3-7 through 3-9.

7 U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command, Allied Training Officer's Handbook (1986), pp. 2-1 through 2-4. My annual budget for IP activities while I served as FTO was nearly $100,000.00.

8 Ibid., appendix C.

9 Ibid.

10 Ibid.


12 Statistical data provided by Ms. Kay Bell, Informational Program Coordinator, U.S. Army Quartermaster School, Fort Lee, Virginia, February 12, 1990.

13 DA PAM 600-3, p. 6.

14 Department of the Army Form 67-8-1, "Officer Support Form," personal papers of the author.


16 Conversations between the author and other Foreign Training Officers during conferences and courses.

17 Ibid.
DA PAM 600-3, p. 8.

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36 ATO Handbook, p. 5-1.

37 Ibid., p. 5-2.

38 Observation of the author based on conversations with fellow FTO's during discussions of IP activities at the FTO Conference, San Antonio, Texas, July 1987.

39 ATO Handbook, pp. 2-6 through 2-7.


41 Ibid.

42 Ibid.


44 Ibid.

45 JSAT, p. 3-3.

46 Ibid.


48 Ibid., pp. 2-1 through 2-4.

49 The author purchased over $5,000.00 worth of such materials while serving as FTO.

50 Based on conversations with fellow FTO's.


52 Ibid., pp. 8-93, 8-106, 8-117, 8-216.

53 Ibid.

54 Ibid., p. 8-98

55 Ibid., pp. 8-106, 8-117, 8-216.
CONCLUSION

The U.S. military assistance training program has steadily evolved from a technical orientation to include U.S. political and cultural goals. The original intent of the U.S. Army Security Assistance Training Program was to bolster the military forces of post-war western Europe. As late as 1965, the training given foreign officers and soldiers tended to be "hardware oriented... oriented toward specific military problems rather than general social and economic ones".¹ During the 1960's, the Kennedy and Johnson administrations designed the Informational Program to strengthen "the bonds of mutual understanding" by introducing "thousands of actual or potential foreign leaders to American life and institutions."² Department of Defense Directive 5410.17, published in 1965, formally established the Informational Program in response to this goal. Thus, while the SATP is not primarily a nation-
building program, that has become one of the programs secondary objectives.

The Executive Branch has created a large, worldwide organization to manage the Security Assistance Training Program. Bureaucracies exist within the Departments of State and Defense to establish policy, plan, and orchestrate U.S. military assistance training. These agencies are generally well organized and well staffed. Yet, as this study has described, the SATP could be more capably administered at the Foreign Training Officer level. The Foreign Training Officer of each service school is ultimately responsible for the experience each international student has in the United States. Despite the importance of all of the policy makers and high-level staff officers who play a part in the SATP, the FTO plays the key role.

Studying security assistance training is difficult, for relatively little has been written about it. Few periodicals yield much substantive research on the subject. Scholars and journalists show great interest in the larger subject of arms transfers, but much more work remains to be accomplished in studying the military training programs of the United States and other nations with active programs. Because training involves person-to-person contact, these nations tend to view these programs as another tool with which to cultivate influence in foreign leaders. Security
assistance training is an important element of U.S. foreign and military policies and warrants further investigation.
Notes (Conclusion)


APPENDIX

ACRONYMS

AECA-- Arms Export and Control Act of 1976
ANZUS-- Australia, New Zealand, United States
AYTO-- Allied Training Officer (former title of FTO)
CENTO-- Central Treaty Organization
CGSC-- U.S. Army Command and General Staff College
DISAM-- Defense Institute of Security Assistance Management
DLIELC-- Defense Language Institute English Language Center
DSAA-- Defense Security Assistance Agency
ECL-- English Comprehension Level
FAA-- Foreign Assistance Act
FMS-- Foreign Military Sales
FTO-- Foreign Training Officer, Foreign Training Office
IMET-- International Military Education and Training Program
IP-- Department of Defense Informational Program
LIC-- Low Intensity Conflict
MAP-- Military Assistance Program
MASL-- Military Articles and Services List
MDAA-- Mutual Defense Assistance Act of 1949
NATO-- North Atlantic Treaty Organization
OJT-- "On the job" training
PME-- Professional Military Education
SAMM-- Security Assistance Management Manual
SATFA-- U.S. Army Security Assistance Training Field Activity
SATP-- Security Assistance Training Program
SAO-- Security Assistance Officer, Security Assistance Organization

SEATO-- Southeast Asia Treaty Organization

TRADOC-- U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command
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VITA

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