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Vesa Nissinen



Military Leadership Training

Development of Leadership
Behavior in the Finnish Defence Forces

Publication Series 1
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FOREWORD

The aim of leadership training is to develop the leadership culture of the entire defence administration in areas of core know-how, which are the development of leadership behavior, the control of leadership processes, evaluation, the development of administration and the development of strategic thinking. These core processes are supported by research of as high quality as possible.

Leadership training has a great impact on the Defence Forces' ability to carry out its main duties. It is advantageous to the Defence Forces if the leadership training we provide is also valued elsewhere in society. The benefit obtained by the entire society from this type of leadership training is significant. It has to be remembered that with almost three million days of training every year, the Defence Forces is undeniably the largest organization of leadership training in Finland. With the new leadership training program, we have raised the contents, methods and objectives of leadership training to a remarkably high level. When we are able to carry out the leadership training reform in the field as well, we will also create prerequisites for managing change in the future.

The introduction of the new leadership training program has been made possible by purposeful research related to the development of training. The scientific foundation of the program can stand up even to critical scrutiny. Likewise, the contents of the program may be compared to the harsh experiences of war veterans. The methods have received an exceptionally warm welcome from all trainees. This book provides everyone interested in the new leadership training program with an opportunity to become familiar with the basics, contents, methods and daily procedures of our leadership training.

Esko Vaahtolammi

Colonel, Head of the Department of Management and Leadership

TO THE READER

Leadership training has a special position in a military organization. When the training is successful, it has an effect not only on the changing comprehensive capabilities, but on the organization itself through the changing leadership culture. Due to a large training volume, change is reflected on the surrounding society as well. Therefore it is necessary to take leadership training and its foundation seriously enough. Discussion must be open and continuous. The objective of this book is to create pre-conditions for critical study of and open discussion about leadership training. The book takes quite an extensive look into the new leadership training program, starting from the metascience of leadership and finishing with concrete training examples and personal development as a leader. It is a prerequisite of constructive discussion that the subject area in question is known with sufficient precision.

The book is divided into two parts. The first part covers the theoretical foundation of the leadership training program from the viewpoint of research and educational planning. The second part covers the contents and methods of the leadership training program, as well as a description of the process of developing leadership training in a military organization. The second part is supplemented by instructions on how to interpret a deep leadership questionnaire. The instructions have been placed in the appendix.

The first part of the book is meant especially for those readers who are doing research on the same subject area or are otherwise interested in current development of the study of leadership as a part of leadership behavior. The first part also provides a foundation for scientific evaluation on a limited scale that is outside the program: the actual scientific basic study concerning the practicality of the deep leadership model is still being worked on.

The second part of the book is for general use. The part can be used as teaching material for the basic, advanced and continuing education of military leaders, in which case the actual teaching material, the booklet "Sotilasjohtajien johtaja- ja kouluttajakoulutus. Johtajaksi kasvaminen" (Leadership and Instructor Training of Military Leaders. Growing to Be a Leader.), published by the Training Division of the

Defence Staff, must be handed out to the students. The second part of this book also gives practical advice on and application examples of the use of teaching methods for those individuals who apply the leadership training program in their own training events in the Defence Forces as well as elsewhere. The second part provides a foundation for the development of personal leadership behavior and replaces as teaching material the earlier (1997) research report "Varusmiesten johtajakoulutuksen perusteet".

Although the second part of the book includes a great deal of material related to the application of the leadership training program, the book is nevertheless a basic study in nature. In order to preserve readability, the number of references has been limited. Books worth consulting are mentioned in the references to each chapter. Further information concerning the application of the leadership training program can be obtained from the books "Uuteen johtajakoulutukseen" (Towards the New Leadership Training)(2000) and "Johtajakoulutus murroksessa" (Leadership Training in Transition) (2000), which are recommended to be read together with this book especially in institutions of military education.

Professor Jarmo Toiskallio, Colonel Reijo Vainio, Colonel Tapio Partanen and Lieutenant Colonel Kari-Pekka Rannikko read the first draft of this book and provided significant suggestions for improvement. I would like to thank them and the entire staff of the National Defence College's Department of Management and Leadership for the support and help I have received in the past few years when the new leadership training program has been studied, improved and applied to practice. The final revision of the book was made by Chief of the Training Division, Colonel Kalle Liesinen. During his time as the Chief of the Training Division, Colonel Erkki Nordberg also created significant preconditions for the realization of the new leadership training program. A well-deserved but rarely expressed thanks goes to the many pioneers of the new leadership training program, who with their own work all over the Defence Forces have helped to get the change started.

As the reader will notice, the new leadership training program is not contents-wise in conflict with the books *Sotilasjohtaja I* and *II*, published in 1990; the entity of military leadership and the "characteristics" of a good military leader have not changed. Re-

membering a list of the qualities of leadership in an exam is not development as a leader, though - *training must have an impact*. In this book I will show how it is possible to proceed from the theory of leadership to practice and to the level of individual learning and development.

In Santahamina, July 2000

Vesa Nissinen

MILITARY LEADERSHIP TRAINING

Development of Leadership Behavior in the Finnish Defence Forces

Foreword

To the Reader

Contents

Photographs, Figures and Tables

Introduction

PART I THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAM

1. THE NEW PARADIGM OF LEADERSHIP

- 1.1 Paradigm as a scientific concept
- 1.2 Paradigmatic foundation of the study of leadership
- 1.3 Transformational leadership
- 1.4 The paradigmatic foundation of the leadership training program of the Finnish Defence Forces

2. STRUCTURE OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAM

- 2.1 The leadership training program as a system of education
- 2.2 The premise of the leadership training program
- 2.3 Leadership training, paradox and change
- 2.4 Development as a leader
- 2.5 The hierarchy of the objectives of the leadership training program
- 2.6 Evaluating the effectiveness of the leadership training program

PART II CARRYING OUT THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAM

3. THE CONTENTS INFORMATION OF LEADERSHIP TRAINING

- 3.1 The general framework of leadership
- 3.2 The framework of leadership behavior
- 3.3 The model of deep leadership
- 3.4 Application and critique of the deep leadership model

4. METHODS OF LEADERSHIP TRAINING

4.1 Military pedagogy and military leadership

4.2 The methods of leadership training

4.3 Examples of applying the methods in training situations

5. DEVELOPMENT AS A LEADER

5.1 The development of leadership behavior in military service

5.2 The development of leadership behavior in institutions of military education

5.3 The development of leadership behavior in service

5.4 To a military leader

BIBLIOGRAPHY

APPENDIX Instructions for the interpretation of the deep leadership questionnaire with tables

FIGURES, PHOTOGRAPHS AND TABLES

Figures and Photographs

Figure 1	The central concepts of the research and teaching of military leadership in relation to the setting of the goals of training
Figure 2	The entity of the leadership training program
Figure 3	Paradox in the theory of leadership
Figure 4	The framework of development as a leader in the training of military leaders
Figure 5	The general framework of leadership
Figure 6	The framework of leadership behavior
Figure 7	A simplified feedback process
Figure 8	The feedback process model
Figure 9	The deep leadership model
Photograph 10	Exercise keeps soldiers and civilians alike in good health and working order
Photograph 11	Compared to a recruit, a squad leader is an expert on the routines of service
Photograph 12	Discussion on feedback is irrespective of time and place
Photograph 13	Feedback reveals whether leadership has been based on personal example
Photograph 14	As an operational environment, a vessel has its own special characteristics
Photograph 15	Each trainee has already some experience of the leadership culture of the defence forces
Photograph 16	One of the traditional applications of peer evaluation is the selection of the officer awarded with the sword of honor
Photograph 17	Feedback sessions are an essential part of training geared towards peace support operations
Photograph 18	We just learned something: "Let's all stop here!"
Figure 19	Task-specific development
Photograph 20	The legacy of veterans (in the words of Alpo Reinikainen)

Tables

Table 1	Trends in leadership theory and research
Table 2	An example of a scoring table resulting from the analysis of leadership behavior

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is an important factor of success to every organization. The demands of leadership that have emerged from both research and everyday life are today perhaps greater than ever before. Leaders are expected to be capable of making personnel committed, obtaining exceptional results, building visions and managing change, while routines and processes have to function effectively. The challenges are the same no matter what is the nature of the organization.

Military leadership is leadership in a military organization. During times of peace, a military leader faces in different situations the same challenges as any other leader. The leader of a civilian organization does not, however, have to prepare to face the most demanding challenge of leadership: the responsibility for both the task and people is stretched to the limit during war. The ultimate effectiveness of a military leader is measured in battle that contains many lasting elements at the level of an individual person despite technological development. Leading people in battle has always been among the most demanding situations of leadership. At organizational level these challenges can be responded to in two sectors that are related to each other: the selection of leaders and leadership training.

Which part of leadership is innate and to what extent can leadership be learned? This is an example of a fundamental question that illustrates the connection between leader selection and leadership training. This connection functions as a framework and a premise for the study of leadership training, because in order to guarantee the best result, the systems of leader selection and leadership training should be developed side by side, on the basis of the same theory. This book, however, concentrates only on leadership training in the defence forces' area of operations.

As a subject of study, leadership training is complex. Complexity starts from leadership as a phenomenon, its conceptualization and modeling. Understanding and describing this phenomenon is nevertheless important, because it creates preconditions for the understanding of the entity. Leadership training has created for various institutions a possibility to function, associations and companies, because the demand for leadership training is continuous. Many training programs and sys-

tems of measurement lack credibility and coherence that are provided by an extensive theoretical foundation. Therefore it is important in this book to introduce thoroughly the scientific viewpoint on which the Defence Forces' new leadership training program is based.

Leadership and leadership training form a closed circle. The ability and way of today's leaders to perceive the demands of the future defines the premise for the implementation of leadership training. In this situation it is advantageous to the organization if research can be used to find and pinpoint at least some lasting elements on which the control of the change in the area of operations can be built. Based on the latest studies on leadership, it can be assumed that a stable and even universal element in leadership has been found. This "universal element" has had a strong effect on the study of leadership as well as on leadership training all over the world. This element is studied within the framework of a new paradigm: *leadership based on the concept of leadership behavior*. The simple models built around this approach cover in our new leadership training program many managerial aspects.

In leadership training the study, models, methods, and contents of leadership are combined. A military leader is always the trainer as well as coach of his subordinates. On this basis there has been a reason to find out whether leadership and training have a common framework, a conceptual and functional foundation. Thanks to a study carried out in the Finnish National Defence College in the past few years, the training of military leadership now has a foundation that stems mainly from the research tradition of behavioral sciences. On this basis it is possible to train military leaders who can lead a battle and also face the challenges of the future and change.

The new leadership training program presented in this book presents as such a change to many military leaders. At the level of basic assumptions the change is ostensible: deep leadership does not actually contain any new information. At the level of procedures, however, the need for change is real. Carrying out the leadership training program is a generation-long process. The Defence Forces still has to maintain its competitiveness and credibility in various fields of activity. The leadership training reform concentrates on the most important resource of competitiveness and success: the military leaders taking their first steps into their careers.

In practice the leadership training reform would best take place if we could separate ourselves from earlier routines and set ways and create something new based on visions and experience. Personnel already in service does, however, need an opportunity to understand and internalize the basic idea of the new training program so that they can commit themselves to carrying it out in practice. For this reason, presentations like that shown in figure 1 are needed: they open up a new view with existing, established concepts. The figure is based on the setting of objectives for the training of military leadership; the second chapter of this book will deal with the topic more closely.

Both research and training should form entities whose objectives and contents can be perceived and related to each other in, for example, the framework shown in figure 1. This principle should be the leading thought of every trainer, instructor, researcher and superior in all institutions of military training. The principle should also cross the borders of departments and subjects in high-quality leadership training. Research and training are not in conflict with each other, but their concepts and methods are sometimes different. The peace and war time duties of military leaders are not in conflict, either; the case is the opposite. Even during times of peace, an effective training system prepares for the duties of war times. This requires, however, the purposeful building of common views and foundations.

The view of training

The first phase of the training of military leaders covers the leadership training of conscripts and the basic training of personnel who are to work as leaders. In this case, the level that can during war times be called operational and in peace times low-level management or professional tasks, is dealt with. The emphasis of training should be found in the areas of practical information and skills and the development of leadership behavior. A foundation for the development of conceptual thinking is at this stage created through research education and self-evaluation related to the development as a leader, among other things.

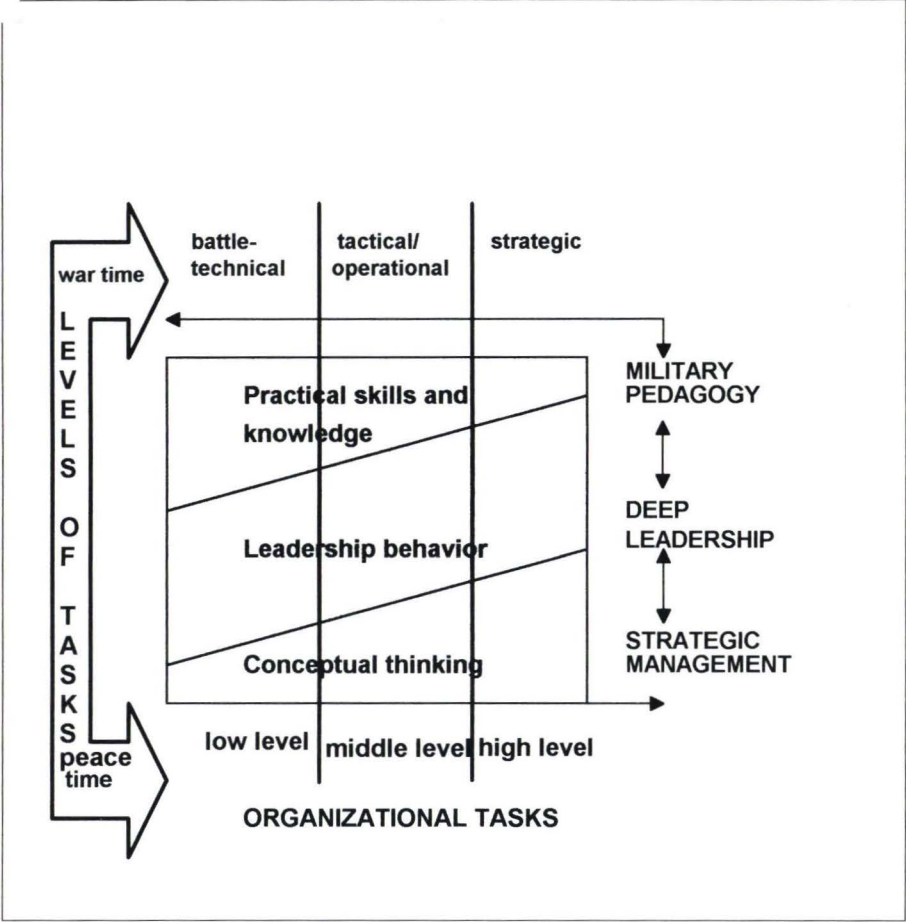


Figure 1. The central concepts of the research and teaching of military leadership in relation to the setting of the goal of training

The second phase of the training of military leaders covers the first phase of the advanced training of personnel. Personnel is trained to function at the tactical and operational level of war time troops. The objective in the peace time career is to master the duties of the middle level leadership and expert positions and to develop in them. The evaluation and development of leadership behavior retains an important role in training. On the other hand, resources are moved from the area of practical information and skills to training that develops conceptual thinking.

The third phase of the training of military leaders covers the second phase of the training of personnel. During this phase, a selected group of personnel is trained for the highest-level peace and war time duties. The old saying, "*The most important task of a commander is to think, think and think*" should be visible in the formation of the emphasis of training. New practical skills are taught only when needed, but even more so the emphasis is on officers' ability to think: to control entities, understand history, perceive change, think ahead, make decisions at the right time and utilize time and resources efficiently. The significance of leadership behavior is maintained: the development of one's own leadership does not end, and the emphasis of making the most of the organization's human resources, or the leadership of people, becomes even stronger when considering the overall result.

Personnel hired to the Defence Forces on the basis their civilian training is given basic and continuing training based on career planning and the requirements of their duties. The before mentioned principles that apply to individuals placed in leadership positions are followed in this case as well.

The view of subjects

The division into departments and subjects that prevails in institutions of military education is one of the factors that limit free thinking and the control of entities. From the viewpoint of one subject or department, it is difficult to see the entity shown in figure 1 unless it is demanded and systematically brought out. It is also difficult to bring the entity into practice unless tools are built for it in cooperation.

Elements relating to the three central sectors are found from each subject in training as well as research. For example the development of leadership behavior in institutions of military education is in no way connected to the teaching of leadership skills; instead, it should be the responsibility of each instructor to educate and develop a younger military leader. It is also the responsibility of each trainer that the trainees begin to thinki critically about the views and contents being dealt with at the time.

A common denominator that penetrates the entire framework is the military leadership process with all its phases, procedures and tools. In principle, peace and war

time leadership processes do not have significant differences: the area of operations, situational factors and time determine how to appropriately apply the military leadership process in different situations. The most critical point of the leadership process is decision-making. Military leaders are trained to be efficient decision-makers. Efficiency requires flexibility and optimal use of available resources, though; at the beginning of a leadership process the amount of time for decision-making should always be the starting point. The most efficient military leader masters the leadership process so well that he is capable of flexibly integrating or omitting parts of the process within the limits of time available. When preparing war time decisions or building peace time visions, it is always advantageous to put the ideas and creativity of the organization into good use. *How are people's ideas and creativity utilized in the leadership process?* These are the kinds of questions to which answers should be found in the training of military leaders.

A central part of the developing military leadership and the control of the leadership process is anticipatory leadership. The ability to think ahead is essential to a military leader in all leadership environments and the importance of this ability only grows as the level of leadership increases. *What is the nature of a training process in which the ability of trainees to think ahead is purposefully increased?* Answering this question automatically produces more questions, like: *How can a military leader exploit his subordinates, headquarters and various information systems in the handling and analysis of relevant information in relation to the future?* Answering these questions requires extensive cooperation and thinking that is not limited to one subject only.

The view of research

The research of military leadership does not have one and only one paradigm or research tradition; instead, research must take advantage of the latest information and the most suitable methods widely across the field of traditional research. On a general level this means an interdisciplinary premise, on the level of a single study a methodological triangulation and the unprejudiced synthesizing of the latest information in a chosen framework, among other things. Even the most advanced research can be useless from the organization's point of view if the results can not be used in further research or in everyday life. Information that supports and develops the train-

ing system of military leaders can be produced in a framework like the one shown in figure 1. This way the direct points of contact between research and training can be found.

Military pedagogy is a new area of research which gives science-based but still concrete enough answers and tools in the area of teaching practical skills and information. Military pedagogy is a doctrine of educational skills: of the setting of objectives, the guidance of learning and the evaluation of training activity and know-how. Military pedagogy is not limited only to the area of practical skills and information, but the planning, management and evaluation of training extend beyond the need for research across the entire field of activities. At the same time, an overlapping structure is created in the area of research in which military pedagogy, deep leadership and strategic management come together.

Strategic management is a concept and a tool with the help of which an attempt is made to illustrate the entity of military leadership especially in the Defence Forces of peace times. The contents of the concept have been studied and defined in many recent publications that have also incorporated commercial concepts of strategy. If the goal is to find a definition that is useful to both research and training, it is probably best in military leadership to rely on the starting points of military theory. The definition is then as follows: *Strategic management is the anticipatory and comprehensive management of the highest leadership of the Defence Forces that takes into use and directs optimally the resources that society has allocated for the attainment of the vision that is based on the duties of the Defence Forces.*

The capabilities for strategic management (especially in general staff officer training) are created by developing the ability of the trainees for *strategic thinking* that, according to Mintzberg (1991), is simultaneously:

- looking ahead into the future, but also back into the past,
- looking from above and outside, like seeing a forest from a helicopter, but also looking from below and inside from the roots of the trees,
- looking past the usual and seeing what is usually not noticed or cannot be interpreted in everyday life,

- seeing alone is not enough; a real strategist makes sure that things really happen.

In order to support the development of strategic thinking, extensive research and training built on the research is needed. *It must be noted that strategic management and strategic thinking are not synonyms:* a military leader can, as he must, apply his capability for strategic (comprehensive and anticipatory) thinking to everything he does. For reasons of clarity, strategic management should be limited to a concept that describes the duties and essence of the highest level of military leadership.

The emphasis of this book

Considering the training of military leaders, the view of this book focuses on is the development of leadership behavior on the information basis of research on deep leadership. The definition "new leadership training program" is used for the entity that has in the recent years been built for the development of leadership behavior. The deep leadership model is based on frameworks, the most important of which are the general model of leadership and the framework of leadership behavior. The general model of leadership describes deep leadership as a part of strategic management. At individual level the framework of leadership behavior functions as the starting point for the development of leadership as well as trainership. Military pedagogy and deep leadership share a foundation of values and appreciations as well as an approach to the training of military leaders that is based on a constructive concept of learning.

The significance of this book

The new leadership training program of the Finnish Defence Forces with its teaching materials and feedback systems is already in use in the field as well as in institutions of military education. In order to develop the program and to follow its effects the need for research continue to extend. There is therefore a current need for a book that fulfils the criteria for a basic study and explains the scientific background, objectives, contents, methods and structures of the program. Defining the basic concepts as a basis for applied research is necessary at this point. The personnel in service

also deserves an opportunity to receive up to date information about the foundation and justifications of the system that employs them. The Defence Forces' need for this book stems from the daily life of training and research.

When considering the effects of the leadership training of the Defence Forces, the matter is not limited to the military organization. Through military service alone, almost 10 000 individuals receive every year a foundation for leadership in accordance with the new leadership training program with the wish that they continue their development as leaders in the reserve. Therefore our leadership training has an effect on the entire society over a long time span. Through associations that coordinate reserve activities and voluntary national defence, the contents of the leadership training program have begun to move towards the awareness of leaders in the reserve. Many polytechnics and vocational schools have begun an active exchange of information with institutions of military education and military units concerning the new leadership training. In order to serve all these cooperating sectors, a comprehensive description of the new leadership training program is needed.

The structure of this book

The *first chapter* of this book summarizes, with the help of the concept of paradigm, those basic assumptions springing from research that the whole program is built on. The basic assumptions are fitted into the framework of military leadership. The central research methods that are typically applied in this research and that are required by the concept of paradigm are also briefly dealt with.

The *second chapter* covers the leadership training program as a coherent education system. The main parts of the system - the basic assumptions, contents information, method information and system information - are presented with their frameworks, the most important of which is the constructive concept of learning as the basic structure of method information. When dealing with the management of change, the concept of paradigm is introduced as one tends to run into it from different viewpoints in the study of leadership. The evaluation of the effect of the whole system and its comprehensive evaluation receive the emphasis of a self-correcting system.

The *third chapter* focuses on the contents information of the system. The general framework of leadership gives to leadership training the viewpoint of strategic management. Similarly the framework of leadership behavior gives to leadership training the view of an individual person as well as a foundation for the model of deep leadership. Feedback has also a central role in the development of leadership behavior. In connection with the presentation of the deep leadership model, the model's application and critique are dealt with as well.

The *fourth chapter* has its novelty value. The chapter briefly builds a connection between the basics of military pedagogy and mission command. On this basis, those concrete methods that should be applied in leadership training are presented in detail. On the basis of method information and previous experiences, the chapter also includes examples of outlining and timing lectures and training events.

The *fifth chapter* approaches the everyday life of each and every military leader by describing the processes and methods that are used to develop leadership behavior in courses as well as in the work community. The main thread of the chapter is understanding the development of a leader as a life-long, internal process. Self-regulation is emphasized, because the individual himself is responsible for the progress of this process. The development of leadership behavior is the part of the process that is visible to the outside. In connection to learning within the work community, the responsible role of every military leader as the coach, developer and supporter of his subordinates in these aspirations is emphasized.

The *appendix* of the book contains instructions for the interpretation of the deep leadership questionnaire. The purpose of the instructions is to help military leaders to analyze feedback from their own work community, find support for their development aspirations and give reasons for the coaching of their subordinates.

Of further research

In the near future, a special emphasis will be on the kind of research that is conducted in the Finnish area of operations and culture. For obvious reasons, the empirical research done in the Defence Forces in the area of leadership is today

connected to the activities of peace time. Studying the connection between the results of leadership and activities offers an important research framework to leadership training. From the viewpoint of a military organization, the connection between leadership and training results is the most essential. According to observations that are made already, research in this area is not without its problems, because there are still unresolved challenges related to the comparable measuring of training results. In this sense the study of leadership could serve as a catalyst for the development of training.

During times of peace, a large number of the personnel of the Finnish Defence Forces is assigned to duties that are not directly related to training and its results. The effects of leadership on the effectiveness of activity must not be evaluated only in the field but elsewhere as well. Quality assessments in the Defence Forces, work atmosphere questionnaires and objective-oriented evaluations create preconditions for this research. With research, we can widen our knowledge about the nature of leadership, for example by clarifying the relationship between leadership culture prevailing in the organization and the leadership behavior of the nearest superior.

As I stated earlier, the system of leader selection is connected directly to leadership training at research level. A simple principle is that the importance of selection is the largest in those qualities and characteristics of an individual that can be influenced the least through training. In addition to limited resources, defining and measuring the criteria that describe the actual performance of a military leader have posed challenges to the development of the selection system. A numerical leader profile that has been produced with the deep leadership questionnaire according to the principles of work community feedback offers an excellent tool for the evaluation of the selection process of conscript leaders as well as for the selection itself in the later stages of a military leader's career. When the feedback system has been established, certain further studies have been completed, and as a follow-up study progresses, significant new opportunities can be seen for the development of the selection process. These opportunities can not be put to good use without systematic planning and strong cooperation between the developers of the selection and training processes, though.

The National Defence College's Department of Leadership and Management aims to coordinate and direct further studies relating to the new leadership training program. During the year 2000, the objective is to build a research map based on the leadership training program with the help of which new research needs and projects are defined and new studies are jointed onto a common conceptual framework. Further studies are being conducted at this moment and will be done as research work conducted by student officers as well as actual research projects in both the Defence Forces and elsewhere in society.

In the near future the greatest challenge is to use research to show deep leadership's connection to and effect on organizational effectiveness. The first comparative study, in which the criteria are the quality of the company (as self-evaluation), its training results (evaluated by commanders) and the leadership behavior of the company commander (measured by the deep leadership questionnaire), has just been completed. Based on statistical analysis, those companies whose commanders have the profile of a deep leader are quality- and training result-wise significantly better than other companies (Vuorio, 2001).

There is an increasing need for, as well as more room for further research, because leadership penetrates every activity of an organization. For the credibility, usability and development of the new leadership training program, it is necessary to carry out as many studies as possible, but without sacrificing quality. On the other hand, every military leader can, if he so wishes, himself study and develop his work in the area of leadership training.

PART I

The Theoretical Foundation of the Leadership Training Program

"The ultimate test of moral leadership is its capacity to transcend the claims of the multiplicity of everyday wants and needs and expectations, to respond to the higher levels of moral development, and to relate leadership behavior - its roles, choices, style, commitments - to a set of reasoned, relatively explicit, conscious values."

James MacGregor Burns

1. THE NEW PARADIGM OF LEADERSHIP

Behind the new leadership training program of the Finnish Defence Forces is an internationally significant research trend that can be called the new paradigm of leadership^[1]. The basic assumptions and theoretical background of the new leadership training program are difficult to perceive as a whole without knowledge of the concept of paradigm in its scientific meaning.

I will deal with the most central school inside the new paradigm of leadership. The school functions in the area of transformational leadership research. The work of this scientific community has led to significant results in different parts of the world in the areas of both research and leadership training^[2]. The paradigmatic starting points of the new leadership training program of the Finnish Defence Forces are mainly based on the results of the work of this scientific community led by Professor Bernard M. Bass. An essential part of this scientific work are several joint research and training projects with the armed forces of the United States and Israel, among others^[3].

Research related to the modeling of transformational leadership is a significant part of the contents information of the new paradigm^[4]. The expansion of research that applies the new leadership paradigm is rapid, and new information is produced all over the world in different kinds of organizations. The paradigm, therefore, is experiencing an upswing. An increasingly larger part of research information is available on the internet in electronic form.

1.1 Paradigm as a scientific concept

Thomas Kuhn (1970) has developed a theory concerning scientific progress. In his approach, the paradigm is one of the central scientific concepts. According to Kuhn's definition,

"The study of paradigms, including many that are far more specialized than those named illustratively above, is what mainly prepares the student for membership in the particular scientific community with which he will later practice. ... Men whose research is based on shared paradigms

are committed to the same rules and standards for scientific practice. That commitment and the apparent consensus it produces are prerequisites for normal science, i.e., for the genesis and continuation of a particular research tradition." (Kuhn 1970, 10-11)

According to Kuhn, paradigms exist for a while, only to be eventually replaced by new paradigms. There can exist several paradigms within one discipline, in which case there may be a relatively small number of scientists within the sphere of one paradigm. A part of a paradigm's nature is also its development from a sketchy initial stage to a mature phase; the paradigm then offers a real foundation for both the solving of scientific problems and the success of talented scientists.

Carr and Kemmis (1986) consider the paradigm especially important in socio-scientific research. According to them, a paradigm is needed so that the results and conclusions of the scientist can be logically connected to the basis of the study. The paradigm reveals the beliefs and intentions of the scientist and so makes the research activity rational and its results valuable. The existence of a paradigm makes it possible to make good practical use of produced information in cases where there are plenty of views and approaches available.

Burrell and Morgan (1992) have studied the concept of paradigm in sociology. According to them,

"[Paradigm is] defined by very basic meta-theoretical assumptions which underwrite the frame of reference, mode of theorising and modus operandi of the social theorists who operate within them. It is a term which is intended to emphasise the commonality of perspective which binds the work of a group of theorists together in such a way that they can be usefully regarded as approaching social theory within the bounds of the same problematic." (Burrell & Morgan 1992, 23)

The paradigm concept of Burrell and Morgan is more narrow than that of Kuhn. Kuhn sees paradigm as an unsurpassed director of scientific thinking that determines how the scientist makes sense of reality. Burrell and Morgan see paradigm as an exten-

sive concept that "defines schools", but in a more practical and development-emphasizing sense than Kuhn.

Paradigm can refer to the viewpoints, methods, beliefs, values, ideas and attitudes adopted by the scientist, that have a rather comprehensive effect on his research. Jack Mezirow (1991) examines the concept of paradigm on the basis of studies by Kuhn, Goffman, Bateson and Goleman. According to Mezirow, paradigm is an expressed, theory-based perspective of meaning that has generally been accepted into use. Mezirow also sees problems in paradigmatic research; these problems are caused by paradigm's limiting effect. Paradigm can even function as a "cognitive filter" of some sort in research. The scientist therefore has to be clearly aware of his own paradigm and its possibilities and limitations so that the objectivity required by scientific work can be fulfilled within these limits.

In Finland the concept of paradigm has been studied by Väinö Heikkinen, Erkki A. Niskanen and Kyösti Raunio, among others. In his article "Kasvatuksen sisältöjen paradigmatallisia perusteita" (The Paradigmatic Foundations for the Contents of Education), Niskanen (1991) defines a pedagogic paradigm as follows:

The pedagogic paradigm is a tool of science just like terms, concepts, laws, theories and models. The pedagogic paradigm presents tools and ways to understand and describe the universe. The pedagogic paradigm presents ideas about the metascience of pedagogics. The pedagogic paradigm, therefore, draws from general metascience and pedagogic metascience, as well as specific material from research activity".
(Niskanen 1991, 34)

Niskanen considers it important that in different pedagogic duties paradigmatic foundations are defined specific to each situation and problem. On the other hand, it is not purposeful to problematize everything possible in a certain research situation. The existing paradigm then offers a metascientific foundation the scientist can lean on in his work.^[5]

In his book "Positivismi ja ihmistiede" (Positivism and Human Science), Kyösti Raunio (1999) extensively deals with the concept of paradigm as the basic structure of social study. Raunio emphasizes the significance of extensive paradigmatic understanding in scientific work. At its most narrow, paradigm is to the scientist only a methodical model and by following it almost blindly, it is possible to make progress in research. Closer to the scientific ideal is, however, the research tradition, adapted from Brante (1985), that takes into account the following starting points as an entity:

- *The paradigm itself*: a model that forms a foundation for research tradition.
- *A certain understanding of the subject area*: an interpretation of reality that prevails at a given time; stems from the model.
- *Methodology*: ways to obtain information about the elements and components of the subject area.
- *Theories*: explanation systems and models that are compatible with the earlier points.
- *Scientific community*: its structure and other social factors that influence the contents of theories.

According to Raunio (1999), socio-scientific phenomena are so complex that no paradigm alone is able to clarify the different sides of social reality. The result will be a situation in which the building of socio-scientific paradigms will take place primarily on the basis of empirical problem-solving ability. Instead of ideological basic assumptions, the methods, standards and rules needed in problem-solving will be emphasized in the paradigm. This phenomenon also seems to characterize the study of the new paradigm of leadership, which is strongly directed to the modeling of leadership behavior and the empirical testing of models. This is yet another reason why it is important to study at first the basic assumptions and concepts that leadership training begins with.

Socio-scientific paradigms are diversifying. On the other hand, the already existing paradigm concepts of different scientists are characterized by complexity, even incoherency, in the area of leadership study. In this book I will begin with a wide paradigm concept, according to which a scientist must:

- be aware of the paradigm in the background of his research topic and approach, its essential features and the advantages and disadvantages that can be derived from it,
- be able to describe, from the viewpoint of his own paradigm, the interpretation of reality that is based on the latest research work and that is related to the scientist's own research topic,
- base his framework on paradigmatic theory or model in order to take advantage of scientific information,
- primarily lean on methodological solutions that are in accordance with the paradigm, but also be open to other options as well, and
- carry out open and active interaction with his own scientific community.

Paradigmatism can also be criticized. Hannus, Lindroos and Seppänen (1999) translate paradigm as "prevailing belief". To them, paradigm is a concept of intellectual stagnation. This interpretation is, however, a practical, non-scientific interpretation of the concept of paradigm, because here the writers have paradigm mean the established structures and routines of an organization. In this case one should write about dogmatism if one wants to refer, say, to the uninitiative belief in authority. In scientific work, especially in basic study, paradigmaticism is seen more as an advantage than as a disadvantage. The absence of paradigm causes disorganization in research work and problems with the interpretation of information. *There is good reason to ask how many scientists have the actual capability to free themselves from the scientific rules of their own background and still carry out credible and good scientific work.* The most important thing is that the scientist is aware the paradigmatic starting points of his study and, when necessary, reports on them.

1.2 Paradigmatic foundation of the study of leadership

Alan Bryman (1992) analyzes the new paradigm of the study of leadership. He defines in the area of leadership research three central approaches that complement each other, thus forming a paradigmatic entity that has prevailed in the past centuries. The approaches are:

- leadership as influencing other people,
- leadership in relation to a certain group, and

- leadership in relation to objectives.

Bryman classifies the most important research trends in the area of leadership according to table 1. According to Bryman, the clearest theoretical entity of the new paradigm is transformational leadership, of which charismatic leadership forms one part. Charismatic leadership as its own phenomenon has also been researched during the time period in question^[6]. Bryman says that whether one talks about transformational, charismatic or visionary leadership, in practice there is one and the same phenomenon behind the viewpoints and concepts.

Bryman does not go deeply into the concept of paradigm or the metascientific problems of the study of leadership. In practice he defines paradigmatic foundations of the study of leadership from the viewpoint of the contents of the concept of leadership. When speaking of the parallel and partly conflicting schools, Bryman thinks the question is about the new paradigm of leadership still developing or being in the initiative stage. Research has of course been carried out between schools^[7]. Bryman considers the most central topics of further research of the new leadership paradigm to be, among others, the connection between practice and effectiveness, taking into account the situational factors in research arrangements and the increase of qualitative, case-type research.

PERIOD	APPROACH	CORE THEME
Up to the late 1940s	Trait approach	Leadership ability is innate
Late 1940s to late 1960s	Style approach	Leadership effectiveness is to do with how the leader behaves
Late 1960s to early 1980s	Contingency approach	It all depends; effective leadership is affected by the situation
Since early 1980s	New Leadership approach (includes charismatic leadership)	Leader needs vision

Table 1. Trends in leadership theory and research

The already mentioned phenomenon and its existence is the central scientific starting point of the new paradigm of leadership. The phenomenon can be described with the term "excellent leadership behavior". Within the framework of the new leadership paradigm, the existence of this phenomenon can be proved with qualitative methods based on everyday experiences as well as statistically with quantitative methods. (Bass 1998).

1.3 Transformational leadership

I decided not to translate the concept of transformational leadership into Finnish, because so far a term that would extensively and unambiguously enough describe the unique features of this approach has not been found. The same terminological approach applies in conceptual analysis to another leadership dimension, transactional leadership. The essential thing is that transformational leadership is the most important school of the new paradigm.

Already in 1985, as if foreseeing the future, Bass wrote:

"But as will be seen, transformational leadership is not a rare phenomenon limited to a few world-class leaders. Rather, it is to be found in varying degrees in all walks of life. The problem remains as to how to identify and encourage its appearance in the military, in business and industry, and in educational and governmental agencies." (Bass 1985, xv)

Some scientists, like Tichy and Devanna (1986) integrate transformational leadership into the management of change. This is natural, because transformational leadership seems to respond better than any previous model or theory to the challenges of the management of change at both individual and organization levels. Paradigm-oriented analysis reveals, however, that from the viewpoint of leadership behavior, transformational leadership is a universal approach to leadership, the efficiency and feasibility of which are not in principle limited to a certain situation or area of operations. The phenomenon is not new, either. Therefore the terms change management

or reformative management would be misleading from the viewpoint of the scientist and the nature of the paradigm.

In military leadership it is essential that according to research, the effect of transformational leadership is at its strongest in various crisis situations. Even if leadership in a crisis situation were direct action and steering of troops based on short orders, the time before the crisis would be spent creating the mental and functional potential for the troops that success is based on. For example, building trust between a leader and his troops usually takes some time. Transformational leadership thus creates preconditions for success in battle.

I will examine the new paradigm of leadership through material related to transformational leadership, because the work of this scientific community is the most promising conceptually and also because of its abundant empirical research (Podsakoff & MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). Another, at least equally important justification for this choice is that in military organizations transformational leadership has been studied and successfully derived from the new paradigm of leadership (Bass 1998).^[8]

James MacGregor Burns 1987

James MacGregor Burns's book *Leadership*, published in 1978, is considered a concrete starting point for the birth of the new paradigm of leadership (Bass 1985; Bryman 1992; Zorn 1992; Yammarino & Spangler & Bass 1993; Taylor 1994; Clark & Clark 1996; Gronn 1996). Burns approaches leadership from the viewpoint of power and influence: all leaders are active or potential wielders of power, but all wielders of power are not leaders. According to Burns, the basic function of leadership is to unite the individual objectives of the leader and subordinates in order to achieve the higher objective (vision). This thought therefore includes the possibility that people do not have to agree on everything, but the vision and direction of activity have to unite individuals.

Burns's central thought is to separate two forms of leadership. *Transactional leadership* is the most typical manifestation of leadership. It is based on reciprocal activity in which a leader approaches a subordinate in order to exchange something, like a

salary for work. In transactional leadership it is essential that the leader attempts to achieve certain goals by influencing his subordinates, irrespective of the objectives of the subordinates.

Transformational leadership is more complex. Here a leader recognizes and exploits the needs and demands of potential subordinates. Furthermore, a transformational leader aims to recognize the motives of his subordinates, fulfill their needs at increasingly higher levels and thus make the subordinates commit themselves comprehensively. The result at best is a stimulating and constructive interactive relationship, in which the objectives of the leader and subordinates approach each other and in which leaders can become supporters and directors of the intellectual growth of their subordinates.

Burns is particularly interested in the activities of a transformational leader on the background of the intellectual growth of his subordinates. When considering the depth of motives, values and needs in human processes, Burns builds a foundation for his thoughts based on the theories of Freud, Jung, Piaget and Eriksson. According to Burns, the core of intellectual growth is the development of values^[9]. The core concepts of this process are *conflict* and *awareness*. Transformational leadership is built on the conflict related to the forming of the values of an individual, and the effect of this conflict on the individual's internal processes is remarkably strong. The birth mechanisms of conflicts are complex. Conflict is often born out of a clash between concrete needs and moral values, while growth means that more and more often choices are made on the basis of moral values. Solving conflicts is often impossible unless the individual is ready to change his perspective of meaning. Burns therefore sees a human being as a creature that develops and grows.

The duty of a leader is not to steer clear of conflicts. On the contrary, transformational leaders face them, exploit them, or even create conflicts themselves in certain cases.

A transformational leader is able to exploit the tensions and conflicts in the value structures of his subordinates better than a transactional leader. Thus a transformational leader may be able to direct the formation of the individual structures of mean-

ing of his subordinates. Transformational leadership could therefore be called constructive, because it has an empirical connection to the formation of individual structures of meaning (Zorn, 1992).

Central to Burns's thinking is that a leader is seen to enable the growth and development of his subordinates, or even as the motor of the whole process in such a way that work can even more extensively satisfy the growth needs of the subordinates. A transactional leader does not develop his subordinates, he only exchanges things for something else. A transformational leader can fulfill the growth needs of his subordinates and also creates significant commitment in this process. Transformational leader believes that subordinates have the wish and readiness to develop, which means that his outlook on people is positive and it emphasizes growth. It has to be noted, though, that Burns approaches leadership purely from the viewpoint of social phenomenon, placing transactional and transformational leadership as opposite ways of leadership. (Brown, 1993; Silins, 1994)

Bernard M. Bass 1985 -

Bernard M. Bass is a leader in the further development of Burns's thoughts and in the modeling of the paradigm (Bass 1985, 1997 and 1998; Bass & Avolio 1989, 1994, 1996a and 1996b; Avolio & Bass 1995 a, 1995b and 1998; Hater & Bass 1988; Bass & Stogdill 1990; Avolio & Bass & Jung 1998). Led by Bass, other scientists, like Bruce Avolio, Fran Yammarino, David Waldman and Leanne Atwater to name just a few, have participated in the development work in the Binghamton University Center for Leadership Studies. The research has led to the commercial application of the model (Full Range Leadership Model)^[10] developed from the paradigm, as well as to several cooperation projects with the armed forces of the United States, Australia and Israel.

In his book *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations* (1985), Bass adopts as his starting point the division between transactional and transformational leadership presented by Burns. Bass considers the earlier empirical research on leadership to be unsatisfactory. Statistically, most of the shifts in leadership remain

unexplained, even if the results were significant. Research has to be deepened conceptually and expanded in an interdisciplinary manner.

Bass defines transactional leadership with three phrases:

1. A leader finds out what is wanted in exchange for a job performance and gives it to his subordinates if performance gives reason to do so.
2. Trying one's best is encouraged with rewards or promises of them.
3. If the interests of a subordinate are related to the work in hand, the leader comments on them.

In this context, Bass expands Burns's view on the nature of leadership, because he sees the concept of transactional leadership to correspond mainly to the contents of the concept of "management". Thus, a transactional leader is more a manager than a leader.

A transformational leader gets his subordinates to do more than they originally intended. With the original intention Bass means an estimate of the efforts needed to achieve a certain objective made by an individual based on his own perceived efficiency. This endogenous increase of motivation can be made to happen in three (correlating) ways:

1. A leader rises his subordinates' level of awareness of the value and importance of objectives and the ways of achieving them.
2. The leader gets his subordinates to place the good of the group or community before the good of an individual.
3. The leader is capable of intellectually raising his subordinates to a level on which activity is directed more and more by (growth) needs of a higher level.

Perhaps the most central difference in the thinking of Bass and Burns has to do with the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership. Burns sees these two dimensions of leadership as extreme opposites. Bass, on the other hand, says:

"Conceptually and empirically, we find that leaders will exhibit a variety of patterns of transformational and transactional leadership. Most leaders do both but in different amounts" (Bass 1985, 22).

Later Bass (1997) analyzes separately the paradigmatic foundations of transformational leadership. He bases his conclusions on the expanding empirical research that crosses culture and organization borders and is related to the new paradigm of leadership. Bass considers universalism as the starting point of the paradigm. By universalism, Bass means that the phenomenon of transformational leadership and its central features can be conceptualized and with research be noticed in various cultures and organizations. Exceptions can be understood through the culture or special features of the organization being studied.

In addition to universalism, in Bass's, view the essential contents of the paradigm mean that the paradigm gives a foundation to research methods and the measuring of a phenomenon. Universal dimension of measuring does not mean that everywhere the same statistical results would be obtained using a certain meter. Measuring is based on the fact that a phenomenon can be perceived structurally in the same way everywhere with tools that are developed with research. The paradigm offers an adequate foundation for measuring and understanding this phenomenon. The connection of transformational leadership to other schools of the new paradigm of leadership, like charismatic and visionary leadership, is naturally strong^[11].

Universalism means a generally applied system of concepts. In this system of concepts, each leader has a measurable profile that is based on the dimensions of transformational leadership. The profile is always related to the leader's area of operations, or group, organization and culture. Averages shift in a natural way when moving from one context to another. A leadership profile has, according to research, a fairly logical connection to the effects of leadership in an organization. Variation between the general theory and observations of real life are caused mainly by differences between systems of concepts and cultures.

Based on a relatively extensive empirical material that is currently in use, I consider the following three basic assumptions to be the starting points of leadership behavior research:

1. On average, transformational leaders are the most effective. Active transactional leaders are more effective than passive transactional leaders. The least effective is 'laissez-faire' -leadership.
2. An increase in effectiveness as leadership behavior changes is always one-way. When progressing from 'laissez-faire' -leadership towards more effective forms of leadership, changes in behavior are apparent in the effects of leadership as well. If, on the other hand, the starting point is transformational leadership, the lower-level forms of behavior will not add anything new to the effects of leadership.
3. The behavior profile of the most efficient leader, a transformational leader, is pretty much the same across organizational and cultural borders. (Bass 1997, 135-136)

Bass (1997) emphasizes that in addition to universalism, it is essential for the application of the paradigm to understand the connection between culture, conceptual systems and practice. The paradigm does not assume that a leader who has been considered transformational in his home country would automatically be considered so in a foreign culture. The paradigm functions within the conceptual system of each culture, meaning that in practice, leadership can have several manifestations in relation to how people of the work community experience behavior and how it affects their work performance.

The new paradigm of leadership is based on the understanding of human nature (which has remained quite unchanged in the course of time) and needs in connection with leadership: it is essential, for example, that every individual hopes to win his superior's approval. In different cultures this approval can be shown in very different ways. *The paradigm does not exist in the external forms of behavior, but instead in the experiences and interpretations of individuals.*

1.4 The paradigmatic foundation of the leadership training program

The relationship between a military organization and leadership

The general principles of leadership have not changed in the course of time. Instead, change takes place in the areas of operations in which these principles are applied (Bass, 1998). This starting point applies to military organizations as well. A squad leader and a brigade commander can base their leadership on the same principles, but the area of operations, situational factors and objectives define how these principles can inspire commitment and efficiency in subordinates. The principles of leadership must always be taken into use, into practices of leadership or leadership behavior, through an individual's own leadership capability and an analysis of the area of operations. It is also clear that leadership at different levels requires different capabilities from the leaders. I will return to this view later in connection to the structure of leadership training.

The basis of the activity of a military organization is a clear line organization, in which the principle of a leader's undivided responsibility is emphasized like, on the other hand, the flexibility brought by mission command. The connection between mission command and deep leadership has not yet been researched in the Finnish Defence Forces, but according to battle experiences and international research the connection appears strong, starting from the building of trust^[12]. In practice, the personal responsibility related to leadership often fades into the structures and procedures of an organization, though. *What would be the most efficient and most practical relationship between a military organization and military leadership?*

As theoreticians, Sun Tsu and Carl von Clausewitz can not be ignored from the viewpoint of the main duty of military organizations - warfare. Sun Tsu (translation 1998) sees a line organization as a basic solution that serves leadership in war in the best way possible. In the interpretation of the five basic matters - moral influence, weather, terrain, leadership and doctrine - Sun Tsu elevates leadership into a high concept while organization receives mostly instrumental value in his thinking.

Carl von Clausewitz's book "On War" (translated into Finnish by Heikki Eskelinen in 1998) has created a foundation for western political and military strategic thinking. Clausewitz emphasizes that the duties and activities of a military organization must be integrated into political objectives. When writing about the maintenance of a military force, he aims for clear definitions of objectives: organization and training precede the actual use of a military force, maintenance is connected to all activities and it creates preconditions. All in all, Clausewitz wants to make a clear difference between war preparations and actual war. He also emphasizes that warfare is not only mechanical skills but human interaction.

These war theoreticians emphasize the importance of leadership and developed conceptual thinking in order to achieve success. Organization is only a tool for leadership. The current organization-based research trend has been born later and it is partly the result of Tayloristic production thinking and technological development that has brought with it not only new opportunities, but also complexity to the activities of an organization.

Organizations must serve leadership, not vice versa. The increase of bureaucracy in organizations is a direct result of inadequate leadership. Transformational leadership offers a leader a tool not only for the exploitation of human resources, but also for the development of the organization.

As Bass (1985) says, a transactional leader functions according to the culture prevailing in the organization, but a transformational leader can change and develop the organization's culture if he so wishes. This applies to military organizations as well. Inefficient leaders lean on their formal position, the organization and its routines. Efficient leaders show a direction and policy to others with their behavior and they change established ways of behavior if needed.

Military leadership and the new paradigm

Without exaggeration it can be said that the new paradigm of leadership is particularly important to military organizations. The conflict between the needs of an individ-

ual and the objectives of an organization is probably at its highest in battle. Solving and controlling this conflict is at the core of the contents of the new paradigm of leadership. Gal (1987) says that in the future, human beings will act the same way in battle as they have done previously, even though changes in technology have changed the image of the battlefield. The significance of a human factor in battle will not change: a soldier will still have to reconcile his need to survive, his extreme feelings, sense of honor and aspirations to achieve the objective of his troops.

Transformational military leaders can combine the motivation, commitment and efficiency of soldiers better than transactional leaders. Change in the military area of operations may in the future further increase the challenges of leadership, if the moral and ethical justifications of given duties are not self-evident in, for example, crisis management operations. Peace support operations carried out with multinational troops have given a push to the development of leadership training based on the experiences gained from these operations^[13].

Ulmer (1999), too, considers that complexity in military leadership will increase. Ulmer, who coordinates the leadership training of the US Army, sees the leadership training of the near future taking place in an environment in which:

- complex and diverse operations will be carried out in politically sensitive and complex conditions,
- the appropriations frameworks of military organizations will decrease,
- competition for high-quality personnel will increase,
- social appreciation and awareness of the demands of military activities are limited, and
- the need for research increases.

Changes in the area of operations cause pressure for military leadership as well. Ulmer lists the demands set for a future military leader as willingness to take responsibility, moral courage, ability to make decisions, leadership by example, self-knowledge, situational awareness, ability to trust others and willingness to develop^[14]. Research on how training programs based on transformational leadership could be applied to the training of military leaders is being carried out in the US armed forces.^[15]

Because the leadership training of the Israeli armed forces has during the past decade been based on the application of the new paradigm of leadership, it has been possible to carry out long-term research on the functioning of the paradigm in different military crisis situations^[16]. According to latest research (Gal and Jones 1994; Bass 1998; Gal 1999), transformational leadership is one of the central ways to prevent battle stress and maintain the fighting ability of troops. Research that relates to peace time military training (Bass and Avolio 1998a) has noticed that transformational military leaders achieve better training results than transactional military leaders^[17].

Application of the new paradigm of leadership to military leadership is not without its problems, even though there is empirical evidence of the paradigm's connection to efficiency, results and success in military organizations as well. Problems surface especially in relation to the prevailing leadership culture and the personal capabilities of leaders. I will return to the problems of application in Finnish military training in the chapter that deals with deep leadership. On the other hand, it must be noted that the new paradigm of leadership was not brought into the Defence Forces as a doctrine or as service regulations, but as a basic solution that unifies leadership training and makes it more effective. There is a significant difference between these viewpoints. The objective is that our new leadership training program is a self-piloting process which, when integrated into the training system, develops the Finnish Defence Forces into a learning organization.

The concept of leadership in the new paradigm

Defining the concept of leadership is essential from the point of research, but this issue has proved problematic in time. Behind the problems is simply the complexity of the phenomenon. According to Burns (1978), it is possible to speak of leadership when organizational, political, psychological and other resources are taken into use based on certain motives and objectives in such a manner that subordinates commit to common goals. This definition requires that a leader actively takes into account the needs of his subordinates. Leadership of this kind can not happen without real interaction between the leader and his subordinates. The concept of leadership, i.e. emphasizing interaction, does not at any point exclude other areas of leadership.

Bryman (1992) emphasizes three basic elements that leadership is built of: influencing other people, group dynamics and the objectives of activity. Clark and Clark (1996) define leadership as follows:

"Leadership is an activity or set of activities, observable to others, that occurs in a group, organization, or institution and which involves a leader and followers who willingly subscribe to common purposes and work together to achieve them". (Clark & Clark 1996, 25)

These definitions describe well the basic view into leadership that scientists representing new paradigm of leadership have. **A formal position does not guarantee actual leadership any more than arbitrary exercise of power, not even in a military organization.** In Finland, it is customary to separate management and leadership from each other. According to the new paradigm of leadership, management is a concept parallel to transactional leadership, which is not the most effective leadership because it lacks the dimension that makes people commit themselves. Management in its customary meaning is actually in the new paradigm one dimension of leadership that creates preconditions for transformational leadership.

When analyzing the concept of military command, at least the most important functions of command must be taken into account. The result will be an analysis of a three-dimensional phenomenon that is defined by the position of the military leader (authority and formal power), decision-making (leadership processes and anticipation) and leadership (leadership behavior). The concept of responsibility extends over all these functions^[18]. The position of a military leader represents the organizational, lasting dimension of military command. Decision-making and leadership represent the functional dimensions of command, which has the largest effect on efficiency.

The concept of leadership is cumulative in the new paradigm in its relationship to efficiency: **real leadership includes all the areas that are needed to achieve excellent results in an organization.** In connection with the modeling of the paradigm, scientists have obtained empirical proof that these dimensions of leadership position themselves in a hierarchical order. Transformational leadership will rise to the top of

this hierarchy, being therefore the area of leadership with the most effect on the efficiency of an organization. Bass (1997; 1998) has also come to this conclusion.

The concept of leadership behavior is very close to the concept of leadership. Leadership behavior is based on the leader's personal capabilities, which are affected by the area of operations, situational factors and the objectives of the activity. Leadership behavior therefore means the functional dimension of leadership.

For the part of the area of operations, the framework in this book will be military leadership as the conceptual phenomenon as it manifests itself today. Military leadership is defined briefly as leadership that takes place in a military organization within a framework that includes certain power and responsibility and provides a formal leadership position. Military leadership also has its own process that can be clearly defined. Penetrating the essential requires limiting the viewpoint of research even further. The point of study is especially the leadership behavior of a military leader and its development. With his leadership behavior, each military leader creates preconditions for the production of individuals and war time troops that are capable of performing successfully in battle. I will return to leadership behavior's conceptual connection to the entire training system in the next chapter.

A paradigmatic foundation for the leadership training program and research

The new paradigm of leadership is first and foremost a scientific approach to leadership. A new scientific research tradition is building around the paradigm and it will not be limited only to theory, models and research methods; it will also extend to the metascience of leadership. The view is based on the idea of experiencing leadership as active, purposeful activity in certain contexts. This way it is possible to find in leadership a temporally and culturally universal phenomenon that is called excellent leadership behavior.

Excellent leadership behavior can be modeled, it can be measured and in training programs that are based on it, leadership behavior can be developed. In relation to the objectives of an organization, leadership behavior has a two-dimensional position: it is an efficient tool to be used in the achievement of objectives, but on the

other hand, it creates preconditions for the setting of objectives at high organizational levels and for the development of the entire organization - in other words, strategic level leadership.

The latest empirical research in this area has focused mainly on the modeling of excellent leadership behavior.^[19] The modeling has progressed to a stage at which an agreement has been reached concerning the hierarchical structure of the main dimensions of leadership behavior. In the factor structures inside the main dimensions there is still variation at some points^[20]. This variation may be interpreted to result from cultural or organizational differences. Therefore it is justified and logical that the application of the new paradigm of leadership to the leadership training of the Finnish Defence Forces has not taken place by copying a finished model from elsewhere. The model of deep leadership presented in Chapter Three is a model built for Finnish conditions and especially for the training of military leaders; the detailed structure of the model with empirical evidence will be reported in a separate study. The worldwide study of the new paradigm of leadership creates a scientifically lasting foundation for the deep leadership model.

It is typical to the research methods of the paradigm to collect information by a questionnaire built on the basis of the structure of the model. The questionnaire is used primarily as a feedback tool of a single leader. The collection of feedback is carried out as full range feedback, in which case the leader is given feedback on his leadership behavior by his entire social environment: his subordinates, peers and superiors. The leadership profile, which is formed from the feedback, is supplemented by the leader's self-evaluation, still using the same questionnaire. Using information obtained from the questionnaire, it is possible to statistically study the validity and reliability of the questionnaire as well as the hypothetical structure of the model in the background. In this case, confirmatory factor analysis and programs based on structural equation models are typically used.

Usually traditional correlative methods are used to study the connection between leadership behavior and the effects of leadership and the efficiency of an organization. The hierarchical structure of the dimensions of leadership behavior in relation to desired effects can be studied using regression analysis. Cluster analysis, among

other things, is used to analyze extensive material consisting of leadership profiles. The use of new mathematical methods, like neuro-calculation models is already a day-to-day occurrence in the study of leadership and leader selection.

From the viewpoint of *leadership training* an essential part of the new paradigm of leadership is to separate from each other the capability of a leader and the behavior of a leader. Training concentrates on leadership behavior. The development of personal capabilities is seen as a life-long learning process in which a leader develops his self-knowledge with feedback information on his behavior. The development of capabilities has to do with changes in personal schemes and perspectives of meaning; these processes take place inside the individual and they take time and will-power, as the processes are goal-oriented. It can be said that the new paradigm of leadership includes development as a leader and therefore also the basics of constructive concepts of learning, at least for the part of teaching methods. Because the paradigm approaches the concept of leadership from the viewpoint of leadership behavior, leadership training must ensure that the concept is perceived by placing leadership behavior into wider frameworks. This assumption is supported by earlier research information on the effectiveness of leadership training. The frameworks that are used must make it possible for the leadership trainees to integrate theoretical information and their own observations to the concept of leadership in a meaningful way. Frameworks support the formation of the personal perspectives and structures of meaning that are sought in learning processes.

Close relations have been maintained to the scientific community of transformational leadership during the development stage of the new leadership program. In addition to communication via e-mail, world conferences in San Fransisco in August 1998 and in Karlstad in Sweden in June 1999 have offered an excellent forum for the presentation of research results as well as the basic ideas behind the new leadership training program. Furthermore, it has been possible to have in-depth discussions about the challenges and opportunities of leadership training in military organizations. These discussions have provided more information and ideas concerning the methods of leadership training in particular. For a scientist, especially important has been the support of the members of this community and also the openness of military members concerning the carrying out of training programs that

follow the new paradigm. Without these elements of international cooperation we would not be at the front row of development.

The new paradigm of leadership begins with the human being and his opportunities. People create a culture, organizations are made up of people. Conflicts take place between people. Leadership training is both direct and indirect influencing of people. Because a military organization has the opportunity to train its leaders, we have the opportunity to directly influence our leadership culture. A leadership training program based on transformational leadership requires that each military leader strive for personal development and growth. This will be important in the future, because learning organizations are made up of learning people. And in the world of change only learning organizations can succeed.

CHAPTER 1 REFERENCES

1) Where Alan Bryman (1992) writes about the phenomenon of excellent leadership behavior using the name "New Leadership", Bass (1997) writes about the paradigm with the title "Does the Transactional - Transformational Leadership Paradigm Transcend Organizational and National Boundaries?". Of the paradigm Bass says that as a phenomenon, it has existed throughout human history. What is new is the modeling of the paradigm, which offers a reliable framework for observing and measuring leadership behavior. The paradigm does not revoke earlier research on leadership, instead the paradigm rises above it to combine different views. (Bass 1998, 16-17)

2) In his book "Transformational Leadership" (1998) Bass reports extensively on the latest empirical research on transformational leadership from all over the world. Bass also reports on qualitative research that supports the presumptions of the paradigm and its modeling. Qualitative research has been carried out using, among other things, observational diaries and interviews as methods. Today a significant source of information that also gives an overall picture of research is the internet, where some of the latest research can be found using "transformational leadership" as keywords.

3) William Clover (1990) has studied transformational leadership in the U.S. Air Force, the military academies of which generally see themselves as laboratories of leadership skills. The main question of research was: How does the result of transformational leadership correlate with the ranking of a unit? When using the Mann-Whitney U-test, statistical significance was seen to have occurred at risk level .10. The research arrangement did not follow the idea of the test theory that extreme opposites would be compared (the 25% rule). Instead, all teams were included and the division into two was done according to rank (1-5 / 6-10). In practice, this causes problems in obtaining significant results; the difference would be clearer following the rules of the test theory. Despite this, a significant difference between groups was obtained by all the dimensions of transformational leadership. (Clover 1990, 176-181) Actual study of military leadership training commenced in Israel and Popper, Landau and Gluskinos (1992), among others, reported on it in their article "The Israeli Defence Forces: An Example of Transformational Leadership". An experiment on leadership training based on transformational leadership led in the Israeli Defence Forces to the rapid spread of the model in the entire organization with its commanders.

4) Research carried out inside the new paradigm of leadership and that aimed at the modeling of leadership behavior will be reported more in the future. In short, it is possible to say that a question about the relationship of the main dimensions of leadership has aroused the interest of scientists: *Are the dimensions extreme opposites, is the relationship orthogonal or correlative, does Bass's augmentation relationship work or not?* I think the question is about a multidimensional phenomenon and it can be answered only when the direction from which the problem is approached is clearly defined. If attention is only on how a leader behaves without taking into account situational factors, it is natural to end up supporting the views of Bass (1985) and Donohue & Wong (1994) that every leader uses both transactional and transformational "style" of leadership. In this case the aug-

mentation theory relationship works. With deeper thought on how a leader behaves in different situations based on his own personality, the answer may be different. A real transformational leader can act transformationally when another leader is already moving towards the dimensions of transactional (controlling) leadership. Correcting mistakes and punishing are good examples of this. In this view situational factors become decisive, because a transformational leader is in reality limited only by situations in which the leader can have no interaction with his subordinates. Because transformational leadership is based on the relatively stable elements of the leader (values, understanding of human beings, self-confidence, stable emotional life, etc.), I think it is wrong to speak of "styles". More correct is to speak of leadership behavior, the quality of which is determined primarily by the entire personality of the leader. This is especially important from the view of military leadership, because extreme stress has a tendency to ruin those "styles" that are based on copied behavior and that have not been anchored into the personality of the leader.

5) Because this book is in the position of a basic study in the basic training of military leaders, special attention should be paid to the foundations of research, definitions of concepts and paradigmatic starting points in general. Research related to deep leadership increases and deepens, and researchers who are just starting out (students) need the foundations given in this book to support their orientation.

6) Both Conger (1989) and Bryman (1992) as well as Posner and Kouzes (1995) consider charisma to be the central concept of the new paradigm. In leadership training the concept of charisma is problematic, however, and it actually prevents the exploitation of the paradigm in leadership training programs. Charisma in itself is a phenomenon, certainly very close to transformational leadership. Transformational leadership can, however, be modeled and broken into forms of behavior, with the help of which progress in leadership training can be made. As a trainer of leaders it is noticeably more concrete to say: "You must listen to your subordinates more carefully" than "You should be more charismatic".

7) Tracy and Hinkin (1999), among others, have compared the leadership meter (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio to a similar meter (MPS) developed by Gary Yukl. The meters were compared using two independent criteria of influence that focused on the satisfaction of subordinates and the efficiency of the organization. The scientists did not want to place the meters in an order of quality, but they mainly evaluated the validity of the meters on a statistical basis. The research report did, however, give the impression that the MPS meter correlated better with independent criteria of influence than the MLQ meter.

8) The first research report "Varusmiesten johtajakoulutuksen perusteet" (The Foundations of the Leadership Training of Conscripts) that supports the new leadership training program, deals with earlier research related to leadership.

9) Values and value education have lately been central topics of discussion in military training and especially in officer training. In his book Burns presents a very practical approach for the study of values in, say, officer training. The importance of this approach is only emphasized with the increase in plurality. From the viewpoint of the new leadership training program, there is an assumption in the background of leadership behavior that the intellectual growth of a military leader

has often to do with value choices. These value choices then guide the behavior of the individual consciously and unconsciously.

10) The Full Range Leadership Model (FRL) is a commercial product marketed by the American company Mindgarden Inc, among others. This is a company that produces leadership profiles based on the 360 degree -principle and among its services are feedback reports (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Report), instruction books (Learner's Notebook, Full Range Leadership Development) and different training services. It is possible to produce a leadership profile using the internet.

11) Like Bryman (1992), Bass (1997) notes that the new paradigm has created several schools that are quite close to each other. However, reports do not often refer to the accomplishments of researchers or books which "compete" in the way typical to the competition between scientific schools.

12) At the international "The Human In Command: Peace Support Operations 2000" conference, General Jackson, the commander of the KFOR-troops in 1999, was the key speaker. Like many others, General Jackson estimated that mission command is the key to success also in peace operations, and that in order to succeed, mission command requires a strong trust throughout the entire leadership chain. Spacey (2000), too, emphasizes the same point when writing about leadership in a military organization.

13) Furthermore, at "The Human In Command: Peace Support Operations 2000" conference, cooperation in the area of research was considered necessary. The common problem of leadership research, the lack of a general system of concepts, causes problems, though. In addition, different military cultures also emphasize slightly different views in research.

14) The training and research leadership of the United States Army presented some of their central research findings and their new leadership doctrine at an international conference in San Francisco in August 1998. Lieutenant General Walter Ulmer (ret.), who has had a remarkable career as a commander in the United States armed forces and participated in the Korean War and the Vietnam War, now works as the coordinator of the Army leadership training. In addition to the traditional virtues of officers, Ulmer emphasizes the importance of continuous learning and development. This is important in the peace time organization and in the crises of the future that are still unknown at the moment. A body of officers that has a positive and active attitude towards self-development can not be acquired by a selection process only; the entire training system must cherish this principle. The material and notes from the San Francisco conference are in the author's possession.

15) From the viewpoint of our new leadership training, probably the most important single long-term research project that is still going on is the cooperation study with the United States Army Research Institute (ARI), led by Bass and Avolio. The study concentrates on 72 Army paratroop platoons and their leaders. The objective of the study is to find out the extent to which the transformational and traditional leadership of the unit, leader and second-in-command can be used to predict the platoon's capability to carry out its mission in a combat situation. The leadership estimations are carried out using different versions of the MLQ meter (subordinate,

peer, superior, self- and team evaluation). All meters have been modified to suit the evaluation of a military organization. The capabilities of platoons are measured in simulated combat conditions. The connection between the measured way of leadership and the performance level of the platoon is also interesting (questions about the leaders were carried out a month before measuring the performance level using the MLQ meter). The scientists reported the leadership atmosphere of the platoon and the leadership profiles of the platoon leader and the second-in-command in relation to the platoons with the best and worst performance levels. When using T-tests, a statistically significant result was found only when analyzing superiors' evaluations of their platoon leaders. However, evaluations from other sources also separate relatively clearly and consistently the best and worst platoons performance-wise. The lack of statistically significant results is partly due to the small number of platoons. Regression analysis was used to study whether the performance level of a platoon can be predicted based on the leadership evaluations obtained with the MLQ meter. This way several very significant results were found. In this study, the evaluation the platoon's second-in-command received in transformational leadership was the best prediction of the platoon's performance level (Beta = .46***). (Bass & Avolio 1998a, 21-56)

16) In the booklet "The School for Leadership Development" (1998) the IDF presents the basic solutions of its leadership training and shortly some training-related research. At an international seminar in Karlstad, Sweden in June 1999, officers working as instructors presented other teaching material as well, such as video clips of problematic leadership situations that are used in case-type teaching. Only a small part of the research done in Israel is available in English.

17) As reported in reference 15, it was difficult to achieve statistically significant results due to the size of the sample. All results were logical and favored transformational leaders, though. Snodgrass (1998) has led the project of analyzing the qualitative data from the research of Bass and Avolio (1998a). Qualitative data about the overall performance of leaders and platoons was collected by charting the strongest and weakest qualities of the subjects being evaluated. The cooperation between the platoon leader and the second-in-command was separately evaluated. From the qualitative data conclusions were made by comparing the platoons with the best (9) and the worst (9) performance levels. Generally speaking, the most important strength was motivation and the most important weakness the lack of experience in both the best and the worst platoons. In the best platoons, leadership was considered clearly better. A factor that separated the best and the worst platoons was the cooperation relationship between the platoon leader and the second-in-command; the functioning of this relationship is a basic requirement for top performance of the platoon. (Snodgrass 1998, 1-15)

18) Pigeau and McCann (2000) have for a long time worked to model military command. In their latest study they present a three-dimensional model, the three variables of which are authority, responsibility and personal competence. According to Pigeau and McCann, a military leader is an individual who is able to fulfill with his person the place appointed to him by his organization. The three basic variables have to be in balance. Furthermore, a commander must have "special talents".

19) Avolio, Bass and Jung consider it necessary that research be extended more strongly to qualitative area as well. Participatory observation and different in-

terview studies would bring new views to quantitative-based research. This would be important from the viewpoint of leadership training, as well. There is also grounds for critique. The data of the research has primarily been collected in conditions that those reporting on the study have not been able to control. It is impossible to say whether behind the evaluations there is adequate knowledge of the individual being evaluated. Likewise, the quality of evaluated superiors in an organization is an unknown variable that has an effect on the overall analysis. (Avolio & Bass & Jung 1998, 28-29)

20) Whether the charismatic dimension should be divided into two, in which case one dimension would be inspiring leadership has become the basic question of the modeling of the transformational dimension. Intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration have in different studies surfaced logically as independent factors. At the moment the starting point is the solution of the four sub-dimensions. (Bass 1998, 5-6) There are some conflicting research results concerning the dimensions of transactional leadership (Bass 1997, 136).

21) The most general conflicting observations have to do with the following: 1) encouragement with rewards is closer to transformational than transactional dimension, 2) passive management-by-exception is closer to the 'laissez-faire' dimension than transactional leadership, and 3) it is generally difficult to bring out the subdimensions of transactional leadership in factor analyses in the expected way, because the charges of single statements are clearly smaller than in the transformational area. In the area of transactional leadership, there has to be a clear decision about whether to approach the dimension from the viewpoint of the question 'What?' or 'How?'.

I will approach transactional leadership from the viewpoint of the question 'How?' in the context of a military organization. As shown by factor analyses (Avolio, Bass & Jung 1998, 37), the two first main dimensions of leadership are active vs. passive. On this basis, it is natural to combine the subdimension of passive management-by-exception to 'laissez-faire' leadership. Encouragement with rewards at the other end of transactional leadership is also divided into two: the use of internal and external rewards. As Bass has noted (Silins 1994, 292-293), the use of internal rewards has to do with the individualized consideration of someone, meaning it is a part of transformational leadership behavior. The use of adequately encouraging external rewards is in a military organization already at peace time a problem, let alone war time conditions on the level of a battle leader. This way encouragement with rewards disappears as an independent dimension from the view of the question 'How?', and transactional leadership can be supposed to reduce to a single dimension in a military organization.

2. STRUCTURE OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAM

As shown in Figure 2, the leadership training program is an entity that is made up of basic assumptions, contents information, method information and system information.

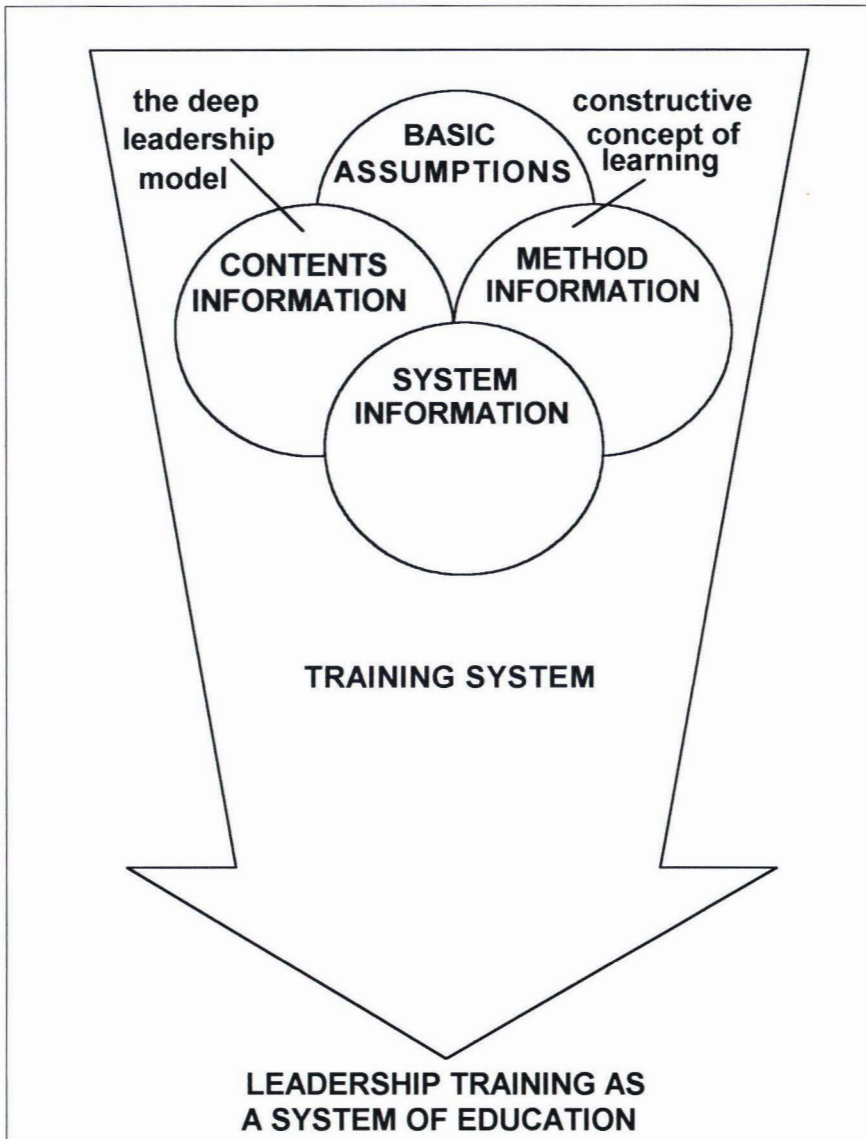


Figure 2. The entity of the leadership training program

2.1 The leadership training program as a system of education

The leadership training program that penetrates the entire structure of the Finnish Defence Forces is a system of education that has important effects on the entire society. Through military service alone, the Defence Forces train almost 10 000 military leaders to the reserve every year. Many of these reserve leaders continue in different leadership positions in society, in which case the leadership training obtained, during military service is externalized into society over a long time span. A system of such dimensions requires a systematic and holistic approach at the level of planning.

The following will briefly deal with the basics of systematic educational planning, on the basis of which the entity of the Defence Forces' leadership training program is easier to understand. The principles presented here are mainly based on Roger Kaufman's (1988) research on systematic educational planning.

Systematic educational planning

The main objective of the systematic approach of education is to describe how to carry out responsible, objective-oriented and anthropocentric educational planning. Planning can take into account individual differences and value foundations and develop interaction skills. The systematic approach has the following characteristics:

- it is objective-oriented,
- it considers the individual learner as the center and premise of the planning of the entire system,
- it is an exact way to ensure that the social and personal uniqueness of every individual is formally made the premise of planning,
- it emphasizes that the future success of a learner is equally important as success today.

The systematic approach sees education as a process that should provide learners with the requisite knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes so that they can adjust and function productively in society after their training. In the basic concepts of the training of the Finnish Defence Forces, *normative educational planning* corresponds the most closely to the systematic approach (Lehtinen, 1996). Furthermore, an educa-

tional system should produce opportunities for continuous self-development and social growth, thus participating in the development of the entire society. An efficient educational system is dynamic and self-corrective.

Educational activity must always have a publicly expressed objective, it must be objective-oriented and have trust in achieving those objectives. If the wish is to function in an anticipatory manner instead of mainly reacting, the control of change - anticipation - must have a central position already in the planning process. Invariability and stability lead to displacement, mere reacting is a waste of energy without any notable results. On the other hand, innovativeness and the activity with the assumption of responsibility that follow expose the planners of the educational system to criticism. Practical, functional and justified change is nevertheless always a part of the professional responsibility related to real leadership.

It must be remembered that educational systems are only means to achieve social objectives. Some shared characteristics of functioning planning models can be found in the areas of other social sciences and research:

- genuine interest in the success and well-being of the client
- responding to the needs of the client,
- excuses are not sought to cover up mistakes; instead, mistakes are learned from,
- interactive cooperation with the client,
- almost fanatic attention to detail and quality^[1]
- listening and learning,
- taking notice of the surrounding community and society. (Kaufman 1988, 8)

If the preceding list is compared with the principles of deep leadership presented in the next chapter, it can be said that this list contains the central principles of deep leadership from an organizational perspective^[2].

Education always takes place in a value context. The deliverer of the educational task and the contributory factors of the educational system form the value foundation of the system. The points of the preceding list can also be interpreted as operational

interpretations of the values of an efficient educational system, or as observations of what kinds of behavior models are carried out in efficient organizations^[3].

When the leadership training program of the Finnish Defence Forces, for example, is concerned, taking the surrounding society into consideration encourages, if possible, the use of such frameworks and models that can be flexibly applied to civilian organizations as well (Kivinen & Rinne & Ahola, 1989). In a wider perspective, it is also a question of increasing international activity and competitiveness (Lehtisalo, 1992).

2.2 The starting points of the leadership training program

The basic assumptions of the leadership training program stem directly from the new paradigm of leadership. The paradigm also offers a premise for the central contents and methods of the program. The basic assumptions are metascientific in nature. The leadership training program of the Finnish Defence Forces is built on the following basic assumptions:

1. There exists a phenomenon that can be called "excellent leadership behavior". This type of leadership behavior is based on respecting an individual and supporting his growth, but it is also efficient and productive from an organizational viewpoint, meaning it is worth striving for.
2. Excellent leadership behavior can be modeled in any cultural and organizational surroundings.
3. An efficient leadership training program with supplementary frameworks can be built around modeled leadership behavior.
4. Leadership behavior can be credibly and reliably measured with a questionnaire constructed on the basis of the model following the principles of work community feedback.
5. The development of leadership behavior is based on the development of the capabilities of an individual, which is to be seen as an internal, life-long process of the individual.

The contents information of the leadership training program is based on the paradigm, but the model in use has been adapted to the Finnish cultural environment and military culture. At the core of the contents information is the deep leadership model that is presented in the next chapter with respective frameworks. The statistical data related to the research of the structure of the deep leadership questionnaire and model are reported as a separate study. In leadership training, the deep leadership model is supported by the framework of leadership behavior and the general framework of leadership.

The model of deep leadership is theoretically based on the modeling of transformational leadership, but with empirical data it has been developed to respond to the requirements of Finnish military training. In addition, it has been ensured that the model has been developed towards our own war experiences, leaning on qualitative data (such as hundreds of theme interviews of war veterans). The general feedback obtained from training events arranged for the military instructors and, for example, user feedback on the functioning of the deep leadership questionnaire in the Rapid Data Analysis System have been taken into account in the preparation and updating of teaching material.

An essential part of contents information related to deep leadership is the work currently being done in the Finnish Defence Forces at different levels of leadership in connection to leadership training: the principles of deep leadership are being interpreted into practices appropriate for each area of operations and level of leadership^[4]. In the leadership behavior of an aspirant officer performing his military service deep leadership is likely to be applied differently than in the leadership behavior of a contingent commander. The personal capabilities are also different.

The most important thing in the entire program is that at individual level the contents information of deep leadership could at some point form a practical foundation for the critical self-evaluation of an individual's leadership behavior.

This requires leaders to commit themselves to contents information at both cognitive and affective level^[5]. The central challenge of the method information of the leadership training program can be derived from this requirement.

The basis of the **method information of the leadership training program** is the constructivistic concept of learning, the extensive application of which is being researched and carried out in the field of *military pedagogy*. In behavioral sciences the constructive concept of learning has challenged the behaviorist tradition and above all the people who work in interactive professions (Rauste-von Wright & von Wright, 1994). It is therefore possible even to speak of the *new paradigm of learning*. When studying the basics of training and leadership, one quickly runs into certain similarities that are primarily related to the facing of reality, human interaction and the formation of individual information. These similarities have been noticed in the birth stages of the paradigms being dealt with here.

The constructive concept of learning

When analyzing the opportunities and challenges of transformational leadership training, Burns (1978) starts off from the concepts of leadership and education. He draws a parallel between these concepts and questions in this context the behaviorist tradition of education. With his study Burns is actually creating a foundation for the new paradigm of leadership, but also to the constructive concept of learning. He writes:

"...it is the total learning process... conducted by both teachers and learners, engaging with the total environment, and involving influence over persons' selves and their opportunities and destinies, not simply their minds. Persons are taught by shared experiences and interacting motivations within identifiable physical, psychological, and socio-political environments. Ultimately education and leadership shade into each other to become almost inseparable, but only when both are defined as the reciprocal raising of levels of motivation rather than indoctrination or coercion." (Burns 1978, 448)

As his conclusions Burns suggests that in democratic systems leadership training must have a constructive basis. He questions, for example, learning from a model because it can lead to the loss of flexibility and situational sensitivity. Learning leadership starts from every individual himself, from the recognition, realization and voluntary development of one's own values and personal characteristics.

According to the constructive concept of learning, even one simple concept, phenomenon or thing can be interpreted, analyzed and understood in many different ways and this is what happens in connection to learning. When studying the results of learning, one should concentrate on finding out what kind of interpretations have been taken in. Learning is also always connected to the environment it takes place in. This environment is an entire context from micro level to macro level: from the level of a single emotion, situation and a choice of words through social interaction to a wider cultural context. According to the constructive concept of learning:

"Learning is a self-centered process in which the learner selects, interprets and analyzes information based on earlier information and experiences. This process has always been connected to the situation and culture. The interactive process and the schemes of the learner form the basis of new structures of meaning". (Rauste-von Wright & von Wright 1994, 15)

The cognitive theory of learning that acts behind the constructive concept of learning^[6] is built on three basic concepts. Constructivism means that information does not move from one person to another unchanged, but every individual constructs information himself and rebuilds his own schemes this way. The *active essence of information* outlines in particular the student's part in the learning process: is the student a passive recipient of information or an active individual who is eager to learn and who takes responsibility for his own learning? The concept of *mental representation* relates to an individual's ability to handle information and to his problem-solving skills. (Lonka 1997)

Purposeful learning, i.e. learning to learn, is a skill that must be developed alongside "normal" learning^[7]. Today among the central questions of research is the interaction

between a student's skill of conceptual thinking and learning behavior. In her study Venkula (1988) ends up analyzing the model of the cyclic development of activity, knowledge and attitudes. By this she means that the said dimensions and above all the development of an individual in these areas is a complex cyclic process in which factors constantly influence each other. For example, an individual's own activity and the feedback he receives on it have an effect on the individual's thoughts and the capabilities of conceptual thinking in a process-like manner. Venkula writes:

"As a result of experiencing competence that occurs with actions, skills as well as attitudes and knowledge change". (Venkula 1988, 224)

Knowledge and its control, or cognitive processes, are not separate parts of human activity, but they are tied to the entity of human personality. Positive feedback related to development as a leader encourages individuals towards more and more active duties. Experiencing competence^[8] that is related to the development of leadership behavior influences the development of personal capabilities, because changes take place also among values, appreciations and attitudes.

Professional skills or mastering the practical information needed in a certain post, demonstrating the required skills and efficient decision-making related to them create a foundation for the formation of self-confidence at individual level. The self-confidence of a leader has a significant connection to the comprehensive capability to further develop as a leader^[9].

Transformative learning

Jack Mezirow (1991) presents a new way of approaching the learning of adults. He describes the processes through which an adult can free himself of restraining ideologies, ways to observe things and psychological obstacles. He also offers an inside view of the skill of teaching adults, in which the reflecting of the teacher and the understanding of the learner's background have great importance.

According to Mezirow, the theories concerning the learning of adults have lacked a central element - *meaning perspective* - and how the meaning perspectives are con-

structured, evaluated and redesigned. He thinks a theory of transformative learning is needed to explain how an adult learner gives meanings to his own experiences, how he structurally constructs his experiences, designs meanings for things and solves conflicts of meaning. These issues can be understood only in the framework of adult development and social objectives. Mezirow also uses the concept of situational learning. By this he means the change that takes place in our way of interpreting situations. It includes giving value to phenomena that occur in different situations and choice-based decision-making that occurs as a result. In these processes we can further develop our ability to deal with our experiences so that the meanings we give to them function even better in relation to our area of operations.

In his theory Mezirow examines two important issues:

1. How an adult can free himself of established models of thinking and thus function and renew his own learning - the question is therefore about change in its original meaning.
2. The objective of change are methods that aim for self-reflection and experiential learning - meaning transformative learning.

The achievement of the objectives of transformative learning should be measured by comparing the students' original structures of meaning to the structures of meaning that have changed as a result of learning.

In the application of the constructive conception of learning, the pair of concepts **meaning perspective - self-directing** becomes a metascientific watershed. It is possible to study how individual meanings, schemes and perspectives of meaning are constructed from observations and experiences. It is also possible to study how on the basis of self-directing an individual can direct the construction of reality in himself. *An entirely different issue is what is natural and even possible to humans.* This belongs to the philosophical basic questions in both education and leadership. The latter concept, self-directing, refers to an ideal view of human beings that requires a certain viewpoint in the philosophy of science: a positive and growth-emphasizing perception of humans. This kind of perception is one of the basic components of the new leadership training program^[10].

Training and leadership

Matti Suonperä (1993) deals with the modern concept of learning. Of the connection between teaching and leadership he writes as follows:

"...when moved to the training environment, interaction includes also a thought of leadership... the successful progression of a teaching-learning event requires leadership that is in accordance with the situation. The question is above all about the directing of people's activities according to the demands of the objectives... The nature of a teaching event therefore includes leadership as well". (Suonperä 1993, 18-19)

From the viewpoint of a professional leader, a researcher who has worked as both an instructor and a teacher, it is easy to agree with Suonperä's thoughts. *Speaking of people, where is the line between teaching, training and leadership?* In the application of the leadership training program the premise has been the common characteristics of training and leadership, not their differences. The concept of training, that is closely related to the concept of leadership, also ties these concepts together. It has been fruitful to study this field of activity from a viewpoint that emphasizes the **shared** values, principles, models and functional solutions of these areas. The new paradigm of leadership integrates many of the mentioned congruencies, because one of the central duties of a leader is considered to be the development of the skills and capabilities of his subordinates. In practice this means learning, training and coaching at work (Bass, 1998). This view is emphasized especially in the area of method information.

Characteristic to the activities of a military leader is the strong overlapping of the roles of a trainer and a leader, especially in peace time service. The development of training has from this viewpoint required the standardization of the basic structures and concepts of leadership and training. I will return to the contents of military pedagogy and the practical methods applied in leadership training in the fourth chapter of this book.

The basis of the **system information of the leadership training program** is the organization of the training of the Finnish Defence Forces, the objectives of leadership training and the conception of the effectiveness of leadership training in a military organization.

In the Finnish Defence Forces leadership training is built within all training systems. By developing their training systems, military organizations attempt to respond to the change in the internal and external area of operations. Today and in the future military organizations face change that is both extensive and multidimensional. Pressure for change extends from the level of the area of operations and the meaning of the existence of military organizations to the perspectives of meaning of individual people. The conceptual and practical control of change is also the greatest challenge of military leadership in peace time Defence Forces. The control of change always requires flexibility and continuous learning, as well. Learning related to military leadership can not in the future rest only on the formal training system or be left to it. Every military leader should internalize the principle of continuous self-development or life-long learning as a part of his professional personality.

2.3 Leadership training, paradox and change

Where stability and change meet, conflicts that are often described with the concept of paradox are created. Conflicts are paradoxical, because an efficient organization needs both stable and changing (developing) elements.

How to train leaders who are capable of controlling the paradox? Changing the existing organizational structures may be fast, but changing deep structures and perspectives of meaning that are related to culture and people require more extensive measures over a long time span. One of the central means in military organizations is leadership training. With leadership training, preconditions have to be created for the control of the paradox at both conceptual and practical level. As Schein (1992) writes, the development of organizations is not possible unless it is understood that organizational culture is the most important drag on change and progress. Passive forms of adjustment are not enough, active processes of adjustment are needed. Learning organizations succeed, because they can change constantly. This requires

the ability to examine organizations conceptually, at the level of deep structures (Juuti & Lindström 1995). Leadership is the concrete tool used to develop organizations.

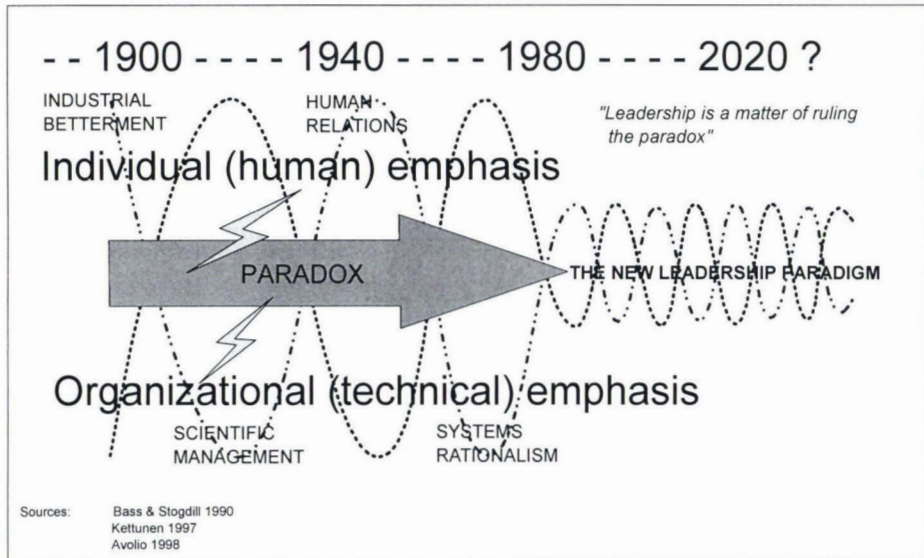


Figure 3. Paradox in the theory of leadership^[11]

As I show in figure 3, the paradox shows clearly in the different stages of the theory of leadership in the last century. Emphasis has shifted greatly from issue- and method-centric theories to people- and individual-centric theories. In this viewpoint, the new paradigm of leadership represents a synthesis in which the quality of leadership is decided by finding balance.

According to Stacey (1993), a characteristic of successful organizations is the control of the paradox. An organization^[12] has to try to fix its structures, or stabilize and centralize its routines and create an extensive control and directing system. On the other hand, attempts should be made to decentralize so that room is left for new ideas, innovativeness and creativity. Creating something new requires an often critical attitude to prevailing situations and generally accepted models of activity.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) define the birth factors of the paradox in an organization as follows:

- The fight between forces that support stability and change.
- A dramatic tension between the acceptance and denial of reality.
- The struggle between fear and hope.
- The battle between managing things and leading people.

Leaders have to control the paradox by creating a positive vision of the organization's future and by supporting individuals at emotional level in the difficult phases of change.

Avolio (1998) deals with the paradox in relation to time. The present is a state between the past and the future. Leaders who represent stability see the present as a continuation of a successful past. Leaders who represent change see the present as a springboard to the future and its challenges. The paradox can be controlled with development thinking that extends to individuals, groups and the whole organization and which has the following stages:

- building a scenario of the future,
- recognizing the conflict between the present and the scenario,
- formulating the required strategy of activity and way of thinking,
- changing the practical process,
- reinforcing change, and
- harmony.

Because change is constant, the development process is a cycle that repeats itself. If organizational culture requires in reality from its members the constant development and responsibility-taking for one's own work that are required by change, leadership can be seen as a means to exploit the individual potential of each member of the work community.

Magee, Beach and Mitchell (1991) have studied the management of change especially in a military organization. They approach leadership by studying the forces that resist change. At individual level, change is usually resisted for reasons that have to do with narrow-minded seeking of one's own benefit, the lack of knowledge and

trust, the lack of the community's vision and the avoidance of the challenges that succeed change.

At individual level, the conflict between the absolute value of power and the moral and values of an individual is related to the paradox. A military leader often finds himself in situations in which he has to make choices, consciously or unconsciously, in this exact position. We therefore go back to the basic premise, the thoughts of Burns (1978): development as a leader is personal growth, the core of which is the shaping of values in different conflict situations. The personal growth of a military leader becomes visible when more and more often choices are based on morals and values instead of seeking one's own benefit.

From the viewpoint of the control of the comprehensive change of the concept of leadership, the following subentities at least are a part of a military organization:

- analyzing the change of the area of operations with the means of anticipatory management,
- following and exploiting technical development from the viewpoint of management systems and leadership warfare,
- structural development of the organization and the maintenance of routines that support efficiency, and
- excellent leadership behavior that increases the efficiency of all activities.

Even though the entity of leadership described above points to leadership at strategic level, those same elements recur in their own conceptual systems all the way to the lowest levels of leadership. Excellent leadership behavior requires that the organization have a vision. With the help of the vision and the objectives derived from it, leaders can direct the change in people's perspectives of meaning and over a longer time span the organizational culture as well. (Bass 1985)

2.4 Development as a leader

This book does not analyze the changing structures of training systems. Instead, its objective is to present the principles and practical applications on which leadership training is appropriate to build in any training system. The setting of goals for leadership training starts from a basic arrangement, shown in figure 4, which is a part of the conception of learning of the new paradigm of leadership. Development as a leader is a life-long process that is tied to the whole personality of an individual.

Formal training is only a part of this long process that, from the viewpoint of leadership behavior, is related to the comprehensive growth as a human being. In the end, the comprehensive development as a leader is in fact the development of the capability that acts on the background of all skills. This process is based on the self-directiveness of a leader.

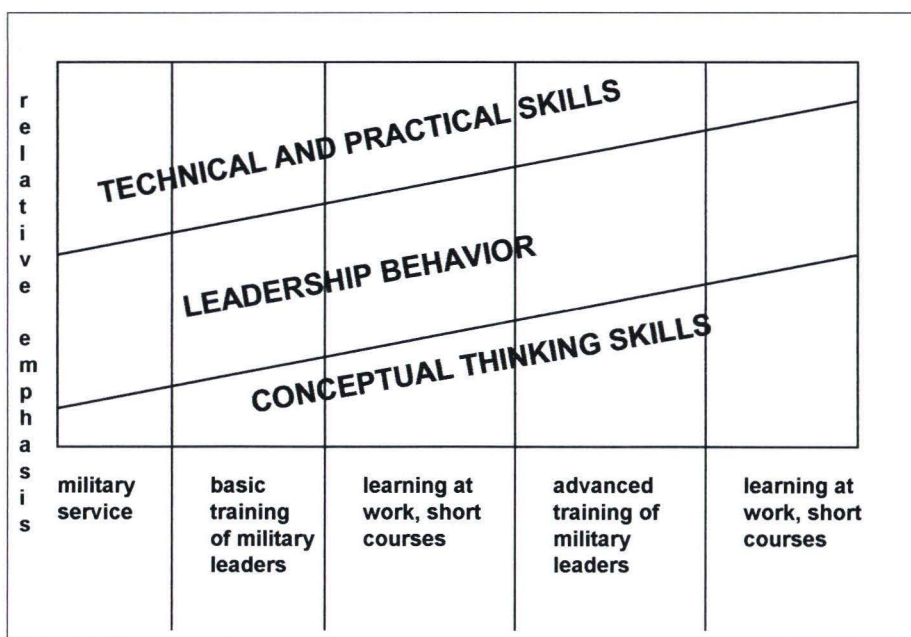


fig. 4 The framework of development as a leader in the training of military leaders^[14]

Rauste-von Wright and von Wright (1994) analyze the concepts of reflection and self-reflection from the viewpoint of the development history of an individual. They think that self-reflection requires being aware of and interpreting one's internal activi-

ties, i.e. examining one's own intentions and motives. It is obvious that with self-reflection, we can obtain new information about our self.

From the viewpoint of the skill metaphor, we are dealing with a skill that requires both learning even as such and learning-related motivation to exploit meta-cognitive information. Scientists emphasize the role of cognitive conflicts in the development of self-reflective thinking and their interpretation is that in adult teaching the concept of self-directiveness is an interpretation of self-reflection and is based on the skill metaphor^[15].

Leena Ahteenmäki-Pelkonen (1997) has studied the concept of self-directiveness especially based on the scientific work of Jack Mezirow. According to her, the objective of self-directiveness is to change an individual's personal framework, or perspective of meaning into a more authentic one so that it includes realistic and integrated principles for activity. This objective is approached in a process that includes critical awareness, participation in discourse and reflective activity. At the core of the definition of self-reflectiveness is an individual's ability to understand his position as a subject in relation to his thinking and feelings.

Mezirow (1991) describes the self-directiveness, learning and thinking of adults with exactly identical concepts. A communal view is brought to the side of the individual-centricity of self-directiveness. Mezirow writes:

"The essence of adult education is to help learners construe experience in a way that allows them to understand more clearly the reasons for the problems and the action options open to them so that they can improve the quality of their decision-making." (Mezirow 1990, 203)

Ruohotie (1995) emphasizes the concept of self-directiveness in relation to learning and he defines, quoting Varila (1990), that self-directiveness usually means a learner's state of awareness, or the capability for self-directive learning. Self-directiveness can therefore be examined as a process and a state of awareness. The latter can be regarded as a fairly permanent characteristic of an individual.

What is the relationship between the concept of self-directiveness and leadership training? Development as a leader requires an individual to have very personal and deep-reaching processes, as a result of which the individual can change both his externally visible leadership behavior and his personal capabilities that give a foundation to it. From these viewpoints, self-directiveness is not only desirable or worth pursuing; it is the basic requirement for development as a leader. From the process view of self-directiveness, the question has to do with the cycle of anticipation, activity itself and the logical analysis of activity-related feedback. The entire cycle is related to an individual's own leadership behavior. Seeing self-directiveness as a state of awareness means that a general objective of leadership training at all stages must be the development of capabilities that have to do with an individual's self-awareness and self-reflection.

From the viewpoint of the objectives of leadership training, self-directiveness is a conceptual abstraction, an entity that remains behind more specific objectives that can be shaped more clearly. Self-reflection has to do with an individual's ideal of becoming perfect, as well as the dimensions of functionality and maturity. When leadership training is being planned, the development of self-directiveness should be a central premise for training methods as well as for the professional qualifications of instructors. From the viewpoint of evaluation, the question is about an individual's commitment to self-directiveness's key value, continuous self-development.

2.5 The hierarchy of the objectives of the leadership training program

The objectives of leadership training can be defined at several different levels, from a single concrete procedure or model all the way to the abstract concept of self-directiveness. Here the emphasis is on examining the setting of objectives for leadership training in the framework of the Defence Forces. As an example of similar goal setting, it is possible to mention the objectives of the Leadership Training Institute of the Israeli Defence Forces. In a report on training (The School for Leadership Development 1998), the objectives of institutional leadership training are defined as follows:

1. development of self-awareness and conceptual thinking,
2. development of the key skills of leadership behavior,

3. development of self-confidence related to an individual's leadership.

Similar principles can also be found in the latest doctrine of military leadership (FM 22-100, Army Leadership 1999)^[16] of the U.S. armed forces.

The development of self-awareness and conceptual thinking aim to support comprehensive self-reflection and personal growth. The new paradigm of leadership forms a basis for training. In the development of leadership behavior emphasis is not solely on perceivable interactive skills, but on key skills such as visioning and development of situational awareness. The aim is to develop self-confidence of leader trainees by using methods of learning at work, by ensuring sufficient and encouraging feedback through simulated exercises and the trainers' coaching touch.

To a young military leader in particular, technical and practical skills are necessary basic skills that form a foundation for the entity of professionalism. In their own area of operations, they are connected to the use and maintenance of weapons, weapons systems and ordnance and to general military skills like orienteering, firing, close combat and first-aid skills. When a young military leader plans and organizes training, his above-mentioned skills form the premise for his activities. There are notable differences between services, branches and training branches and the curriculum must reflect this. The significance of this area of skill decreases in leadership when moving to the middle and top levels of an organization.

Inter- and intrapersonal skills are related to leadership behavior. Interpersonal skills refer to the ability to understand other people and their behavior: how to create trust among people, what encourages, inspires and motivates, how to really get people involved and committed to both objectives and self-development, how important it is to listen, care for and respect one's fellow-men. Intrapersonal skills are directed at the individual himself, thus creating a foundation for real self-directiveness. The importance of this area of skill remains large at all levels of leadership. On the other hand, it should be noted that changes in the level of leadership and the area of operations create a need for an individual to check the efficiency of his leadership behavior by using feedback systems.

The skills of conceptual thinking are related to the cognitive processes of the highest level. The control of entities, understanding complexity and efficient decision-making require the ability to combine and understand concrete phenomena at a conceptual level. Conceptual thinking creates a foundation for the ability to do research. It also creates a foundation for the ability to draw up visions and manage in an anticipatory manner; in other words, strategic level leadership^[17]. Conceptual thinking is the control of information at all levels. On the other hand, it should be noted that changes in the level of leadership and the area of operations always cause a need for individuals to review with feedback systems the efficiency of their leadership behavior.

When interpreting this framework in the training systems, or the setting of goals for curricula, it would be advantageous to examine a matrix in which variables are contents information and method information as well as long and short term goals. This way leadership training can acquire a logical structure that takes into account the needs of the organization as well as the demands related to the development and life-long learning of an individual. The hierarchy of goals is also referred to in the areas or training planning (Lehtinen 1996).

Leadership training carried out in a military organization aims primarily to fulfill precise organizational needs. The needs of leadership training are based on the tasks and structures of the military organization, in which case qualitative and quantitative demands can be set on the training system. Through systematic planning it is possible to build inside leadership training a value foundation that supports the activities of the entire organization as well as democratic social order^[18]. Leadership training in a military organization cannot be free of values. The attitudes and behavioral models of instructors as well as different traditions carried on by students emphasize the significance of the internalization of the value foundation.

It is difficult to imagine the training of military leaders without a framework that originates from values. This becomes the basic question of leadership training that originates from an organization: *can the constructive principle of leadership training, introduced already by Burns, be applied to the traditional value-bound training system?* Giving an exact answer here is impossible, but in principle the question deals with the possible conflict of the values of the organization and trainees. In pluralistic

and heterogeneous societies this problem has already been recognized (Ulmer 1999).

No significant problems in this area have surfaced in Finland so far, because other values of society have strongly supported the performance of the training duty of the defence forces. At individual level there is a trend of increasing plurality, but trainees with value foundations that have adjusted well to the training system of a military organization have chosen to become career officers (Verkasalo 1995). From the viewpoint of the training system it is also important that the development of leaders trained for the reserve is encouraged to continue in the leadership positions of the civilian society. This is how connections to the social framework are made.

The reform of leadership training that has already been started must therefore be seen as a part of cyclic movement in which changes in the values of the area of operations, leadership training and the leadership culture of the entire organization follow each other. The new paradigm of leadership is seen as a particularly competent premise for leadership for this particular reason (Bass 1998a). *Is the "complete" model of deep leadership offered to the trainees not in conflict with the constructive conception of learning?* If methods presented later in this book are applied to training, it can be noticed that the paradox is solved through the unraveling of the trainees' leadership experiences. The inevitable result of the compilation of the trainees' experiences is a description of leadership behavior that is sufficiently joined to the model of deep leadership. Therefore we are dealing with a process that mainly strengthens our already existing collective conception of the forms of excellent leadership behavior.

From the viewpoint of leadership behavior, the objectives of the leadership training program position themselves in the following hierarchical order:

1. Development of the leadership behavior of individuals.
2. Development of the leadership capability of individuals.
3. Increasing the efficiency and productivity of the Finnish Defence Forces.
4. Development of the leadership culture of the Finnish Defence Forces.
5. Development of leadership in the entire society.

2.6 Evaluating the effectiveness of the leadership training program

The starting point for the assessment of the effectiveness of leadership training is the basic assumption that leadership is the most important way of developing organizations and their cultures. Thus leadership training is the most important tool of controlled change. With leadership it is possible to have an effect on everything that takes place in peace time Defence Forces. Therefore, when measuring for example the quality of training, leadership and the effectiveness of leadership training are indirectly measured at the same time, too. The following paragraphs present key tools for discovering the effectiveness of leadership in the hierarchy of objectives.

One part of systematic educational planning is evaluation that is related to execution. This makes it possible for the system to be dynamic and self-correcting. Evaluation means clarifying and evaluating the results of training. When the practical execution of training is analyzed, real self-correctiveness starts from the attitude of each instructor and educator to develop, not from ordered processes.

Several parallel concepts are related to evaluation, the most central of which are effectiveness, economy and productivity. Evaluation of effectiveness, i.e. the analysis of the actual effects of the given training, should take place at all levels that are essential training-wise. (Lehtinen, 1996) The evaluation of the leadership training of the Finnish Defence Forces should be based on the goal-setting of leadership training. The areas being evaluated are:

- The basic structure of the leadership training program.
- Internal evaluation of leadership training at all levels.
- Personal development of military leaders.
- Leadership culture at local level.
- Organization culture in the entire Finnish Defence Forces.
- Social impact of leadership training.

The evaluation of the basic structure of leadership training is a central part of the reform process of leadership training, and the results of the evaluation have already had an impact on both contents and method information of the curricula and teaching material of the program. Evaluation is carried out mainly on the basis of

feedback information. This information has been collected from the leadership training of both conscripts and personnel. The personnel, researchers and teachers of the Defence Staff, units, the National Defence College and the National Defence Institute have participated in the collection and analysis of the feedback information. The nature of the evaluation of the program's paradigm-oriented basic assumptions is a long-term research activity. The evaluation of the program's method information is connected to the development of the training system of the entire Finnish Defence Forces and it will be carried out within this framework.

Evaluation inside the leadership training system is continuous self-evaluation development at college level. Separating from the results the exact part that is the result of training may be a problem. At college level, results of effectiveness can be classified in the following way:

- experiences of know-how,
- willingness to develop oneself (motivation result),
- goal-bound performances in learning situations (achievement of goals),
- development of intellectual, social, etc. skills,
- fulfilling the needs of students. (Kilpinen, Salmio, Vainio & Vanne 1995)

The **feedback system** of the National Defence College is one example of efficiency evaluation of leadership training. The feedback system consists of the following parts:

- *Course feedback*: carried out by the teacher in charge at the end of the course, includes a feedback discussion with students that is based on analyzed numerical feedback; a development memorandum is drawn up.
- *Annual course feedback*: every year, the degree divisions collect, analyze and report on students' views on the general arrangements of training and the quality of teaching/guidance.
- *Work environment surveys*: the headquarters of the College collects, analyzes and reports on the views of hired personnel on the requirements, resources and cooperation based on which the main task, i.e. training, is being carried out.

- *External feedback*: approximately one year after graduation, the degree divisions collect feedback from officers and their superiors in service. The aim of the survey is to find out how well training and especially its short-term aims have responded to the challenges of the duties of service.

This feedback system can be supported with surveys that are department- or subject-specific. For the part of the development of leadership behavior, data in the form of self-evaluation has been collected from cadet courses just before graduation on the attitude towards continuous self-development. When it comes to major questions, the information produced by the feedback system should form the basis of decision-making for the management group of the College.

I will discuss the **evaluation of military leaders' individual development** more closely in the fifth chapter of this book. Nevertheless, the principle at all levels is that the leader himself is responsible for the collection, analysis and filing of feedback information on his leadership behavior. During the development discussions that are carried out on this basis it is possible to tackle the actual factors of change between a leader and his subordinate. A file copy, also called a leadership file, functions as the memory and instrument of the development of leadership behavior. When the highest leadership of the Finnish Defence Forces is concerned, the evaluation is supplemented with competency assessment, in which information relating to leadership behavior is supplemented by assessing those competencies that according to research the highest leadership needs in expert tasks as well as in the roles of operative and strategic level leadership.

Leadership culture at local level is evaluated mostly at the level of annual work environment surveys. In units that train conscripts, different follow-up systems that focus on the amount and quality of training function as important so-called 'hard' meters. This system is further supplemented by conscript and reservist surveys that are carried out at regular intervals.

Work environment surveys are targeted at the entire hired personnel. In its current form, a work environment survey yields practical information from individual level to be used in annual follow-up. Among other things, the information deals with:

- the leadership behavior of superiors,
- the division of tasks in a unit,
- work satisfaction,
- strenuousness of work,
- work space and tools,
- the flow of information in the unit,
- the clarity of objectives,
- cooperation, and
- the willingness of personnel to develop.

The results are also followed and filed at the national level.

Attempts are made to anchor the *training results* to the amount and quality of the war time troops that are produced. In the final assessment, a 'client's point of view' is taken into account, meaning that the war time commander assigned from the regular personnel is included in the assessment process. The renewed leadership training sets development needs for this assessment process, because the increased responsibility of training and leadership of conscript leaders must be taken into account when assessing the final product. This is particularly important when the aim is to evaluate the personal productivity of an instructor based on the quality of war time troops produced.

Conscript and reservist surveys are carried out at regular intervals. Reservist surveys are typically carried out during refresher training, the aim being to collect information about attitudes towards national defence as well as the structure and execution of the refresher training in question. Conscript surveys are carried out by the Defence Staff or the unit in question. The Training Division of the Defence Staff follows the effectiveness of training with annual conscript surveys. Furthermore, various survey studies are carried out when necessary, one example being a survey on the new leadership and instructor training that is meant for conscript leaders just before the completion of their military service^[19].

The organizational culture of the Finnish Defence Forces can be assessed by combining and synthesizing the results of the feedback system targeted at leadership culture.

The development of the new leadership training program began for contents and method information as a kind of pilot project in the teaching of cadets at the National Defence College in fall 1995. Feedback and experiences acquired from the teaching of cadets were exploited in the further development of contents and method information. The training of conscript leaders was renewed using the intake II/98 whose service started in July; the renewal process was led by the Training Division of the Defence Staff. The same fall, the application of new curriculum was begun in the advanced training of warrant officers at the National Defence Institute. The stages of this development work and the first experiences that have been studied are reported in more detail in the book "Uuteen johtajakoulutukseen" (Towards the New Leadership Training) that was published in May 2000.

On these grounds, it is possible to estimate that at company level, the timing of the first milestones of the effectiveness will probably be around 2004-2006. At that point, the majority of company commanders and all younger instructors will have received new leadership training and the basic structures of the program, like feedback systems, have become established. Effectiveness can then be assessed with the previously presented meters and results can be reported like follow-up studies. It will be possible to answer the question: *Is leadership culture changing?* In this case the basic assumption is that if leadership culture is noticed to be changing towards deep leadership, it will be shown as development and productivity of activities as well as motivation and satisfaction of all personnel groups.

Organizational culture has to do with long term follow-up and research. Because leadership culture is a central part of organizational culture, tentative conclusions can be made for a ten-year timespan. In the effectiveness of leadership training, the decisive phase is when all personnel in service has received leadership training that is based on deep leadership. This will naturally take several decades to happen.

The start of the leadership training program has of course been supported by rather extensive continuation training of personnel already in service. Participants in the centralized continuation training in 1998-1999 have included:

- training management at all levels of headquarters,
- commanders of contingents and units,
- commandants of non-commissioned officers' schools and heads of reserve officer course units,
- company commanders,
- physical training officers, and
- a part of the instructors at reserve non-commissioned officer schools and reserve officer courses.

Furthermore, the training personnel in contingents has received continuing training on the new leadership and instructor training^[20]. The main goal of this book is to support the new leadership training program by making central information available to all who need it in a summarized form.

Evaluating the **social effects of the leadership training of the Finnish Defence Forces** is a new area of research. Organizing and developing research in this area requires increasing cooperation in research between the defence forces and the surrounding society. To the researchers of the Defence Forces, the new tools of leadership behavior evaluation offer opportunities for various follow-up and cohort studies. There are also no unsurpassable obstacles in sight for research that focuses on the follow-up and success of persons in their civilian life who had received leadership training during their conscript service.

An example of an evaluation study of the leadership training program

McCauley and Hughes-James (1994) have evaluated the effectiveness of leadership training in their study "An Evaluation of the Outcomes of a Leadership Development Program". It is a longitudinal study of a leadership training program that attempted to develop the leadership behavior of school district principals. A year-long process of training and follow-up included regular teaching in the form of courses, carrying out development plans that were based on feedback, keeping a leadership journal (in

the form of a portfolio) and using experienced superiors as the instructors and coaches of the trainees. The participants reported three types of results on the leadership training:

- *Development in the area of methods and skills*: development of reflective thinking, self-knowledge, real interaction and the understanding of the principle of continuous learning.
- *Changes at the level of personal capabilities*: development in the ways of thinking, problem solving models and the control of one's own feelings.
- *Improvement in the productivity of the work unit*: measured with hard meters as well.

The scientists present three observations as their own conclusions. The development of leadership is needed at all levels of organizations. Programs that start off by strengthening attitudes towards development and analyzing personal leadership behavior are flexible and function throughout life. Self-directiveness develops best if classroom teaching is expanded to learning at work, using a coach and keeping a leader diary.

The results presented are very encouraging, because all elements that are included in the previously reported study are included as long term factors in the new leadership training program. Purposeful emphasis must be placed on the support of the execution of the program, though. Even though the basic ideas of contents information represented by deep leadership can be shown to be permanent, carrying out the entire program in a military organization is a concrete change, and the general rules and opposing forces of change apply to it. Movement is also circular, because the different parts of the program support each other. There is great faith that the change will take place, though, because the positive feedback and the long-lasting encouragement of improved results that relate to deep leadership and the experience of it push the change forward.

The new leadership training program thus includes a vision of leadership training as a strategic factor of success for the Defence Forces as well as the entire society.

CHAPTER 2 REFERENCES

1) The concept of quality is not unambiguous. Quality has to do with both activities and their results. Quality is something exceptional, faultless and uniform, purposeful, cost-effective and developing. The starting point of the quality thinking in the Finnish Defence Forces is to develop the organization's will to continuously develop its activities. Self-evaluation is the most important tool in this development work.

2) In his thesis for the general staff officer course, Major Ville Vuorio (2000) has studied companies of the ground forces using three independent factors: self-evaluation of the unit that is based on quality activities, evaluation of success based on the company commander's training results, and the leadership profile of the company commander produced with the deep leadership questionnaire. When comparing companies classified according to self-evaluation and evaluation of success, Vuorio found that the leadership profile of the company commander has a statistically significant connection to self-evaluated quality as well as success evaluated by the commanding officer. The companies of commanders with the profile of a deep leader are clearly able to perform better than other companies.

3) In education and education planning, values are the objects of constant research and also conflicts between schools. The acceptability of education being value-bound is related to the ability of a democratic society to carry out real and critical discussion about values. A value discussion requires an open culture that can tolerate what is different. The new leadership training program has been criticized for having been built without this critical discussion inside the organization. But the renewed leadership training aims to change the leadership culture of the Defence Forces so that in the future actual value discussion would be possible. It is evident that the leadership culture of a military organization is based on an internally accepted value foundation. More on values in education can be found in: Tapio Puolimatka: "Kasvatus ja filosofia" (Education and Philosophy) (1995).

4) One example of the application of deep leadership to training has been reported in the Guard Jaeger Regiment rule R 3979/5.1/D IIII 23.12.1998: "Varusmiesten johtaja- ja kouluttajakoulutuksen käytännön järjestelyt Uudenmaan Jääkäripataljoonassa" (The practical arrangements for the leadership and instructor training of conscripts in Uusimaa Jaeger Battalion). The rule describes briefly the process used to apply the principles in the battalion. Appendix I of the document describes how to turn the principles of deep leadership into practical directions for platoon leaders.

5) For the part of constructivism, and partly the constructive conception of learning, research concentrates in a notable way on the cognitive processes of an individual. Because developing as a leader is a comprehensive growth process, the emotional dimension of an individual's personality has to be fully taken into consideration in research. In addition to metacognitive capabilities, a leader absolutely needs meta-affective capabilities as well.

6) The concept of learning can mean the basic assumptions made about the nature of the learning process, or the scheme formed at individual level about

learning that directs the activities of a teacher and an educator. A dichotomic (paradigmatic) division into concepts of learning is based on either empirical-behavioristic or cognitive-constructive approach. Furthermore, a humanist concept of learning, among others, can be distinguished. It emphasizes in particular the importance of experiential learning. (Rauste-von Wright, 1996)

7) Everyone can develop his skills of learning and thinking. The best learning methods are usually simple and on the whole they share one common feature: they encourage the use of all areas of intelligence as well as all senses to speed up learning. Looking at social change, many say that it is increasingly important to understand and control *how* to learn, rather than what to learn. (Dryden & Vos, 1997)

8) Really experiencing competence that is related to military leadership usually occurs when one sees and experiences that his troops have learned something new or performed well at a given task. Acquiring experiences of competence requires an opportunity for independent activity at all levels. In the everyday life of training, this often means risk-taking as well as failures. However, it is necessary from the viewpoint of the growth of young military leaders. Furthermore, the probability of failure can be reduced in conscript training, among others, by training and coaching conscript leaders in advance as well as possible.

9) In his book "Self-Efficacy. The Exercise of Control", Albert Bandura (1998) analyzes the concept of self-efficacy quite profoundly. From the viewpoint of leadership training, an important observation is that successful trainers who can raise the self-efficacy of their trainees concentrate on a few things: the development of basic skills, building trust in success and getting over failures quickly. Goals have to be set so high that they will not be achieved without effort.

10) The training booklet "Sotilasjohtajien johtaja- ja kouluttajakoulutus" (The Leadership and Instructor Training of Military Leaders), that is given to everyone in the Finnish Defence Forces who is to be trained a leader, deals with the human characterization of leadership for five pages. Ruohotie's (1993) division into rational, control-emphasizing and growth-emphasizing characterization has been chosen as basic material.

11) Pertti Kettunen (1997) has written about the special features of Finnish leadership. He sees that leaders and researchers like to run after fashionable trends. He thinks that the thinking patterns of hard and soft orientation overlap each other today. Kettunen considers that the application of different models into different cultures is a problem.

12) How does an organization fix its structures? The matter is always about the activities of people, of which leaders are responsible. According to the general framework of leadership presented later in this book, preconditions for activities are created by a purposeful structure and efficient routines. The duty of a leader is to make sure that these basic requirements create efficiency instead of destroying it.

13) The training booklet "Sotilasjohtajien johtaja- ja kouluttajakoulutus" (The Leadership and Instructor Training of Military Leaders) includes the following definition: anticipatory leadership on the whole means that a leader at least in his

thoughts lives the situation ahead and tries to foresee possible leadership problems so that they can be prepared for and possibly even prevented.

14) The new paradigm of leadership has had an effect on the thinking about leadership training in the armed forces of other countries. For example, the latest leadership doctrine of the U.S. armed force, "Army Leadership", starts off from a similar framework. See also: Hersey & Blanchard & Johnson (1996): "Management of Organizational Behavior".

15) Emphasizing the significance of cognitive conflicts builds a direct connection to the thoughts of Burns (1978) that have already been presented in this book. Seeing leadership as development of the capabilities of subordinates requires that a leader is even capable of inspiring cognitive conflicts in his subordinates and facing the situations that follow.

16) Because we are dealing with the doctrine of leadership and not leadership training, this book does not separately define the objectives of leadership for different levels. The requirements for leadership, including the coaching of subordinates, nevertheless include objectives that combine traditional military training and the principles of the new paradigm of leadership.

17) Strategic level leadership can be perceived already through the levels presented in figure 1 of this book. In the Finnish Defence Forces, strategic level leadership is a task of the Generals.

18) The demand for the transparency of the activities of the Defence Forces is growing continuously in society. Exchanges with civilian organizations in the areas of training as well as work increase all the time. Society has to be able to trust that the value foundation of the Defence Forces corresponds to the demands of western democracy and Christian ethical culture. In practice the conclusions about this correspondence are often made based on the encountered leadership culture.

19) The feedback survey directed at the conscript leaders of intake II/98 yielded 2 093 acceptable replies (PEkoul-os ilmoitus 22.10.1999 R3030/5.7/D/II). Only 7% of conscript leaders who replied thought that leadership training would not be useful to them in their civilian activities. When the fact that the renewed leadership training is only getting started in units is taken into consideration, it can justifiably be said that from the viewpoint of the trainees, the appreciation of leadership training and its importance as, say, a recruitment factor to the Defence Forces is growing significantly.

20) The training events have usually lasted 2-4 hours and all trainers of the contingent have been ordered to attend either in one or two lots. On these occasions it has been possible to openly discuss the goals, application and problems of the new leadership training program. The feedback obtained has been used in the development of teaching material, among other things.

PART II

Carrying out the leadership training program

"In military training, much more is expected of a leader than before, because the judiciousness of conscripts is much higher than in the past decades. I wish that training brings forth the main issues - they do not include attention, at ease and break the ranks. The main thing is that the trainee learns to understand why."

General of the Infantry Adolf Ehrnrooth

3. THE METHOD INFORMATION OF LEADERSHIP TRAINING

The core of the contents information of the leadership training program is the model of deep leadership. The dimensions of excellent leadership behavior are called the cornerstones of deep leadership. The deep leadership questionnaire, which is designed to be a feedback tool that measures desirable behavior, is connected to the deep leadership model and its structure. The questionnaire is also the most important tool in the collection of information that can be used to test statistically the hypothetical structure of the model. The validity of the deep leadership model and the questionnaire is reported in a separate study. In connection to the deep leadership model, the frameworks, that the model is "fitted" in the leadership training program, have to be presented. *The general framework of leadership* gives a foundation to perceiving the entity of leadership. *The framework of leadership behavior* ties the concept of leadership behavior to a wider individual viewpoint, giving a structure to the deep leadership model.

The deep leadership model is a tool that has been developed to the Finnish cultural environment and especially to a Finnish military organization. It leans on the basic assumptions of the new paradigm of leadership and the empirical research that has been done to model the paradigm. The model presented in this book has been designed to meet the needs of the leadership training of the Finnish Defence Forces. The cornerstones of deep leadership include information about excellent leadership behavior and this information does not change in time. As a whole, the model of deep leadership is not universal, nor detailed enough in its area of application. It is "only" a model^[1]. The model contains information that should be considered in training and applied to the needs of different branches and services.

With its framework, the model offers great opportunities for the leadership training program, when the nature of the model and the related questionnaire as tools and directors of individual thought are understood and internalized. Leadership training attempts to narrow the gap between theory and practice by applying the model to basic training as well as the feedback on leadership behavior that takes place in service. An individual leadership profile and other feedback are seen to offer a practical interpretation of the principles of deep leadership to leader trainees.

The **goal** of the use of the deep leadership model in describing the contents information of the leadership training program is to:

- Form a framework to the concept of leadership behavior that supports the interpretation of the experiences of trainees and the formation of new perspectives of meaning.
- Support the understanding and application of information produced by the research of leadership in a way that serves training and learning.
- Give to leader trainees a comprehensive foundation for the development of their leadership behavior with feedback.

In Finland, the possible translations of transformational leadership have included changing, renewing, motivating and constructive leadership. *So why the term deep leadership?* The phenomenon behind the new paradigm of leadership, here called excellent leadership behavior, is based on the fundamental opportunities of leadership and the fountainhead of its power. Real leadership stems from the level of the internal human needs of the leader as well as his subordinates: values, needs, desires and motivation. It has been noted that a leader can bring about changes in his subordinates' perspectives of meaning. On the other hand, the development of leadership behavior requires an increase of self-knowledge and continuous directing of one's own attributes. All these processes penetrate human beings beneath the surface.^[2]

In the area of behavioral sciences, especially in pedagogy and in the conceptual field of the constructive conception of learning can be found the established term **deep learning** that is the antonym of surface learning. The concepts of deep learning and surface learning have been developed by Ference Marton. In the process of surface learning the learner concentrates mainly on information as such, not on its significance or contents. In the process of deep learning the learner concentrates on the significance and goal of information, attempting to understand its fundamental purpose and its connection to his own experiences and previous knowledge. Weighing the reasons for preconceived ideas is also related to this process. Deep learning therefore has to do with the reformulation of individual perspectives of meaning at least on a mental level.^[3]

How does deep learning manifest itself in the knowledge and skills of an individual? Toiskallio (1997) claims that deep learning shows when the learner understands the entity related to information, he is able to use this information in a new problem situation, is able to make choices and function effectively in new and surprising conditions. Deep learning also includes the development of one's own conceptions, appreciations and activities and their critical assessment. **Deep leadership is based on the same human mechanisms as deep learning.** Toiskallio's definition mentioned above, for example, can be transferred to deep leadership as such, only the word 'learner' is substituted with 'subordinate'.

Deep leadership is a term of behavioral science. Deep leadership is based on the opportunities of a leader to influence the perspectives of meaning of himself and his subordinates (Burns, 1978). The cornerstones of deep leadership include lasting and essential information of those forms of leadership behavior with which this kind of influencing is possible (Bass, 1998). The deep leadership model also includes other forms of leadership behavior that have been distinguished through research - controlling leadership and passive leadership - and that have their own mechanisms of influence.

3.1 The general framework of leadership

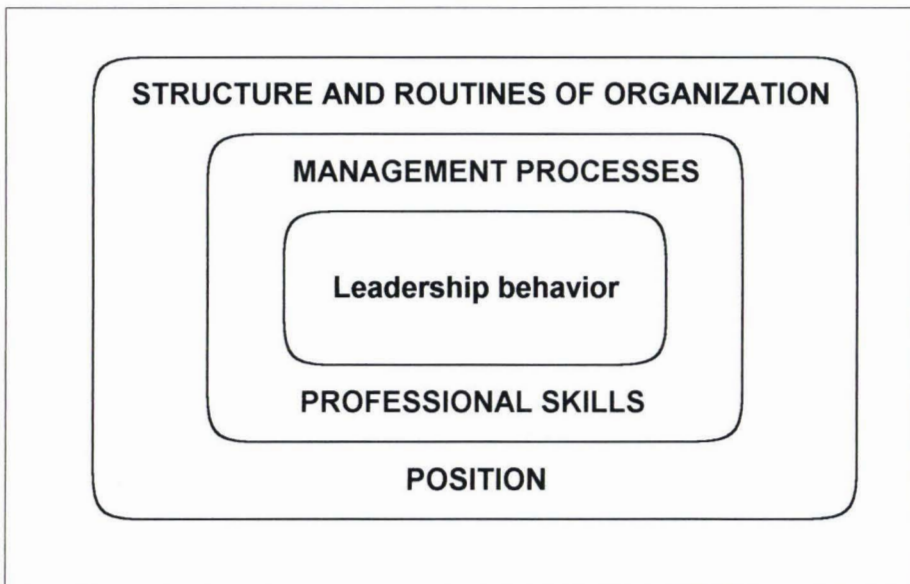


Figure 5. The general framework of leadership

Conceptually leadership behavior is connected to a wider entity of leadership with the help of the general framework of leadership. The framework gives justifications for the analysis of the contents of the concepts and the relationships between them, describing the entity of leadership from the level of an individual leader. Drawing an exact and unambiguous line between the areas in Figure 5 is, of course, impossible (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). The relationships between the concepts are not clear in current research literature. The nature of the framework is cumulative and multidimensional. Differences that increase understanding are found between the stages when analyzing the temporal dimension and stability of a leader's activities. Thus, in military context, the high level concept is *command*, which includes the three main dimensions: *position* given by the organization, *management* seen as a process and *leadership* seen as overall activity.

The new paradigm of leadership leans on research and assumes that in successful organizations leaders master the entity of the framework. It is the leader's responsibility that structures and routines function. Decision-making has to be supported by smooth processes and efficient handling of information. It is essential that successful leaders attempt to use most of their resources within the core of the framework, not on its outer perimeter. Characteristic to these leaders and their organizations^[4] is productivity, efficiency and situational sensitivity. The general framework of leadership has been found quite useful when studying the tasks, position and activities of a single leader in a military organization. With the framework it is possible to analyze the relationship between the entity of leadership and its various areas in changing areas of operations.

The structure and routines of an organization are based on the fundamental purpose of the organization's existence. The goals and objectives of activities are built on this basis. Activities are divided into different areas, they are phased and prioritized. The guidelines and limitations are defined by creating the organization's strategy of action. Overall resources are allocated and budgeted. The structure of the organization is defined and carried out so that the fluency of basic functions is ensured by defining and giving directions concerning the procedures to be standardized. A system of communications and contacts is built inside the organization. An appropriate personnel structure is defined within the basic structure of the organiza-

tion, and at the same time the most important procedures are defined. Quality requirements are drawn up for the personnel and directions are given concerning the hiring and placement of personnel. (Bass & Stogdill, 1990)

In time a phenomenon that is called organizational culture grows into the structures and routines of an organization. Because of its permanence, in this framework it is understood to be a part of the foundation of the organization, a basic structure of its social system. Organizational culture remains constantly in the background, having an effect on the activities of individual leaders. Organizational culture draws its strength from the basic assumptions and values connected to the organization (Long 1993, 61-70). Leadership culture is an important part of organizational culture.

The conception of human beings cherished by leadership culture can be considered an asset to an organization, and it strongly directs the leadership behavior of individual leaders. In the leadership training program, this foundation must have a clear and justified conception of human beings as its premise.

There is reason to review the structure of an organization from time to time. A new goal, strategy and objectives often require the review of technical and administrative systems. In this context organizational culture should not be forgotten, either. Leadership culture must be carefully studied; where is information obtained, who is listened to, who participates in the decision-making process, how is the division of rewards and benefits carried out? Answers that are justifiably systematic have to be found to these questions, because they are very close to people. Values have to be clarified. However, a harmful value conflict must be separated from the developing and open handling of differing opinions concerning serious issues (Tichy & Devanna, 1986).

The management of change and the concept of paradox relating to it were briefly dealt with earlier. Posner and Kouzes (1995) see the routines of an organization as the premise of the paradox. Routines have an inevitable effect on the increase of bureaucratic procedures in organizations and they are a clear obstacle to change and development. On the other hand, to a certain extent routines are necessary so that things would happen effectively and anticipation would be possible. The continuous

changing of routines paralyzes the organization. Routines must therefore exist, and routines that support the key goals of the organization must be valued while getting rid of unnecessary and unproductive routines.

Unproductive routines must be bravely eliminated. Routines that support development, like feedback systems and quality assessments, must be given the importance they deserve.

Those routines that belong to the category "this is how it's always been done" have to be revalued from time to time. Efficient leadership thus includes the ability to evaluate the necessity and meaningfulness of values and change them when necessary.

The general process of planning, decision-making and executing is the level of activities usually spoken of as management. The origin for the concept of management is the Latin "manus", meaning hand. This refers to the handling of matters. Juuti (1995) considers it essential in the concept of management that they can be dealt with on the basis of pre-defined standards. This, according to Juuti, also means that management is best suited to situations in which the surroundings do not change very quickly. The managers are at their best in stable situations and when the activities of the organization are being controlled.

Control of the management processes and the professional skills required by tasks always belong to the basic potential of a leader. However, certain military leaders are not capable or willing to expand their command towards people. These kind of leaders "remain" only managers^[5], without being able to take advantage of the human resources of their organizations. Kotter (1988) describes the new paradigm of leadership in this view:

"Management is in principle a process that is responsible of achieving results in key sectors... Leadership, on the other hand is a process that has constructive change as its duty. Leadership usually includes a vision and a strategy to achieve that vision. They have to be communicated to people so that they understand the goal and believe in it. Working condi-

tions have to be such that they encourage and motivate people to clear all obstacles from their way to achieve the goal. This way efficient leadership creates change that benefits the entire organization." (Kotter 1988, 7-12)

Kotter deals with leadership using familiar concepts. He does not separate the routines and processes of an organization, but concentrates on describing the significance of leadership in relation to organizational effectiveness. The view of the general framework of leadership is the practical viewpoint of leadership training, in which case it is justified to separate from each other the repetitive, standardized and routine-like arrangements and the control of the flow of information related to the management process and decision-making based on situational factors.

The management of tasks and activities that is included in the management process requires analytical handling of information, logical and, if needed, intuitive decision-making and good control of the use of time. The analysis of tasks creates a foundation for the analysis of the area of operations and the development of the situation, to which is related the anticipation of the rate and direction of change. The handling and analysis of information has to be organized in a way that available information allows the comparison of options drawn up for the performance of the task. The most important area of the management process is decision-making, which at the same time functions as a crease in the process, dividing management into the preparation of decision-making and the execution of the decision. Decision-making is followed by detailed planning and execution with orders and instructions. Control includes standards of performance, reporting system, performance meters and analysis methods, with the help of which the connection between the aim of activities and performance is evaluated and more information for the management process is produced. The concept of "management" that is common in the Finnish language refers mainly to the control of this process and decision-making.

In an efficient organization decisions have to be made and they have to be committed to. Decision-making is typically a cognitive process that in a military organization will remain the duty of a leader and a commander because of the demands of war times. Commitment is a more comprehensive event. That is why the goal of leader-

ship must at all levels of leadership be making subordinates commit themselves to the given tasks.^[6]

General requirements that include the control of the management process and decision-making and that work on all levels of leadership can therefore be defined for a military leader. These requirements include:

- efficient use of time as the premise of leadership,
- concentration on large things, the control of entities, and
- the ability to make decisions in all conditions.

A military management process is usually described as a simple time series, in which the preparation of activity, decision-making, execution and control are the most important areas of the process. The future image of war sets higher and higher requirements of quality to the military management process. Change in the area of operations and the decreasing predictability, the development of information technology and the increase of information, concealment and diversion related to command and control warfare and the increasing tempo of battles challenge military organizations to develop their management processes. Decision-making remains the central part of the management process, but the concept of time related to the process changes.

The management process as a traditional series of time is too slow: it can be used to support only reactive military leadership. The management process has to be examined as a space of time, the dimensions of which are the phases of the traditional management process. Decision-making can in theory take place in any part of this space of time. In practice this means that the entire management process should progress one unit of time ahead of actual events. This vision requires that the current model of anticipatory decision-making be used more effectively as a part of leadership training.

Anticipatory decision-making is in many organizations an essential part of a developed management process. From the organization it requires a model of activity in which the intellectual resources of at least some key individuals are directed at the future. From a leader anticipatory decision-making requires perception of entities

and change in an intuitive way. Anticipatory decision-making takes place most effectively with a group of experts who represent the organization's key sectors of activities. The task of the group is to outline the entity of changes in the area of operations over a certain period of time, extract from this entity all the information that is relevant from the viewpoint of the organization's goals and its vision using appropriate^[7] methods of analysis and present the results for possible decision-making. The most successful leaders in peace and war time organizations support their decision-making by integrating anticipatory decision-making firmly into the "traditional" management process. A requirement for this is that subordinates (headquarters) are trained and coached in anticipatory decision-making.

The professional skill of a leader is efficiency-wise an important but relative concept. Professional skills are a basic requirement of excellent leadership behavior, but alone they do not guarantee the efficiency of leadership, i.e. the effects being pursued. Furthermore, the contents of the concept of professional skill change as the level of leadership rises. When it comes to the end result, in most organizations and situations the behavior of the leader is what becomes decisive.^[8]

In everyday language, professional skills mean mastering the issues that occur in the area of operations in the sector of intellectual and practical skills. The significance of professional skills in leadership varies radically according to the level of leadership and the area of operations. A military organization offers a good framework for examining this issue. In the examination it is useful to remember Figure 4 on development as a leader presented in the previous chapter: in everyday language professional skills mean mainly the area of practical skills and information, the significance of which decreases as the level of leadership and training increases. Of course, the situation would be different if the contents and meaning of the concept of professional skills were expanded so that they would cover leadership behavior as well.

At the lower levels of leadership and in the beginning of a military career the professional skills of a leader has the greatest effect on practical activities. Professional skills culminate in the premise that a military leader is also the instructor of his subordinates. It is impossible to train the use of weaponry or methods of activity without

sufficient professional skills. When the physical requirements of a military leader are added to this examination, the traditional "champion of his troops" -arrangement is approached. To a young military leader professional skills and physical performance provide a foundation to which the healthy and strong self-confidence required by deep leadership can be anchored.

At the middle levels of leadership the significance of the professional skills of a leader begins to change. The leader obtains more and more results through his subordinates and with their help. The leader can no longer control all details. Alongside the personal practical skills surfaces the ability to make use of the current potential of subordinates and develop the subordinates as well. *What is being developed? What does it mean that, for example, a company commander is the head instructor of his company?* We are then in a situation in which a subordinate trainer is already at the starting point more qualified than his superior when it comes to expertise. Without outside help it is difficult to begin the development of the special professional skills of an expert subordinate.

Leadership behavior is that part of leadership in which there is a justifiable background for continuous learning and coaching. At its most efficient, this principle functions throughout an organization. At company level, this means that the commander should concentrate on the development of the leadership behavior of his instructors. The deep leadership questionnaire as a feedback instrument offers a practical tool for this. In efficient units this area is not left solely on development discussions, but the leader coaches his subordinates constantly, making use of the opportunities that surface in this work.

At the top level of leadership the significance of professional skills change permanently. As an example, a high-ranking superior can demonstrate that he masters a detail, but is not possible more extensively. At the top levels of an organization, the professional skills of leaders are based more and more on the attributes of conceptual thinking without forgetting the leadership aspect. The control of entities and processes culminates in the building of visions and passing them on to the organization, anticipatory management and the efficient use of resources. The dimension of

training and coaching subordinates and one's own example are emphasized throughout the whole organization.

Leadership is at its most demanding point when moving in the area between different levels. The demands directed at a young military leader, for example, are especially high: the significance of professional skills that extend to details is great, but at the same time the trainer should already master the coaching of the conscript leaders under him into responsible leaders of his troops. This is a lasting challenge of the basic training of military leaders and it presents notable qualitative challenges to the training system.

3.2 The framework of leadership behavior

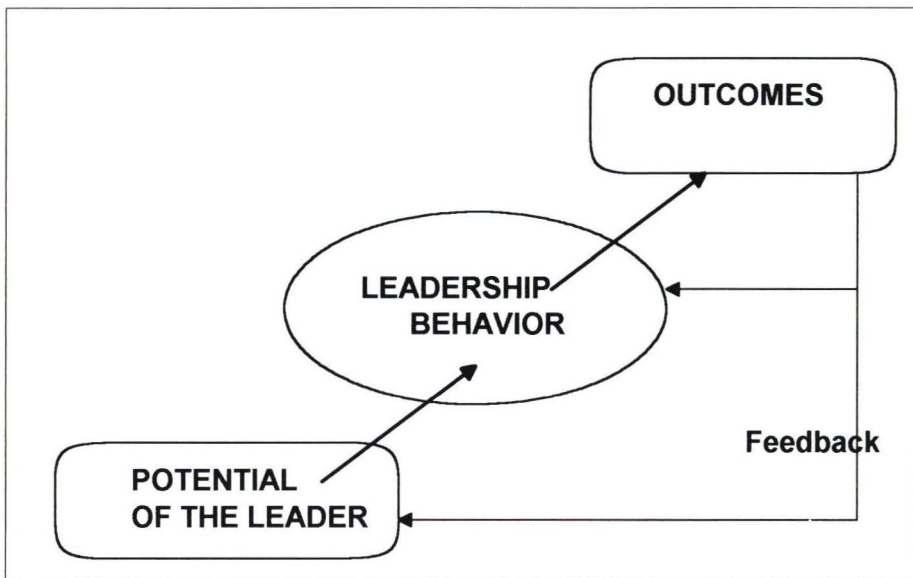


Figure 6. The framework of leadership behavior (Pentti 1997, Nissinen 1999)

According to the new paradigm of leadership, the study of leadership must be directed increasingly towards the study of a leader's real activities. This view is based on a realistic conception about the actual opportunities of training in relation to an individual's attitude towards self-development. Leadership behavior is the leader's activities that can be observed and assessed from the outside. Leadership behavior can be practiced already at the training phase. However, the potential of a leader, to

which behavior is based, can be influenced only indirectly through training. In the end the leader himself is responsible for the development of the potential of his leadership capabilities. The outcomes can be assessed in many ways, but development does not really take place without feedback information.

The potential of a leader

The potential of a leader can be approached from many viewpoints, because there are several theories and much information on the overall personality of a human being and its development. Here I will present only a brief description of a view of the potential of a leader and its components; the view is in accordance with the new paradigm of leadership.

According to Heikkurinen (1993), a human being always functions in a physical environment that manifests itself to the human being as conceptions (schemes). Schemes linked to each other form extensive interpretative entities that can be called perspective of meaning. This personal manifestation is called subjective consciousness that only the person in question can be aware of. Consciousness develops as a person's age increases, functioning as the foundation for that person's conscious processes. The basic elements of subjective consciousness are thinking, feeling and wanting.^[9]

Thinking forms the cognitive foundation of our personality, while feeling forms the affective foundation. Wanting is formed as a combination of thinking, feeling, human needs and values, and motivation. The said parts thus overlap and form the foundation for an individual's behavior. Therefore they function as directors of human interaction, i.e. voluntary behavior. The concept of emotional intelligence brought forth in the 1990s by Daniel Goleman (1995), for example, is connected to an individual's opportunities to voluntarily direct also his behavior that is based on emotions.

The premise of an individual's potential is created as a result of the interaction between his genes and his environment. Education, leadership training and in the end even one's own leadership experiences shape the potential to lead. Shaping means the changes in the needs, desires, values, attitudes and motivation of the individual

brought on by growth and conscious development. From a viewpoint that emphasizes the entity of an individual's personality, potential can be seen as a balance of the individual's internal processes and an individual development process related to it. The balance is a dynamic phenomenon that is based on the individual's healthy self-confidence and self-directiveness. The goal of the individual development process is to raise the balance in relation to the individual's values and needs. As a result of the process, the individual's activities will be tuned more and more strongly through internal rewards and needs for growth.^[10] Potential is thus more primitive than behavior and can be defined as follows:

"Potential is an extensive behavioral capacity in an individual's personality at a given time. Potential is based on the genotype of personality as well as that what is learned. Potential is closely connected to the energy mechanisms of personality. The central areas of potential are maturation and learning. The use of the capacity of the potential can be increased with educational means". (Niskanen 1991, 35)

Leadership behavior

Earlier on, leadership behavior was defined as the operational dimension of leadership:

Leadership behavior is purposeful interaction among humans that takes place in a certain group. The interaction has to be such that it improves the performance of the group and maintains constant development in relation to solving surfacing problems and achieving set goals. Leadership behavior is based on the personal potential of a leader and its efficiency is affected by the operational environment, situational factors and the goals set for activities.

The concept of leadership behavior is stipulative. The purpose of the analysis of the concept is to clarify the term that is today used in more and more contexts but its exact contents are not often defined. The concept is also more operational than theoretical. Through the definition above, a conscious effort is made to seek a new

approach and line of action in relation to leadership training that really develops the skills of an individual.

The goals of human activities are usually examined with the help of two attributes, contents and intensity. The contents of a goal are defined by its specificity and difficulty. The intensity of the goal is connected to mental processes. Commitment refers to how much an individual wants to pursue the goal in question, how important he considers the goal to be, how eager he is to pursue it and hold on to it despite obstacles and difficulties. The concept of self-efficiency is essentially connected to goals and achieving them. Self-efficiency is a conception of one's performance abilities in a given task and it is defined by potential.^[11]

Goals related to leadership behavior can be divided into internal and external ones. External goals are given to the leader or taken from the outside, and they regulate leadership behavior from the organization's viewpoint. It is then possible to speak of set goals. On the other hand, leadership behavior is also regulated by the individual's internal goals that function as a means of self-regulation and self-directiveness. The process of defining personal goals is very complex, because it is affected by situational factors and expectations. Leadership-wise it is advantageous to strive for a situation in which goals given from the outside (set by the organization) unite as much as possible with the goals that stem from the leader's internal processes.

Interactive skills mean interpersonal social skills, the premise of which is the understanding of the before-described human processes and the recognition of them in other people. The development of interactive skills requires the development of emotional awareness and the control of feelings as well as taking advantage of the energy of feelings. Empathy is manifested in interactive relationships as the ability to take into consideration the views and feelings of other people and the ability to listen to other people. In leadership behavior, interactive skills manifest themselves as:

- the ability to analyze and understand human relationships,
- the ability to solve conflicts and negotiate,
- the ability to solve problems of human relationships,
- self-confidence and communicative skills,
- friendliness and sociability,

- caring for others,
- the increase of the harmony and unity of a group,
- the sharing of attention, cooperation and helpfulness, and
- democracy in cooperative relationships.^[12]

It has been noted that leaders who have good interactive skills lean more on trust and the sharing of visions in their leadership rather than on the formal exercise of power. Involving subordinates in the preparations for decision-making, for example, does not take place so that the subordinates would be happier, but because this way they commit themselves better to tasks. (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). This is about the foundation of leadership behavior, i.e. the efficient relationship between deep leadership and controlling leadership. According to a theory presented by Howard Gardner^[13], interpersonal skills are based on one area of intelligence, in which case their background is at least partly genetic. This view has already been taken into consideration for example in the development of the leader selection of conscript leaders.

Burns (1978) ponders on the essence of leadership and defines borderlines for interaction especially in superior-subordinate -relationships. Functionally superiors and subordinates form an inseparable entity of interaction, but their views are nevertheless different. A leader must be the initiator in the superior-subordinate -relationship and he must create preconditions for continuous communication. The leader must also be skilled at the evaluation of the motives and reactions of people and in the recognition of personality's sources of power. The leader thus carries the responsibility for the maintenance of interaction. The most efficient leader achieves his goals through the needs, motives and goals of his subordinates.

For a leader the central groups of people are the subordinates, peers, superior and representatives of interest groups. Leadership must be examined in relation to other people, or more precisely in relation to their perspectives of meaning. Each individual's perception of his leader and the individual's relationship to his leader is in the background of all activity. With external means of motivation, it is possible to get organizations to function on their routines, but efficiency or change created by real leadership is not achieved unless people are ready to commit themselves to their

area of operations and its goals. Perspectives of meaning and interpretations that are based on individuals' own observations become decisive. In this entity, subordinates' conception of their leader is much more decisive than, say, the leader's self-evaluation.

The effect of **situational factors** on leadership has been considered so important, that entire models of leadership have been developed from this perspective. The best known is probably the model of situational leadership developed by Hersey and Blanchard already in 1969 and published in the work "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership". The main idea of the model is to adjust the style of leadership according to the situation, and two significant factors are seen to influence the situation: the readiness and motivation of subordinates. By cross tabulating the two main factors, a matrix is obtained and it defines the need for the four most important styles of leadership:

1. telling/defining
2. selling/clarifying
3. participating/involving
4. delegating/empowering. (Hersey et al 1996, 200-368)

Studies have shown that successful leaders can adjust their leadership behavior to the demands of the situation. Guiding and delegating styles are seen as task-centric styles, while supportive and encouraging styles are seen as people-centric styles.^[14]

The framework of leadership behavior assumes that situational factors always influence leadership behavior. As such the basic idea of situational leadership is included in the new leadership training program. In the leadership training of the Finnish Defence Forces the model of situational leadership can be used so that the model of situational leadership is placed over intellectual stimulation, one of the cornerstones of deep leadership, in teaching situations and when considering the mechanisms of influence of leadership. A meaningful foundation is thus created for the analysis of, for example, the training and development of one conscript age group from individual recruits to troops capable of functioning in war time conditions.

For the study of leadership, the model of situational leadership simplifies phenomena and the relationships between them too strongly. The development of leadership behavior is continuous learning that stems from countless different situations. Mezirow (1991) writes about situational learning, referring to the change that occurs in the way we interpret situations. It includes giving value to phenomena occurring in different situations and decision-making that leans on options and is based on the different phenomena. Decisive from learning's point of view is our ability to consider our experiences, which then have connections to our self-image and self-confidence.

The outcomes

With the help of the outcomes it is possible to concretize the connection between leadership behavior and the effectiveness of activities. High-quality study of leadership must apply qualitative research methods and above all produce information about the behavior of a leader in relation to the area of operations and the outcomes (Clark & Clark, 1996). According to Burns (1978), there is only one view, conceptually simple but with difficult methods, on measuring leadership: the measure of leadership must be the degree of effects that had been set as goals and the achievement of results.

The outcomes can be examined at different levels: at the level of the individual, the group and the entire organization. According to the chosen framework, there must be a connection from the outcomes to both leadership behavior and the potential of the leader. This connection is generally called feedback. The study of leadership through its effects reduces conceptual problems when leadership behavior, that produces desirable outcomes, can be defined and it can be measured. With research it is possible to find out what factors have the strongest connection to the outcomes.

From the viewpoint of military pedagogy, a central peace time result is an individual capable of activities and troops fit for war. The central outcomes to be pursued is learning. Learning means that in the skills and knowledge as well as in the trainee's ways of perceiving and thinking fairly lasting changes take place in a desired, more developed direction. Training aims for deep learning. In order to clarify profound ef-

fects at individual level, it must be studied whether the military leader has created deep learning and phenomena related to it in his own troops.

The leadership training program has widened the goal-setting of military pedagogy, because the current system is based on defending Finland with a field army consisting of the reserve, or with parts of it. The key outcomes of, for example, peace time conscript training is a reservist with a positive attitude towards national defence and the maintenance of his physical shape and his skills. Reserve leaders should continue the purposeful development of their leadership behavior in the reserve as well. These outcomes have a notable temporal dimension.

The outcomes and training should be assessed from various points. For example, in the assessment of peace time military training the results of individual skills, of the final inspection of the training of the war time troops, of the leadership behavior of conscript leaders and instructor and of the final feedback survey (values, attitudes) should be combined. This is a way to obtain an extensive picture of the knowledge, skills and values created during military service in relation to the activities of the instructor.

Feedback

Feedback is an inseparable part of development as a leader, whether it is institutionally organized or stems from personal objectives. Learning requires information about the results of the activity. Experience as such does not guarantee learning, unless through feedback that the experience includes concrete information about how behavior should be changed in order to obtain the desired result. Development as a leader should be supported with an objective meter that reveals whether progress has been made in leadership behavior. Feedback can be produced with the "hard" result meters related to the productivity of the organization, or with the "soft" evaluation meters based on leadership behavior and its outcomes. (Clark & Clark, 1996)

Neither can feedback be limited only to the analysis of the superior-subordinate -relationship. The organization as an area of operations must be comprehensively

taken into consideration. This means obtaining feedback from peers, the superior and the key interest groups. The viewpoint of the analysis, or the relationship between individuals in the organization's hierarchy, again has an effect on those giving the feedback. When a subordinate assesses his leader as a superior, peers assess him more as a cooperating partner and superior as his own subordinate. This way an entity can be built from different sources of feedback and the entity significantly helps the leader to analyze his own leadership behavior and its effects on the surroundings. Analysis in itself is a demanding process that requires the ability to reflect. Reflecting leads to the increase of self-awareness. (Church & Waclawski, 1998) When purposefulness and task-orientation are systematically integrated into this individual process, *self-directiveness* that was dealt with earlier is being approached.

A feedback system entity that is perfect from an individual's point of view is called 360-degree feedback in research literature. In the new leadership training program this principle is called full range feedback. Waldman, Atwater and Antonioni (1998) have studied feedback systems in different organizations and development projects. The basic function of full range feedback is the development of leadership in organizations; the development of organization culture to a more change-oriented direction may result, among other things. Because strong human reactions are always connected to the introduction of feedback systems, the scientists recommend that in the first phase feedback be used purely as a tool that supports the development of individuals^[15].

Feedback may come from many sources and often the receiver of feedback quickly values the feedback as either positive or negative, based on his expectations. Valuing is based on the interpretation and the world of experiences of the receiver of the feedback, the individual. The first rule of functioning feedback is connected to valuing: whether the feedback is positive or negative, one has to be capable of receiving it. Whether the feedback leads to changes in leadership behavior, i.e. learning, is up to willpower, inclination, ability and courage. Feedback often causes a surge of emotion, influenced by the self-confidence of the receiver. The tolerance of criticism defines how strong and long this outburst is. (Pirnes, 1995)

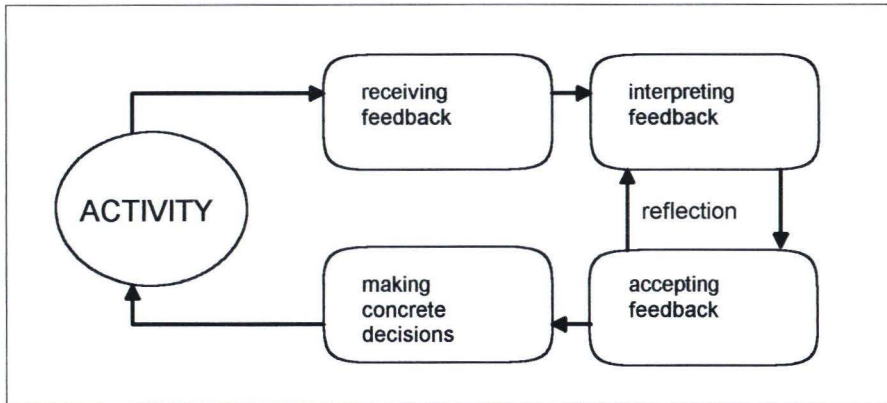


Figure 7. A simplified feedback process

Development-wise subordinates are the most important source of feedback. Leaders receive positive feedback with no regard to the level of the subordinate, but it is easiest to accept negative feedback from a competent and active subordinate (Elgie & Hollander & Rice, 1988). The feedback system works when the superior makes it clear to his subordinates that he is open to feedback, and the subordinates give honest feedback without trying to ingratiate their superior. Furthermore, the functioning of the feedback system can be disturbed by the fact that the views and conceptions of the leader and subordinates concerning the same issue can vary greatly, in which case a common conception about development needs is not reached.

The interpretation of feedback includes assessing the reliability of the information the feedback contains. Reliability is strongly affected by the respondents' knowledge of what purpose the feedback they give is for. Research has shown that more than every third (35%) respondent changes his answers if the feedback is used for performance evaluations instead of personal development. Another factor with an effect in reliability is anonymous replying, which is seen to provide the most honest (therefore not the most objective) feedback. Furthermore, it must be ensured that the feedback is used to measure the right things in the right proportions. This requires the careful analysis of the duties of the leader and taking into consideration the complexity of the relations of influence. (Waldman & Atwater & Antonioni, 1998)

It is possible to make the following general observations from the research results related to the interpretation and acceptance of feedback:

- Often feedback is not accepted or it is misunderstood.
- Feedback has to be direct in order to be effective.
- Positive feedback is recognized and remembered better than negative feedback.
- The recurrence of feedback enhances its effect.
- Feedback is accepted better if it corresponds to the expectations of the receiver.
- Feedback is accepted better when its source is considered reliable.
- An increase of feedback does not always improve performance, especially if the receiver's own ability to assess his own performance is not developed at the same time.
- Feedback develops mainly that part of the performance that feedback is directed at.
- There is conflicting research data on the use of negative feedback.
- People's attitudes towards feedback are individual. (Ruohotie, 1990)

The attitudes towards feedback are thus individual. Understanding individuality in this context begins from the assessment of an individual's internal processes and the state of balance related to them. A group and a community can through their culture and superiors support the exploitation of feedback, in which case it will be easier for an individual to form a positive approach on feedback.

If feedback related to leadership behavior is used as a part of performance evaluations, the meters used should be clearly attached to the organization's goals, productivity and efficiency. This way the effect of human sources of error in evaluations is reduced. Leadership behavior is always multi-layered and multi-dimensional. The more multi-dimensional the feedback information is, the more credible and reliable is the image of leadership behavior. (Church & Waclawski, 1998)

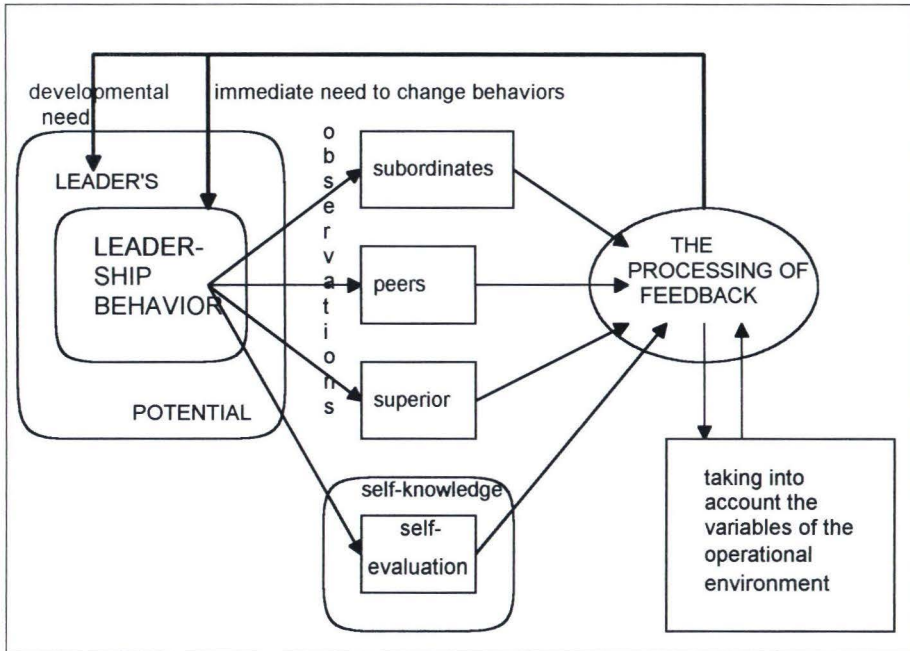


Figure 8. The feedback process model

Increasing self-knowledge, which is related to leadership behavior, takes place in a process described above. Toiskallio (1998) defines that the self-awareness of a military leader is self-confidence and self-knowledge combined with the ability to act so that the individual himself takes responsibility for giving some thought to issues. People's task resolutions are the result of an entity of human processes, in which self-awareness functions as a kind of "cognitive conscience".

The basic idea of various feedback systems and the entity they form is therefore to offer a tool for the reflective thinking of the leader. This is the premise of the development of leadership behavior.^[16]

3.3 The model of deep leadership

The deep leadership model is the foundation of the contents information of the leadership training program. The model consists of the framework of leadership behavior. The concrete tool of the model is the deep leadership questionnaire with the help

of which feedback information is collected for individual leaders. This viewpoint restricts the structure of the model: the model only includes those dimensions that can be evaluated in a reliable manner with external feedback. The model includes only one dimension from the foundation of behavior, i.e. the potential of the leader, and that is the professional skills. From all possible outcomes the model includes three dimensions: efficiency, satisfaction and extra effort. The information obtained from these dimensions gives additional reasons for a leader who evaluates the effects of his own leadership behavior in his area of operations.

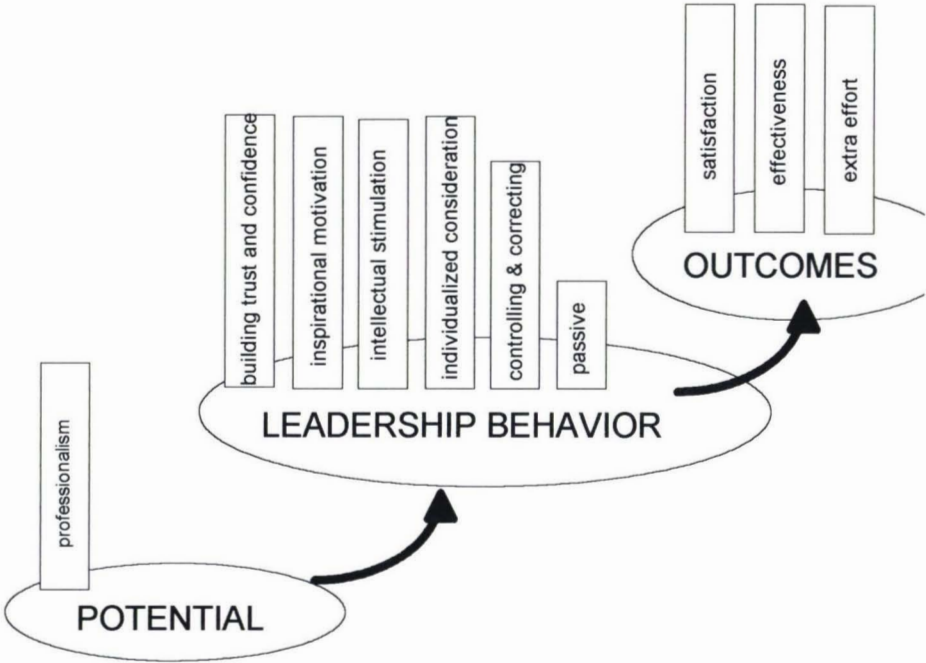


Figure 9. The deep leadership model

Leadership behavior is modeled with three main dimensions, which are deep leadership, controlling leadership and passive leadership. The main dimension of deep leadership is divided into four subdimensions or cornerstones, which are building trust and confidence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

The dimensions of the deep leadership model

The model and the related questionnaire are made up of ten dimensions, the main contents of which are summarized in the following paragraphs.

(1). Professional skills mean the knowledge and practical skills needed by a leader in his current assignment. The evaluator's view of the leader's potential on a general level builds a foundation for evaluation. Professional skills are thus only a part of the potential of a leader⁽¹⁷⁾. Because the feedback system is mainly based on evaluation coming from the outside, it is not sensible to try to define, say, the values of the leader through feedback. The receiver of the feedback, i.e. the leader, must in his own development process be aware of the demands presented by the feedback on the reviewing of his values and attitudes.

(2). Building trust and confidence is the first of the cornerstones of deep leadership. A deep leader offers a behavioral model to his subordinates. This kind of leaders are respected and even admired. Subordinates often identify themselves with their leader. Trust is built especially by the fact that the deep leader can, if needed, put the needs of their subordinates above his own needs. Risks are considered shared. The ethical and moral foundation for leadership is strong, because honesty, fairness and impartiality come first in the behavior of a deep leader. The deep leader rarely uses his legitimate power and never to seek his own advantage.

(3). Inspirational motivation becomes evident when a deep leader gets his subordinates to find from their work new meaning, new features and challenges. The unity of the group increases with shared goals and experiences. Trust in the future and optimism strengthen the ability to function. Subordinates are included when goals are being visioned. Deep leaders can clearly gather the demands set for everyone's tasks and they create commitment through shared goals. Clear rules are set for the group and everybody follows them. Goals are set high, and with his own example the deep leader encourages his subordinates even to exceed their normal performance level to achieve the goals. The deep leader distributes praise when an opportunity presents itself and develops new, surprising ways to reward his subordinates for good performance.

(4). Intellectual stimulation is manifested when the deep leader supports the innovativeness and creativity of his subordinates by questioning the basic assumptions, seeking new possible solutions to problems and new approaches to work. Creativity is encouraged. An individual is not punished for his mistakes by lowering his self-confidence, but mistakes are seen as a natural part of the activities of a developing organization and the aim is to learn from them. Subordinates are asked to contribute their ideas and they are included in problem-solving processes. Subordinates are allowed to try out new solutions and they are not expected to always agree with the leader. The skillful use of feedback is emphasized in leadership behavior: the deep leader can give and receive feedback, both positive and negative.

(5). Individualized consideration is based on a positive conception of people and genuine interest in subordinates as human beings. The deep leader recognizes everyone's individual needs to grow and develop and he acts as a coach of some sort. It is evident in the behavior of the deep leader that he accepts individual differences among persons and he acts accordingly. The deep leader spends a great deal of time with his subordinates. Interaction is individual - the deep leader remembers earlier conversations, knows his subordinates personally and treats them as individuals, not solely as representatives of his interest group. The deep leader is able to listen. Subordinates are supported in work-related issues as well as in other problem situations. Subordinates are taken care of in all situations.

(6). Controlling and corrective leadership is the dimension of "transactional" leadership in the model. Control becomes evident especially in training procedures. These kinds of leaders do not have sufficient trust in their subordinates. The lack of trust shows as tight control. The leader tries to do all the important things himself and believes that subordinates do their job well only when they are being controlled. In his activities the leader concentrates mainly on seeking out mistakes and performances that are not strictly according to the norm and giving out punishments for them. If control is excessively emphasized in leadership behavior, subordinates become passive, extra effort is reduced and initiative disappears, because there is no courage to try out new things. Efficiency is ostensible.

(7). Passive leadership is in practice non-leadership. This type of a leader mainly keeps to himself. He becomes involved only when he has to: a mistake has already been made and the powers of the subordinates are not enough to solve the situation. The leader assumes that the structure and routines of the organization give an adequate foundation for the performance of duties. At its worst, passive leadership is the complete opposite of leadership: the leader does not like to take a stand on anything, he is in no contact with people or not even available; instead, he avoids responsibility and runs away from problem situations. Decision-making is difficult and late.

(8). Efficiency is the efficiency of the entire organization on which the deep leader has an effect. Set goals are achieved and even exceeded. In addition to deep leadership, the group is characterized by fluent and constructive cooperation. Activity has exceptional quality that is evident in all doings and in individuals' attitudes to try to develop. This kind of efficiency creates in the organization an air of success that can also be seen from the outside.

(9). Satisfaction is extensive, related to the efficiency and success of the organization, but also to the leader. Subordinates are satisfied because they are working for their leader in particular. Leadership behavior of the deep leader is seen as the thing that makes success possible, even though subordinates feel that they created the issues that breed satisfaction.

(10). Extra effort grows under the deep leader. Subordinates' commitment to the work community, to the leader and to the goals of the activity creates a phenomenon in which people voluntarily increase their work contribution. The deep leader uses the achieved success when encouraging his subordinates to even better performance.

The book *Sotilasjohtaja II (Military Leader II)* (1990) presents that the style of leadership of a battalion commander should be a mixture of both bureaucratic and creatively inspiring leadership. The *bureaucratic characteristics* of a commander's style of leadership might be:

- honoring norms,

- prioritizing a sense of responsibility and the fulfillment of duties,
- the efficient control and directing of the organization,
- maintaining the clarity of internal relationships of leadership, and
- strong sense of equality and impartiality.

In the concepts of the new leadership training program the points mentioned above are features of *transactional* leadership worth preserving.

Furthermore, a leader may demonstrate creativity by:

- using his professional skills to flexibly change activities to suit the situation,
- listening to his subordinates and keeping all channels of communication open by accepting ideas about activities,
- finding from the surroundings stimuli that serve his leadership and turning them into practical leadership solutions, and
- learning from different situations and being able to make good use of what he has learned. (Sotilasjohtaja II, 73)

When the above-mentioned features are compared with the deep leadership model, it can be noticed that there are no significant differences. "Bureaucratic" features are related mainly to transactional (controlling and corrective) leadership, but some aspects of building trust and confidence and inspirational motivation are also included. The features that demonstrate "creativity" are related to intellectual stimulation and individual consideration.

When the form of the soldier's oath is compared with the deep leadership model and especially the contents of the cornerstones of deep leadership, a significant similarity is again noticed. On these grounds already I can state that the cornerstones of deep leadership do not as such contain any significant new information. On the contrary, the traditions of the Finnish Defence Forces, war experiences and the study of military leadership conducted also in Finland can be seen to support the contents information of the deep leadership model at all levels of leadership.

The validity of the deep leadership model

The study of the validity of the deep leadership model and the deep leadership questionnaire that was developed to act as a feedback tool is a separate study. I will briefly present here only the milestones and the most important conclusions of statistical research.

I began my research in the spring of 1996, the aim being to create a reliable feedback meter, i.e. a questionnaire. At first the questionnaire was used in the training of cadets, mainly as a feedback tool for supervised practical training. I studied the questionnaire's statistical functioning with factor analyses in relation to the model and its structure. Because the development work was directed simultaneously at both the questionnaire and the model, finding a statistically valid structure did not happen overnight.

I conducted a pilot study before the actual validity study with data that was collected in November 1998 from the troops of the Eastern Command. The data of the pilot study included responses from almost 1300 conscripts. The targets of the conscripts' evaluations were their trainers; the sample included 54 of them. This pilot study gave an opportunity for the profound examination and psychometric development of the model^[16].

The actual study is based on data that was collected in March-April 1999 from the Finnish Defence Forces and all its commands, and a validity study based on the data. The empirical testing of the model is conducted with data in which 4 189 respondents evaluate 241 leaders. Of the evaluated leaders, 80 are personnel, 62 are officer cadets and 99 are squad leaders. The data of the analysis is statistically extensive and from the viewpoint of military training, quite representative of the army's company level. The statistical mean figures calculated from this data have formed the basis for the comparison charts of the instructions for the interpretation of the deep leadership questionnaire placed in the Appendix.

3.4 Application and critique of the deep leadership model

In the leadership behavior of each leader there are aspects of deep leadership, controlling and corrective leadership as well as passive leadership. The question is, in what relationship do these aspects appear and how strong are they. The most efficient leaders seem to use the aspects of deep leadership the most.

The relationship between deep leadership and controlling leadership has special significance in a peace time military organization, because personnel that trains troops for their war time duties must in some way correct the mistakes in the performances of both individuals and troops. The entire leadership behavior may then culminate in the way that mistakes are corrected. Because also the modern theater of war requires that soldiers who are capable of independent and initiative activity be trained, the correction of mistakes should mainly take place with the means of intellectual stimulation. This way the trainees themselves can be taught to assess their own performance, which is the premise of efficient learning and the application of what has been learned.

The area of operations has an influence on the relationship between the dimensions of deep leadership. Empirical analyses of deep leadership show that interaction is divided mainly into two dimensions: influencing the group and the individual. Building trust and confidence and inspirational motivation are primarily related to influencing at group level. Intellectual stimulation and individual consideration have mainly to do with influencing the individual.

In particularly critical situations the mutual position of the cornerstones changes. In the war time battle environment and in the peace time management of a drastic structural change the cornerstones pair up so that the foundation of leadership is formed on building trust and confidence and individual consideration. A theoretical justification for this conclusion is that in a crisis people regress in the hierarchy of needs and the needs for security, for example, become very important to an individ-

ual. Of the cornerstones of deep leadership, building trust and confidence and individual consideration in particular produce the most security.

When new solutions are needed, creativity and innovativeness can be brought to the surface with the help of inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation. These dimensions of deep leadership are extremely important when managing an expert organization. In military training, changes in the readiness of the group being trained requires that the trainer be flexible in the application of deep leadership. Based on earlier research, the premise must be that irrespective of the area of operations and the readiness of the group, deep leadership as an entity is always more effective and more productive than controlling and corrective leadership, but in certain situations the leader must also be able to function decisively with the means of controlling and corrective leadership.

Situational factors naturally have an effect on the opportunities of applying deep leadership. In situations where purposeful interaction is not possible, deep leadership cannot function either. The issue has also a reverse side, because the temporal permanence of the effects of deep leadership is decisively better than that of controlling and corrective leadership. From this results one of the most significant features of deep leadership: deep leadership has been noted to prevent many of the factors that impede the efficiency of an organization or group. Gal (1994, 1995), for example, states based on his long-term studies that deep leadership significantly prevents battle stress from arising.

Commitment to mission is related to both the area of operations and situational factors. In this book the contents information of the leadership training program is presented at a general level. In the development of leadership behavior, however, the premise must be the task of the individual leader and the demands and restrictions set by the level of leadership^[20]. As mentioned earlier, a squad leader and a brigade commander probably apply deep leadership a little differently. In a military organization the differences between services and branches must also be taken into consideration. In the leadership training of conscripts in particular emphasis must be placed on the concretization of the basic principles of deep leadership, i.e. the contents of the cornerstones, into forms of behavior worth pursuing in the environment

the leader trainee will function in. This work should be carried out *together* with the trainees, beginning already in the non-commissioned officer courses and reserve officer courses.

It must be remembered that real leadership is born in the formation process of subordinates' perspectives of meaning. A conscript adjusts the leadership behavior of an officer cadet to his own expectations and experiences. The same is done by a captain working as a company commander in relation to his commander. However, the experience background and perspectives of meaning related to leadership that the conscript and the captain have are different. The result is that even though both, as subordinates, value for example the skills of individual consideration their respective commanders have, in practice they expect slightly different behavior. Furthermore, there are sometimes even great differences between subordinates.

This is a lasting challenge to us all in the development of our leadership: in a new environment surrounded by new people, we must actively seek feedback and update the efficiency of our own leadership behavior in changed conditions. For this reason our leadership is never complete, but requires constant learning.

Simply interpreted, deep leadership places great, even unsurpassable demands on an individual leader. The exacting nature of the model is emphasized especially in the training of young military leaders. Is it realistic to build leadership training on such a demanding model?

The deep leadership model has been built to act as a tool for leadership training that gives a direction to development aspirations. Those receiving leadership training must be offered the basis to evaluate their own leadership behavior so that preconditions for development as a leader would be created. In this sense the deep leadership model has been meant to act as an extensive reflective surface for the assessment of personal feedback and the making of development decisions. **Deep leadership is not therefore the absolute aim of training, but a tool and direction for life-long learning!** On the other hand it should be noted that the starting points

of deep leadership require a certain basic potential^[21] that the trainee must possess in order for development to occur. This places demands on the selection process of leaders^[22].

Leadership training in a military organization is not free of values, but value-wise deep leadership sets concrete and even unavoidable demands. The values emphasized by deep leadership are not dictated by the military organization, though, but they are based on democracy, Christian ethical thinking and development-oriented conception of human beings. Based on experiences obtained, the renewed leadership training does not contain significant value conflicts. Deep leadership offers tools for the reconciling of communal values and individual needs. At the level of values, development as a leader is always also growth as a human being. Even though all leader trainees do not seem to possess direct potential for this, time must be allowed to have its effect according to the principles of life-long learning. An essential part of developing leadership is the clarification of the borderlines of one's own activities and conception of human beings. Training has to be able to deal with problems related to plurality and increase the recognition and handling of them.

It is also evident that due to life experience and leadership experiences the deep leadership model does not completely "unfold" to nearly all conscript leaders. The military organization does not, however, have any other possibility of training its leaders for the reserve. On the other hand, goal-setting has originally taken place in a much more extensive time frame: military service gives only the first push to development as a leader. The goal is that understanding and applying deep leadership deepens as life experiences accumulate, in which case reserve leaders can be expected to develop as leaders in their civilian duties as well. This way the leadership training of the Defence Forces has an effect on the rest of our society. The objectives of training must be set high, if there is a wish to achieve significant results.

Is leadership training built this way too theoretical?

The Finnish Defence Forces has always had leaders and instructors who have achieved excellent results with their outstanding leadership behavior. The personnel of the Defence Forces accepts most of the contents information of the deep leader-

ship model at all levels of leadership. This is an essential fact regarding the leadership training reform. How many individuals will be able to carry out the principles of deep leadership in practice is a totally different issue.

At organization level the greatest challenges have to do with established structures and routines as well as feedback culture. With deep leadership the duties of a peace time military leader lean towards coaching, which means the logical development of the abilities of subordinates in everyday work. This applies to all military leaders, not only to the instructors of conscripts. The development of leadership behavior at individual level, such as carrying out the ideas of quality management at company level, require also the logical development of feedback culture in the entire military organization. Tasks that are so challenging that they almost "force" the individual to develop and learn something new should be offered to all military leaders from time to time. In addition to the normal training routine, various war and combat exercises and battle shootings offer opportunities for this. Questions relating to material responsibility and service safety have to be resolved so that instructors can give some responsibility to conscript leaders as well.

In a military culture many things are learned through example. Therefore deep leadership as the basic solution of training requires that every instructor evaluates his own leadership behavior in relation to the goals of training. If the conflict between a model taught at the training phase and the real life encountered at a company is too great, it may cause serious damage to the entire system. Thus the responsibility of company commanders and battalion commanders as the developers of the leadership behavior of their subordinates is undivided. The opportunities of deep leadership are tightly connected to an individual's intellectual balance and healthy self-confidence. All leadership training should take place so that learning and the guidance of learning include purposeful strengthening and development of the trainees' self-confidence.

The execution of a systematic feedback system is a new routine. This new routine should be analyzed in relation to the overall benefit it yields, though. The RDA system is still being developed so that it would be as easy to use as possible. The goal is that every military leader, including conscript leaders, is able to produce his feed-

back. Almost without exception everyone is so interested in his own feedback that he is willing to study it off duty, after work and office hours.

The execution of the leadership training program as a real part of all training requires that things are placed in order of importance, and that overall educational planning is carried out based on this order. In the field, planning must fully take advantage of the experience and new ideas of the professional personnel of the Finnish Defence Forces. Responsible educational planning includes prioritizing things in relation to the organization's main duty, especially within the limits of limited resources. Showing points of emphasis and defining orders of importance are in the end the duties of commanders.

Does deep leadership weaken military discipline?

In order to answer this question, military discipline must be defined. Military discipline means the exact following of the orders given in accordance with the General Instructions of Military Service. The existence of military discipline is based on an internal and external source. External, i.e. formal discipline means usually the activities of a superior and a military leader, in which a unit and a group is consciously trained to function in accordance with the definition of military discipline. Internal, i.e. functional discipline means that an individual and a group are motivated and attempt voluntarily to perform as well as possible in order to achieve a situation in accordance with the definition of military discipline^[24].

Based on what was said above, the connection of military discipline to deep leadership is even surprisingly clear. Controlling and corrective leaders nevertheless emphasize the source and essence of external discipline. Deep leaders believe more in the efficiency of internal discipline in reaching objectives than controlling and corrective leaders. Like leadership, discipline too needs its both dimensions. The question is about finding in each situation and training stage the right balance between internal and external discipline. The increase of deep leadership will shift the essence

and focus of military discipline towards the source and essence of internal discipline. This does not mean the weakening of external discipline as long as the leader is somehow able to explain the reasons for his actions. On the other hand, aimless activity and bullying that stem from the arbitrary actions of a military leader will disappear as deep leadership gains more ground.

Military discipline is often associated with the formal position of the leader and its "manifestation". If the military leader, pursuing deep leadership, is able to gain the trust and respect of his subordinates, his orders will be obeyed. A tough military leader will be trusted also when a crisis strikes. Toughness here refers to the will and courage to fight for what is right together with subordinates.

CHAPTER 3 REFERENCES

- 1) In research relating to behavioral science, the model can be defined as follows: "Models [are] well-developed descriptive analogies used to help visualize, often in a simplified or imitative way, phenomena that cannot be easily or directly observed. Each model is thus a projection of a possible system of relationships among phenomena, realized in verbal, material, or symbolic terms" (Anderson & Burns 1989, 30). Models are more practical than true. Models are also able to stand more empirical testing than theories, excluding models that are tested with structural equation models. The deep leadership model is included in the latter group and the stability of its structure will be tested in an empirical study that will be reported separately.
- 2) Burns (1978), Zorn (1992), Wofford & Goodwin (1994) and Janzi & Leithwood (1996), among others, deal with the deep process of developing as a leader. In his book Bass (1998,99) presents empirical research done within the framework of the new paradigm that is related to development as a leader, stating that "Training and education in transformational leadership must promote self-understanding, awareness, and appreciation of the range of potential leadership behaviors used by both effective transformational and transactional leaders. It must go beyond skill training. It must be internalized and point to the extent that the best of leaders are both transformational and transactional but they are more likely to be more transformational and less transactional than poorer leaders."
- 3) Rauste-von Wright & von Wright (1994), Kuusinen & Korhonen (1995) and Ruohotie (1995), among others, write about deep learning. Ruohotie deals with deep-oriented learning in connection with learning strategies, saying that deep learning is connected to inner motivation. It is possible to make a connection to the concept of military discipline and particularly its internal shape dealt with in this chapter.
- 4) Jorma Ollila, CEO of the fairly successful Nokia summarizes the idea in *Talouselämä* (18/2000) magazine as follows: "...*trust is a too little-known concept that has been used too little in leadership, usually the talk is only about productivity and result. Trust at Nokia is the organization's internal code that is not based on a written contract or hierarchical position and that cannot be created with an order from the top. It is the organization's internal understanding that an individual who has much freedom and responsibility can be trusted. And when everyone knows that help is available, when needed, internal comfort is created.*"
- 5) In dramatic structural changes that can be avoided by anticipating future changes, leaders can be given tasks that are not possible with the means of deep leadership. It must nevertheless be noted that an already existing deep leader can help the personnel of an organization adjust even to a great change better than a "renovator" from the outside.
- 6) In a military organization a subordinate too has his own responsibilities that should be discussed openly. One of the vital principles of military culture is that discussions are held before decision-making and after that everyone must strive to carry out the decision the best way possible, no matter what personal opinions he

might have. This does not mean, however, that there is no reason to critically examine the practicality of the decision.

7) Pertti Kettunen (1997) quotes Airaksinen (1991) in his book: "...Strategic models have been greatly criticized. Yet all models can be used, if it is known how to use them..." It is therefore necessary to apply different methods of analysis to the needs of one's own organization. The clarification of concepts alone is often helpful.

8) The justification of this claim is apparent in the empirical study relating to deep leadership that has been reported by Bass (1998), among others. In the Finnish Defence Forces, the first critical study that relates external criteria of quality and results to deep leadership is Ville Vuorio's thesis at the General Staff Officer Course, "Syväjohtaminen, laatu ja tehokkuus maavoimien perusyksiköissä" (Deep leadership, quality and efficiency in army companies) (2000).

9) The functioning of subjective consciousness has been outlined in the form of pictures in the booklet "Sotilasjohtajien johtaja- ja kouluttajakoulutus" (The Leadership and Instructor Training of Military Leaders), in the figure Toimintamme lähtökohdat (The starting points of our activities) (1.3.2, p. 11).

10) For more on the potential of an individual and the related internal processes from the instructor's viewpoint, see Heikkurinen: "Kouluttamisen perusteet" (The Basics of Training) (1993).

11) Ruohotie has written in Finnish on the connections between self-efficiency, goals and performance in his book "Ammatillinen kasvu työelämässä" (Professional Growth in Working Life) (1995).

12) For more on the requirements and learning of interactive skills and emotional intelligence, see Coleman: "Emotional Intelligence" (1995), available also as a translation.

13) In his book about emotional intelligence Coleman presents Howard Gardner's (Frames of Mind, 1983) theory of intelligence and its factors. Gardner claims that there are at least seven types of intelligence, when normal intelligence tests typically measure only three types - verbal, mathematical and spatial perceiving. Leadership-wise two types of intelligence, inter- and intrapersonal are crucial. Intrapersonal intelligence creates a foundation for self-knowledge and self-awareness. Interpersonal intelligence creates a foundation for interactive skills. Both areas are central from the viewpoint of the new paradigm of leadership.

14) For more on situational leadership, see Hersey & Blanchard & Johnson: "Management of Organizational Behavior" (1996).

15) The feedback systems directed at the individual are so effective that organizations can think about integrating the feedback directly to performance evaluations or even to salary bonuses. However, this is a phenomenon that researchers clearly warn about. People have to be given time to get to know the feedback system and accept it as a tool of individual development and the self-evaluation of units. If the evaluation of productivity is added to the feedback system, the original signifi-

cance of the feedback (development based on self-evaluation) does not have room to occur and resistance to change easily grows too large.

16) Read more about the concept of feedback and feedback systems from the following, among others: Ruohotie: "Kannustava johtaminen" (Encouraging Leadership) (1990), Clark & Clark: "Choosing to Lead" (1996), Church & Waclawski: "Making Multirater Feedback Systems Work" (1998), PEkoul-os PAK A 01:05.01.08.01: "Varusmiesten johtaja- ja kouluttajakoulutus, tarkoitus ja päämäärät" (The Leadership and Instructor Training of Conscripts; Its Purpose and Goals).

17) If the wish was to expand in this context the everyday concept of professional skill to include, say, the potential of the military leader in its entity, the concept of "professional personality" should be used.

18) At this stage of research, the support of the University of Helsinki and Professor Patrick Schein in particular was decisively important in both statistical and psychometric analysis.

19) The charts of the instructions for the interpretation of deep leadership have been expanded to cover the leadership profiles of the commanders of companies, battalions and brigades. The leadership profiles of company commanders are based on the empirical data collected for the research of Major Vuorio (2000). The data covers approximately 50 company commanders in a representative distribution that covers the entire country. The profiles of the battalion and company commanders are based on the opportunity to chart one's own leadership profile, which was done at a training event on 21.-22.10.1999. 25 battalion and brigade commanders represented in the sample took advantage of this opportunity.

20) In several contexts the term occupational analysis or occupational image analysis. Read more on Lehtinen (1996): "Koulutuksen suunnittelu ja johtaminen" (The Planning and Management of Training), Goldstein (1993): "Training in Organizations".

21) In his book Bass (1998) deals also with studies that have charted the background of leadership with the profile of the deep leader. In Finland a similar study has not yet been carried out, but the likelihood of becoming a deep leader probably increases if the trainee has intra- and interpersonal intelligence, a healthy self-confidence, balanced emotional life and personality and a positive outlook on his fellow people.

22) Study related to the selection of conscript as well as personnel leaders has already been started and the first step will probably be the introduction of the so-called P3 test in the selection of conscript leaders. The test aims to chart more profoundly the leadership potential of individuals. New dimensions to be measured are, among other things, exemplary and trust-creating activities, fairness, adjustability/readiness to change, positive outlook on people and the boosting of group spirit. Furthermore, one of the criteria that have been developed to the selection system is the leadership exercise course.

23) In the book "Uuteen Johtajakoulutukseen" (Towards the New Leadership Training) (2000), Major Markku Haapasalo reports in his comparative study that with

the new training system the students in the non-commissioned officer course have felt an increase in their practical skills along with strengthened self-confidence and willingness to take responsibility.

24) The teaching material related to military discipline has been presented in the booklet "Sotilasjohtajien johtaja- ja kouluttajakoulutus" (The Leadership and Instructor Training of Military Leaders), in figures 2.1.3.a-c, pp. 37-39.

4. METHODS OF LEADERSHIP TRAINING

This chapter describes the most important methods that are used to apply the constructive concept of learning to the teaching of leadership skills. The third section presents a few of the application possibilities when the time available in training events varies. Based on both research and feedback from the new training system, the belief is that the methods presented in this chapter achieve better results than traditional classroom teaching with emphasis on lectures. These methods are thus means to make the learning process more effective in courses and institutions of military education. Learning at work through one's own leadership experiences is still the most important area of the development of leadership.

Learning in leadership training would already as such be a subject for research. The training methods do, however, require as support certain starting points that are related to the trainees; i.e. to learning. In order for leadership training to have an effect, trainees must:

- be motivated to learn,
- be ready to learn (skills, basic potential)
- be aware of the objectives of training,
- have an option of an immediate feedback process, the premise of which is self-evaluation, and
- have an opportunity to practice what they have learned.^[1]

The most efficient learning process in leadership starts from the individual himself. This premise should be visible in the feedback process. According to the behavioristic conception of education, the most can be learned from a performance when the instructor gives the trainee immediate feedback. According to the constructive conception of learning, activity is again immediate but in such an order that feedback is mainly based on the trainee's self-evaluation that is listened to by the instructor. *This way every feedback discussion is a small step towards self-directiveness.*

At the conceptual level^[2] the foundations of the constructive concept of learning have been brought to military training through the concepts and forms of military peda-

gogy. Because of this, it is justified to begin this chapter with a brief look at the basics of military pedagogy.

4.1 Military pedagogy and military leadership

The military leader is almost without exception the trainer of his subordinates and troops. This viewpoint is emphasized during peace time, when most of the Defence Forces' personnel resources are directed towards training. This way training and training skills become a central part of military leadership, because during times of crisis and when preparing for combat training must continue in order to achieve success.

In his book "Sotilaspedagogiikan perusteet" (The Basics of Military Pedagogy) Jarmo Toiskallio (1998) defines the concept of military pedagogy:

"Military pedagogy is a doctrine of training skills. It is a doctrine of setting goals, guiding learning and assessing training activities and know-how."

Because training is the key task of a peace time military leader, there is a reason to study what kind of educational basic assumptions the field of military pedagogy leans on. Training skills are the ability to guide learning, i.e. the ability to teach and practice. The sub-areas of training skills are:

- the skill to further continuous learning,
- the skill to act as an educator and instructor,
- the skill to act in interactive situations and guide them,
- the skill to act as a member of a work community.

The changing and unpredictable conditions of the battlefield mean that every soldier must possess flexibility, creative know-how and critical thinking skills. With the help of continuous learning, the basic potential can be refined into real skills. The instructor does not merely carry out training. He is also learning continuously and this way he is the developer of his own work.

Military training always includes education, i.e. the guidance of personal growth. Personal growth shows as the healthy development of self-knowledge and self-confidence, initiative, responsibility and ethical assessment and decision-making ability. It includes the strengthening of communal spirit and the understanding of other people. On this basis the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes can be continuous. The educational skills of the instructor include seeing and facing the differences in the trainees.

A good learning process demands purposeful interaction also in military training. With interaction, the trainees' own activity that leads to learning is tuned, guided and supported. The instructor must understand that knowledge, understanding and know-how cannot be directly transferred from one individual to another. When the instructor understands this, he understands also the basic idea of the constructive concept of learning.

In peace time, military training is given in companies. An efficient company plans, carries out, evaluates and develops training in groups led by the company commander. This requires that the training atmosphere of the company supports and encourages its members. A peace time company should be a learning organization capable of comprehensive quality control^[3].

Toiskallio also emphasizes the principles of coaching as well as the attitude of the coach in military leadership. Coaching is the ability and willingness to personally further the development of individuals by:

- defining clear goals,
- guiding and instructing,
- one's own example,
- helping to see and understand,
- evaluating performances and giving clear feedback,
- giving support when difficulties arise,
- creating natural commitment and enthusiasm and the willingness to learn and practice. (Toiskallio 1998, 29)

Toiskallio outlines the core principles of constructivism in the foundations of military pedagogy. He emphasizes the significance of deep learning. The constructive evaluation of the guidance of learning is brought forth, like the self-evaluation of the instructor. The basic assumptions of the training culture^[4] that are built on the foundation described above are parallel to the starting points of the new leadership training program. When examining the figure describing the setting of goals for the training of military leadership (figure 2), it has to be remembered that creating meaningful study programs is partly based on the exploitation of the parallels between different areas. The common starting points of military pedagogy and deep leadership are easy to see and justify.

Tactics and operational skills

Deep leadership has points of contact with conceptual thinking as well^[5]. In the development of leadership behavior the foundation of the development of necessary skills related to self-knowledge and self-evaluation is in the area of conceptual thinking. It is also possible to speak of intrapersonal skills (Coleman 1995). Military training has traditionally aimed to develop the skills of conceptual thinking especially in the teaching of tactics and operational skills. From the viewpoint of the entity of military command it is therefore important that in the area of tactics and operational skills the premise will also in the future be the principles of mission command^[6].

Mission command requires the entire military organization and especially its leaders to have the capability for independent and initiative action, the success of which is based on the commanders' ability to think, i.e. anticipate the events of the battlefield. As the battle area is shattered, the initiative action of even very small troops in built-up areas and chaotic situations can be very significant to the end state of the battle^[7]. From commanders mission command requires developed conceptual thinking at the level of personal potential as well as the ability to exploit their staffs in anticipatory decision-making.

Leadership behavior must support the carrying out of mission command: mission command does not work without trust between subordinates and the superior^[8]. Because activity that is sensible considering the overall goal requires that lower lead-

ers know the commander's concept of operation and prepare for different options, "ordering" alone is not enough. Battle rarely progresses in such a way that the battle plan drawn up based on a decision made earlier works without alterations. It is necessary, time and situation permitting, to go into the different possibilities of how the battle could turn out, and the commander must get his subordinates to think and anticipate as they lead. The significance of thinking is emphasized by the fact that the commander from time to time asks his subordinates' opinion and view on the development of the situation and on potential threat factors.

During peace time military leaders create with potential and training the preconditions for war time activities. Between these two situation dimensions there is always one permanent factor: the military leader. *What kind of military leader combines the demands of both war and peace time?* One's own natural personality is the only lasting premise of leadership behavior. However, development is always possible. Development as a military leader stems in the new leadership training program from the acceptance and internalization of the principles mentioned above. *The military leader must profoundly think about these issues: how do I train independent and initiative soldiers? How do I coach my lower leaders in the principles of mission command? The answer can be found in leadership behavior that is in accordance with deep leadership.*

4.2 The methods of leadership training

In this section I will present those central methods related to the basic instruction of leadership skills in lecture- and course-type teaching that the curricula of the new leadership training are based on at all levels^[9]. The processes related to learning at work and exploiting one's own concrete leadership experiences belong to the next chapter.

The teaching of leadership skills starts from the following basic assumptions:

- the concept of leadership is closely connected to the concepts of training and teaching both theoretically and in practice^[10],

- each trainee who has reached adult age already has his own view on leadership and personal experiences about being the subject of leadership,
- because deep leadership is based on the whole person, i.e. the potential of the leader, real development cannot begin until the feedback process functions. At the basic training phase^[11] the trainee's knowledge and attitudes in relation to personal development can be influenced and thus create potential for learning from feedback.

Unraveling leadership experiences

Time permitting, all training events should be commenced with an illustrative method called the unraveling of leadership experiences, no matter what the level of trainees is. The method itself is introduced by examining the framework of leadership behavior^[12]. The purpose of the introduction given in the beginning of the training event is to get the trainees to separate in their own analysis the potential of a leader from leadership behavior. In the unraveling of leadership experiences, emphasis is on the analysis of leadership behavior of a particular individual.

In the first phase each trainee is given the personal task of remembering his own experiences of being the subject of leadership. From these experiences the trainee should pinpoint an individual who, in the trainee's opinion, has been the best superior (teacher/instructor) he has ever met. Then the trainee is asked to recall the individual's behavior in a leadership situation. As a result of the process, the trainee has to write down those forms of behavior that made that particular individual a better superior than the others in the trainee's opinion.

The second phase of unraveling leadership behavior can be carried out in two ways. If there is only a little time, after the analysis phase the experiences of the trainees are collected into a group memory such as a blackboard. The instructor writes down the experiences and acts as a moderator. Many opinions inspire discussion in the group, or they need to be clarified or summarized. This requires practice from the instructor.

The basic idea in writing down the experiences is that the instructor must remember the cornerstones of deep leadership and their central contents. Based on this memory, the instructor purposefully groups the experiences told to him by the group of trainees so that they naturally form four entities. The professional skills of the leader and issues relating to it form the fifth entity. As a detail of this method it should be remembered that the leader's own example belongs to both the "building trust and confidence" and "inspirational motivation" cornerstones, in which case it must be written down between them as a shared form of behavior.

When time permits and the issue is dealt with more thoroughly (for example in the teaching of leadership skills to conscripts and cadets), individual analysis is followed by work in small groups. In these small groups the trainees compare their experiences of being the subject of leadership, bringing forth bad experiences as well. When each member of the group has recounted his most important observations, the group chooses from the experiences of its members one example of good leadership behavior and one example of bad leadership behavior. These real life events are then turned into little plays that are rehearsed. Each group then performs its play. The plays are discussed and again the best forms of behavior are summarized by the instructor into group memory following the same principles as in the first phase.

The practicality and strength of this method are surprising^[13]. No matter what the target group is, the instructor can usually without difficulty collect the key contents of the cornerstones of deep leadership, not forgetting professional skills. In practice, the method provides a premise to other teaching that is durable and makes trainees commit themselves. The method also brings the credibility and generalization of the principles of deep leadership to a different level than mere theoretical argumentation.

A video exercise of the analysis of leadership behavior

The aim of the use of this method is to improve the potential of the trainees to separate, analyze and draw conclusions about deep leadership within the framework of the deep leadership model. It is easiest to begin the analysis with a subject that is extraneous to the trainees. The use of this method is like an introduction to the fact

that later on the aim is to expand the skills needed to analyze leadership behavior focusing the leadership behavior of the trainees themselves. When a military leader is used as an example, it can also be studied whether deep leadership corresponds to efficient leadership behavior data obtained from war experiences.

The subject or subjects under evaluation are introduced to the trainees by showing them a movie or at least a part of a movie. The conscript leadership package includes the older version of the movie *Tuntematon Sotilas* (The Unknown Soldier). This choice can be justified by its strong contacts to recent Finnish history and leadership culture. In the end it is up to the instructor to decide what kind of a leader he wants the trainees to evaluate with the help of the movie. There are several options available today. The following will deal with an exercise based on *The Unknown Soldier*^[14].

Before watching the movie, the trainees are asked to pay special attention to the leaders presented in the movie and their leadership behavior. After the movie, the instructor collects key observations about the leadership in combat, using finished material on war experiences, pictures of the battlefield of the near future as well as educational films *Taistelukenttä* (The Battlefield) and *Taistelustressi* (Combat Stress). To make the comparison between deep leadership and war experiences possible, the teaching material contains pictures that are shown to the trainees before the group work stage.

In small groups the trainees begin to analyze one or more military leaders from the movie, as instructed by the instructor. The group bases its analysis either on the cornerstones of deep leadership, war experiences on the behavior of an efficient battle leader or war experiences on the phenomena that leadership should create in the troops. The latter is approached in the framework of leadership behavior by seeing the characteristics of an efficient group at least partly as a result of the leader's behavior. As a result of their analysis, the groups give points^[15] to the leaders they have evaluated.

Additional elements can be included in the analysis and they are prepared in groups before watching the video clip. These elements may include defining the profes-

sional skills of a battle leader and military discipline. With a group of students, it is not possible to reach the level of profound analysis with limited group work, but even a short working session can generate a thought process that focuses on the essential. The tasks can be guided by giving questions to the trainees, like: *How to recognize a professional battle leader? How can it be concluded that "good" discipline prevails in a group?*

The instructor collects the assessments of the groups into group memory. One member from each group briefly explains the views of the group and the numerical result. Considering the development of the working methods, it is preferable that the group also describes the process used to end up with the result. The result of the method is a simple table in which each evaluated leader has received an evaluation from three different groups, each using different criteria. The following figure is an example of what the table might look like after all groups have given their results.

ANALYSIS	The cornerstones of deep leadership	Behavior of an efficient leader	Characteristics of a group efficient in battle
Lt Lammio	7	8	10
2Lt Koskela	16	18	16
Cpl Lehto	8	10	11
Cpl Hietanen	15	17	16

Table 2. An example of a scoring table resulting from the analysis of leadership behavior

Once the table is finished, a roundup discussion will begin, led by the instructor. The common foundation of deep leadership and war experiences can be seen in the horizontal comparison of the points of each leader on the table: the correlation is usually significantly large. In this context it is also useful to deal with military discipline both as a concept and a practical phenomenon. Training experiences and feedback obtained show^[16] that this method, too, inspires activity and interest in trainees, which shows usually an active discussion that is continued after the official training period. This is how to achieve significant methodical results that are important to the constructive concept of learning: the trainees' activation, participation, thinking alone

and in groups as well as the testing of one's views and opinions together with peers. Actually, with this method the process and the time spent on it are more important than the end result.

Leadership simulation courses

The leadership simulation course is a situation practice in which leadership-related problems are simulated to the trainee using real people. As a method the leadership simulation course is not new, but its application with constructive principles sets clear boundaries and demands to this method.

There is a threat that the method becomes a routine roulette of leadership-related tricks and frames of orders.

Order roulettes are still applicable to the military leaders' drill practices and other similar methods, but in deep leadership training the course should be carried out according to the principles described below.

The leadership simulation course is an effective way to provide trainees with several practice runs both as a leader and as a feedback giver during one day of training. Technically the method functions so that the trainees are divided into two groups of equal size. The two groups are further divided into smaller teams. Each team is given a task to prepare a problem situation for the course, the total duration of which is, for example, 10 minutes. Background information and description necessary for the understanding of the situation must also be prepared for the actors. The problems can deal with peace time as well as war time leadership. The aim must be that the situations are from "real life", either from the group members' own experiences or from the experiences of war veterans. The fact that the situation has actually taken place motivates the actors in their leadership behavior.

The course is carried out in lifelike surroundings: in the barracks' squad rooms and hallways, out in the yards or terrain, depending on the situation description. In order for the situation to make sense and the change of location to be quick, the instructor must limit and coordinate the descriptions at control points and the area of opera-

tions beforehand (peace time vs. war time course, in the barracks or in the terrain). It is advantageous to the objectives of the leadership simulation course if it is possible well in advance to give to the trainees a brief general description, applicable to all tasks, of the course's area of operations.

The description should also cover a definition of the leadership behavior of the key persons (at company level, these would include the personality of the company commander and an outline of what is done and not done in the company). The amount of work that goes into the background information and descriptions is quite large, but a well-done foundation can be used again and again. The control posts can also give points on the actors' "score cards", but not for the purpose of evaluation. The so-called practical examinations of leadership skills are to be held completely separately.

The "actors" of the leadership situations must give careful consideration to their roles so that behavior would be real and reactive in some way to the behavior of the leader. The most essential part of the whole performance is the feedback given on it. For this purpose each control post must have two trainees that are not taking part in the course but are there just to concentrate on observation and feedback. The following organization and order of importance has been found good in the structure of the feedback:

- Was the overall goal reached?
- Was the leader's behavior natural and credible?
- Did the leader with his behavior inspire trust in others that were involved in the situation?
- Was the leader able to consider people individually, i.e. genuinely and respectfully, and listen when needed?
- Was the leader able to get those people who had problems to independently think about possible solutions?
- Was the leader able to motivate and encourage people by making them believe that things will be all right?

It is possible to reach a good end result through various options. Therefore it is not often possible to draw up a "list of procedures"

that would be absolutely correct. Instead, evaluation must be begun from the entity and from the end result that the individual arriving at the control point achieves.

What is a good end result? This is defined by the team that designed and prepared the problem situation according to description. If the situation is difficult, a good end result may be just to get the other person to talk about what's going on with him. In an easier situation a leader may achieve something more concrete. The before-mentioned list of the six main points helps significantly in the analysis of a good end result.

There are different leadership simulation courses and they can also be at different levels. If training includes more than one leadership simulation course, the requirements of the course can be gradually increased by increasing the control points' commitment to goals and situation. When there is only one simulation course, it is appropriate to make it clear to the trainees beforehand that it is possible to achieve the best result at every control point by carrying out the principles of deep leadership. If the course is repeated in training, the course can be made more challenging. This means that once the situation has commenced, the person acting as leader must 'sense' from people's behavior whether the situation can be solved with the means of controlling and corrective leadership or, in extreme cases, by force. The emphasis is nevertheless on the leadership, which is more complicated than the practice of mere situational decision-making^[19].

In the leadership simulation course, learning is not only solving problem situations as the leader. On the contrary, the planning of the simulation course is at best a good learning process in which every trainee in small teams throughout the entire process has to think about appropriate solutions to different situations and the justifications for them. In many cases, following dozens of performances and giving feedback teaches the trainee at least as much as does performing on the course. The process also includes several parts that develop group work skills. The leadership simulation course also gives a concrete opportunity to move learning out of the classroom and combine it with many effective means of experiential learning^[20].

Fish pool exercise

A fish pool is particularly suited to the training of small groups and it works well as preparatory training before the leadership simulation course. In a fish pool, the instructor gives to the entire group of trainees a written description of a problem situation, and each trainee prepares to solve the problem in practice with a rather short time for preparations. The instructor may have at his disposal a trained group of actors, but in the simpler version the leadership situation has to do with only one individual, in which case the instructor himself can act as the opponent of the trainee chosen to perform the task. Time permitting, every trainee has to be taken into a concrete situation. If the fish pool exercise is carried out over a short period of time, for example as training for the leadership simulation course, the trainee called in front of the group should be selected among volunteers.

The fish pool gives a good opportunity to teach the trainees the structure and points of emphasis of the feedback process. The individual chosen to perform the task leaves the classroom and waits to be called into the situation. Then the instructor gives the evaluation tasks according to the six-point list, for example, to the trainees who remain in the classroom. The actor is then called in and the group enters into the situation. The instructor decides when it is time to stop acting, after which it is time for feedback. First the actor evaluates his own behavior. Then the group gives feedback to the actor according to the instructions they have been given. Finally a general discussion is held. It is possible for the instructor to point out the key role of the end result and comprehensive evaluation in feedback.

Case-groups in training

A general aim in military training is to build as lifelike training environments as possible by various means. One method that has received excellent feedback from trainees is case-training that has been applied to practical training (war, combat, staff and command post exercises). The aim of this method is to describe to all trainees and especially those in leadership positions the possible problem situations that are related to the leadership and that are likely to arise in the battlefield. The strength of

the method is based on a well-trained group of actors and the method being very surprising^[21].

A case group that consists of a few individuals and has its own instructor is placed separately in the exercise organization. Based on the situations in the exercise, the group draws up plans of the descriptions that will be carried out at different levels of leadership. Case-training is purposefully fitted into the exercise's use of time in an instructors' meeting. Without notice, the case-group appears at a chosen location, for example at a company's command post or brigade headquarters and begins its activity. Those acting as leaders in the situation must simply do as the situation requires. The instructor of the case-group directs and leads the activity.

The situation is called to a halt with a clear signal from the instructor of the case-group. The event is followed by an immediate feedback session, with all personnel present taking part in it. The feedback session is a discussion-based learning event, during which the situation and the activities of the leaders are reviewed and the most important things learned from personnel's views and opinions are summarized. After the actual feedback session the instructor of the case-group can, if needed, give separate feedback to the leader by whom the exercise was directed. The actual instructor must also be present in this case.

As stated earlier, contents-wise the deep leadership model as a basic solution of the new leadership program does not bring to the training of military leaders any such view or issue that would be completely new. Novelty value is more connected to the methods applied in training and the systematic feedback system. Constructive methods of learning are used to create a foundation for the development of self-directiveness. A real development as a leader is based on an individual's self-directiveness.

The before-described methods becoming established and further developed at the different levels of leadership training is particularly important when the premise is the individual being trained and the aim of military training is learning.

4.3 Examples of applying the methods in training situations

The following "training cards" are illustrative and they are based on practical experiences from dozens of different training situations^[22]. It can be seen that a training program based on deep leadership inspires growing interest outside the Defence Forces as well. Any officer of the Defence Forces or military leader in the reserve who has familiarized himself with the new leadership training program may find himself lecturing upon request on this subject area. The following examples are meant to help especially those individuals who are preparing their first training events outside already prepared curricula for any audience.

In **one lecture** (30-45 minutes) it is difficult to actually apply any of the before-mentioned methods. In the introduction it is nevertheless useful to refer to the listeners' own experiences of being the subject of leadership. It is useful to structure the lecture according to figure 2 of this book. The figure describes the entire leadership training program with its key sectors. The main contents of the lecture could be the description of these sectors with discussion^[23]. Becoming familiar with the first experiences of carrying out the program serves as preparation for discussion and questions^[24]. *This lecture will be called " introduction of the program".*

In an event that is **two lectures** long, it is possible to begin the application of actual methods. It is useful to use the first lecture entirely for the unraveling of leadership experiences and the discussion that follows. This method creates a favorable starting point for the introduction of the entire program; this is carried out in the second lecture.

A period of **three to four hours** divided into three sessions could be carried out as follows:

1. Session: Unraveling of leadership experiences.
2. Session: Introduction of the program.
3. Session: Video exercise on the analysis of leadership behavior.

Leadership as the topic of the training event as well as the personal experiences of the participants as the basis of training usually inspire active discussion among lis-

teners. Therefore time must be reserved for questions and discussion in all training events.

A training event lasting an **entire day**^[26] gives new possibilities for the application of methods so that the instructor's introduction and the methods that activate participants complement each other. The increase in time gives opportunities to structure the day according to the participants' wishes or in a way that is proportioned to their background^[27]. It is useful to divide the day of training into periods so that time needed for the use of methods is taken into consideration. All periods do not need to last the same amount of time.

The following example of the use of time has been constructed on the basis that the audience is to be given justification for the development of their own leadership. The duration of periods dealing with methods is 60-75 minutes, while the duration of lectures is 45 minutes.

1. Session: Unraveling of leadership experiences.
2. Session: Introduction of the program.
3. Session: Development of leadership: the general model of leadership.
4. Session: Video exercise on the analysis of leadership behavior.
5. Session: Self-knowledge and feedback.
6. Session: Fish pool exercise.
7. Session: Development as a leader, final discussion.

The general model of leadership gives an individual leader three complementary views from which to critically analyze his organization and work community. The task of the instructor is to describe concepts, or in other words, to define the contents of the parts of the model and their interaction. Through discussion it is possible to find examples from the organizations of the participants. Required background material is available in military leaders' leadership and instructor training file.

In a **two day** training event it is possible to carry out the leadership simulation course if so desired. The starting point of the following example for the use of time is

that the evening hours of the first day of training can be used for group work, meaning the preparations for the leadership simulation course.

1st day

1. Session: Unraveling of leadership experiences.
2. Session: Introduction of the program.
3. Session: Development of leadership: the general model of leadership.
4. Session: Video exercise on the analysis of leadership behavior.
5. Session: Self-knowledge and feedback.
6. Session: Handing out group work task^[28] for the leadership simulation course, brainstorming and planning, instructor coordinates and approves solutions.
7. Session: Fish pool exercise.
8. Session: During the evening preparations needed for task points, practicing the situation, formulating the structure of feedback.

2nd day

1. Session: Leadership simulation course.
2. Session: Feedback session on the leadership simulation course.
3. Session: Development as a leader, final discussion.

In the training event it is also possible to develop participants' group work skills^[29]. The activities of the second day may be begun with the analysis of the group work processes from the previous day's afternoon and evening. This is carried out as self-evaluation of the groups.

CHAPTER 4 REFERENCES

- 1) Peter Hall and Peter Norris (1993), among others, have studied the prerequisites of learning in leadership training. In their article "Learning for Leadership" the scientists state that learning is actually divided into two larger entities: conceptual learning and social learning. By conceptual learning the scientists refer directly to the constructive concept of learning and emphasize the significance of experiential learning in this framework. The central forms of social learning are imitation and the formation of models. In military training, social learning brings up the example of the instructor and superior as one of the most important prerequisites of development as a leader. The following assumptions deal with social learning. Imitation is more often directed at a person of high status than low status and also at a person from whom one can find features similar to his own. Unfortunately aggressive behavior is often imitated, but moral example is followed, as well. However, especially the kind of behavior in which the example or model is rewarded by the organization is imitated. Role models may be taken from anywhere.
- 2) In her book "Tietämisen taidot" (The Skills of Knowing) Jaana Venkula (1988) deals more profoundly with the theoretical background of the methods presented in this chapter. When dealing with practice through activity, Venkula emphasizes the superior position of skill and *praxis* in relation to knowledge. Still, too little is known about the opportunities of developing those skills. More research in this field is needed according to Clark & Clark (1990) as well.
- 3) Learning organizations are dealt with in several books and studies. In his doctoral dissertation, Rauno Jarnila (1998) has collected definitions of a learning organization from various scientists and draws his own conclusions from them. For the members of a learning organization, the features associated with it emphasize especially the potential for change, adaptability, innovation and creativity. Among work procedures, reflection, commitment, activity, the support and encouragement of others, working together and openness rise to the surface. According to Ruohotie (1996), the result of these starting points is that a learning organization functions close to its clients, reacts quickly to changes, learns from other organizations, constantly questions its own activities as well as allows mistakes and learns from them.
- 4) The concept of training culture as a social phenomenon as well as one related to a military organization has been the object of Toiskallio's (1996, 1998, 1999) scientific work and interest. His work has created a foundation for the teaching of leadership skills in the training of military leaders. From the viewpoint of an individual instructor, "Kouluttamisen perusteet" (The Foundations of Training) by Heikurinen (1993) can be regarded as the first basic work dealing with military training that demands training culture to develop in its current direction.
- 5) John Adair (1984), among others, writes about the importance of thinking in leadership in his book "The Skills of Leadership". Adair does not believe in dividing the mind and thinking into different segments, such as into a logical and a creative segment. Instead, he believes that thinking functions as one entity in which the different factors of intelligence are in constant interaction with each other. Pertti Kettunen (1997) also goes into the examination of the basic requirements of conceptual thinking in the framework of strategic level leadership.

6) Dirk W. Oetting (1993), among others, writes about the principles and application of mission command in leadership in his book "Auftragstaktik". In English, the terms 'mission command' and 'mission oriented command' are also used. At least in the western culture of military leadership there seems to prevail a stable unanimity about the practicality of mission command in relation to war experiences and recent peace keeping operations. Several war colleges, the Baltic Defence College (BCD) being the most recent example, mission command is the main thread of training around which other subjects are built.

7) Initiative is the ability and willingness to take action even though there is no order or clear instructions concerning the issue, plans fail or the situation becomes unexpected. Initiative constantly guides the military leader to seek better procedures, think about what should be done and function without orders. When sensible reasoning that is directed towards the common goal is integrated into initiative, it is possible to talk about disciplined initiative, which is a characteristic of a good military leader. (Army Leadership, 1999) Marshall Montgomery has stated: "*The battle is always decided by the initiative of a single soldier.*"

8) At the international "The Human In Command. Peace Support Operations 2000" seminar, the international scientists and commanders who gave speeches were unanimous on the practicality of mission command. In relation to leadership, the seminar focused on the worst obstacles to mission command in peace keeping operations and how they can be overcome.

9) The methods of leadership training that is based on deep leadership are dealt with, for example, in the key handbook on the study of leadership, "Handbook of Leadership" (1990), edited by Bass and Stogdill, and especially in Bass's (1998) book "Transformational Leadership". Irwin L. Goldstein (1992) writes about the general methods of leadership training in his extensive book "Training in Organizations". Bass and Avolio (1998) emphasize in particular the importance of beginning the training with a process which in the program I call charting of leadership experiences. This method commits participants to the common framework already in the beginning.

10) In this viewpoint, for example Hannele Niemi (1994) emphasizes the significance of critical reflection and emancipatory ideal of knowledge.

11) Several studies report that the person and the touch of the instructor may have a decisive role concerning the end result in the teaching and training of leadership skills. For example Casey & Roberts & Salaman (1992) have studied the role of the instructor as the enabler of learning in small groups.

12) The framework of leadership behavior and its supportive material is included in the training material of the leadership and instructor training of military leaders, figure 2.2.1.

13) Bernard M. Bass and Bruce Avolio (1998) report on their experiences on the training of thousands of leaders all over the world and state that this method works everywhere. Theoretically the issue is that experience of outstanding leadership behavior is collective everywhere on this basis. This, after all, is the basic assumption of the new paradigm of leadership.

14) It is being said that we are moving from the time of great stories to a world of experiences shattered by small discourses. Even though the movie "Tuntematon Sotilas" is not the best possible teaching movie to describe military leadership or what happens in battle, also in the future it is possible to use it to pass on to new generations the "great story" of the Finnish Defence Forces that has its own significance to today's activities as well.

15) Detailed directions concerning the method have been provided in an instructor's folder attached to the "Leadership Training Package for Conscripts", and it also contains all material contents-wise. The profound mastering of this and other similar methods should be seen as the developing professional skill of the military instructor and it is based on changes in the area of operations. From this point of view, Hannele Niemi (1999) has edited the book "Moving Horizons in Education" that deals with education and especially teacher training and that describes from a European viewpoint this change that will affect the role of a teacher as well.

16) Experiences and opinions are reported in the publication of the Department of Management and Leadership, "Uuteen johtajakoulutukseen" (Towards the New Leadership Training).

17) The methods presented in this chapter and the use of videos in teaching has many connections to the CMS-strategy in teaching, introduced by Matti Suonperä (1986a and b, 1991, 1993). The use of images and image practice makes the learning of controlling interactive situations more effective.

18) In the training of cadets the leadership simulation courses have in their current form been used, applied and developed since 1995. In various non-systematic forms a method much like the simulation course has of course been used in the training of cadets and as an applied examination for decades. Feedback, conclusions and needs for development have been reported by each course and the reports are kept in the feedback memorandums filed at the Department of Management and Leadership in the National Defence College.

19) War game programs that are suited for the practice of decision-making in tactical situations have already been used in the teaching of leadership skills to cadets and more resources are being directed to the development of simulator-aided war game teaching.

20) For example David A. Kolb (1984) has written about the concept and methods of experiential learning in his much-quoted book "Experiential Learning".

21) Experiences, conclusions and needs for development about case-practices in cadet leadership exercises have been collected in the feedback memorandums, filed at the Department of Management and leadership in the National Defence College.

22) In his book "Kehittyvä johtajuus" (Developing leadership) (1995) Unto Pirnes collects his views on practicing coaching in the development of the skills of leading people. Pirnes, too, emphasizes that the experiences produced by these methods have been very positive. The feedback on the methods obtained annually

from the national and regional KRISO courses organized by the Reserve Officer Association has been filed by the Association.

23) This is a basic lecture that offers an important framework to the trainees. For example Cunningham (1992) brings to the surface in his research the significance of the framework to the development of thought. The unraveling of individual events, phenomena and problem situations and the generalization of the conclusions made from them requires at least to some extent the conceptualization of the issues and the understanding of these concepts in order for the interaction to work. The framework is very useful in the conceptualization process.

24) In addition to the book "Uuteen johtajakoulutukseen" (Towards the New Leadership Training) (2000), feedback information concerning the new leadership training program has been collected at the Defence Staff's Training Division from contingents in 1998 and 1999. Furthermore, the contingents have drawn up their own reports about the execution of leadership training.

25) Burke & Day (1986) analyzed 70 different leadership training projects in their study. They state that effect-wise the training methods are more important than the contents of training. Multi-method training is the most effective. Even in a short time, it is worth getting the trainees to participate in various methods.

26) Barling & Weber & Kelloway (1996) report an example on their own one-day training event as a part of a more extensive leadership training project. The day included charting leadership experiences, group work and fish pool exercises.

27) Examples of several-day workshops on the training of deep leadership to military leaders have been reported, for example, in the document "The School for Leadership Development", published by the Israeli Defence Forces in 1998.

28) "The Leadership and Instructor Training for Conscripts" file includes more detailed basic instructions for instructors concerning the instructions of group work and topic areas.

29) Jaakko Holopainen (1990), among others, writes about leadership in a group and group work skills in the Finnish Reserve Officer Association's publication "Johtamistaito" (Leadership Skills). Göran Lindgren has also produced a great deal of material from the same topic area for the use of the Association. Newstrom and Scannell (1998) have written an entire book on "The Big Book of Team Building Games", in which they extensively introduce practical methods related to the development of a group.

5. DEVELOPMENT AS A LEADER

With leader selection, trainees with certain skills and learning potential are produced. On the basis of this basic potential it is expected that *every military leader* can, if he so wishes, develop as a leader within certain limits. It is improbable that perfection in leadership will ever be achieved, though. Therefore in the development as a leader the most important thing is not to achieve some exact level, but the individual's attitude and internal process that should be continuous and life-long. Because growth as a human being is also related to development as a leader, commitment to a development decision at individual level is an important value choice.

This chapter deals with the needs and opportunities of developing leadership behavior in a military organization. The development of leadership behavior is not efficient without feedback from others. Development as a leader is a macro concept of leadership behavior, because lasting and real change in leadership behavior means in most cases that changes take place also in the individual's values, attitudes and ways of thinking. Development as a leader is an individual's internal process, whose practical and concrete contact surface to everyday reality is a visible change in leadership behavior.

Because the development of leadership behavior is based on the individual's own experiences and it is related to the comprehensive growth as a human being, the greatest changes in most leaders occur in early adulthood. Between the ages of 20 and 30 years a young military leader needs the most support and guidance from the outside. At this point guidance most likely has more effect than later.

A foundation for the development of leadership behavior is built in training during military service. Military leaders are encouraged to use in the reserves, in other words in their civilian assignments, the tools for development as a leader that they were offered during conscript service. When feedback information related to leadership behavior is filed, it is possible in refresher training to find out the leadership potential of a reservist leader by using the deep leadership questionnaire as well as measuring the performance ability of the contingent. In the training of permanent

personnel at organizational level, the aim is to carry out as systematically as possible the principle of life-long learning and continuous development as a leader. In practice this means that training periods alternate logically with learning at work throughout one's military career. The development of leadership behavior also has connections to advancement in the military career, because the skills of learning to learn and a positive attitude towards self-development are the characteristics of a successful individual even in a military organization.

5.1 The development of leadership behavior in military service

When the overall structure of military service was renewed in 1998, emphasis was, in addition to changes in the time of service, strongly on the factors that are known to decide the combat performance and efficiency of a group made up of reserves. The reform was based on research and the emphasis is on the following points:

- military pedagogy in instructor training,
- regulating the overall strain in physical training,
- the study of battle in combat training, and
- deep leadership in leadership training.

Through research and with the help of it, the limits of the temporal dimension of the military training of our war time reserve component has been concretically noted in relation to the creation of the performance of the rank and file, leaders and the entire troop. Performance capability has become a key concept in military pedagogy. On a general level, performance capability means a system that is made up of physical, mental, social and ethical sectors. On an individual level, performance capability refers more to potential than performance. (Toiskallio 1998, ed.)

Various observations in individual studies as well as in more extensive personnel training events have shown that attitudes formed during military service have in many ways become the decisive factor in the maintenance and development of performance capability. *The profound analysis of the concept of performance capability in relation to the military training of the troops produced for the reserves emphasizes the significance of the attitudes of conscripts as an aim and a result of military training.* This view should be visible in the assessment and development of training.

The basis of military performance capability is in relation to battle tasks an adequate physical condition. This factor can be influenced only by trying in all ways possible to build during military service a positive and lasting attitude towards physical education and training. Because of the large training volume of the Defence Forces, this fact has a significant effect on the public health in society as well. With wrong type of training it is possible to foster an attitude totally against physical training.



Photograph 10. Exercise keeps soldiers and civilians alike in good health and working order (SA-kuva)

Projects to study battle characteristics were commenced at the initiative of the Defence Staff Training Division produces significant information about the demands set by battle from individual to unit level. The studies aim to find such information about the different sectors of military performance capability to support the development of training that the efficiency of training can be gradually raised. The study questions the procedures and ways of thinking that have become established in the course of decades. The starting point of the training of a unit must be the real demands in a modern battlefield set by the unit's probable first task.

Attitude is a decisive factor in leadership and instructor training, as well[1].

During military service it is possible at best to teach reservist leaders certain practi-

cal basic skills and furthermore build a foundation for the development of leadership behavior. Development as a leader continues in the reserve and during possible refresher training periods. This development is of course strongly connected to the individual's later life experiences and to natural growth into a responsible and socially acceptable individual. A reservist military leader should with self-directiveness develop his own leadership behavior using the justifications and tools (feedback systems) that can be offered to him during his military service. Because the question is about an individual's internal process without external motivating factors or control, a positive attitude towards self-development is the basis of everything. This premise must be taken into consideration in all leadership training.

The phasing and aims of training

The starting point is that those being trained into reserve non-commissioned officers and officers receive the same basic training in leadership skills. Actual leadership training is commenced in the first phase of the non-commissioned officer course. Instruction is begun by considering the basic aims of leadership training and self-directiveness. Of the contents of the leadership training program, especially the values^[2] and ethics of leadership, self-knowledge, knowledge of human nature and development as a leader from the viewpoint of self-directiveness are dealt with. The phase is finished with an essay in which the trainees assess their own values and attitudes in relation to their future duties. The aim of this phase is that future military leaders:

- Understand what leadership of people requires from a leader.
- Receive justification for the evaluation of their own leadership behavior.
- Internalize the significance of a positive attitude towards self-development in the process of developing leadership.

During the reserve officer course and the second phase of the non-commissioned officer course the deep leadership model is introduced. The leadership in battle is analyzed on the basis of battle experiences as well as the premises of a modern-day battlefield and the trainees also receive the basics of using the deep leadership questionnaire in a company. The image of modern-day battle and its effects on lead-

ership are taught using the educational movies *Taistelukenttä* (Battlefield) and *Taistelustressi*^[3] (Combat Stress). The instruction package also includes material on military discipline and group cohesion.

Training is enriched with methods described in the previous chapter, thus creating the preconditions for commitment to the leadership training program. Practical leadership is also practiced in these courses in different exercises using peer groups. With feedback sessions that follow the leadership performances, preliminary understanding is created in the trainees concerning the strengths and development needs of their leadership behavior. The example given by the instructor has a great effect on the learning of how to handle feedback.

For the development of leadership behavior, the most important phase of military service is approximately a six-month long service as a leader in a company. The time period is divided into phases of basic training, special training and unit training. For young conscript leaders, there are two important factors in this training phasing that support the development and growth as a leader.



Photograph 11. Compared to a recruit, a squad leader is an expert on the routines of service (SA-kuva)

First of all, during the basic training phase squad leaders and officer cadets lead and train mainly the younger intake, i.e. the recruits. This arrangement gives an opportunity for a natural superior-subordinate relationship, because when comparing a recruit who has just commenced his service, with the know-how of a squad leader it is sufficient to provide a basis to a guiding and directing leadership. Because the basic training phase begins with adapting oneself to a military organization and learning the basic skills, the conscript leaders can in their activities apply the "follow me" way of leadership. This way the foundation for the creation of trust is created through the conscript leader's own example.

Another important viewpoint is a principle related to the production of troops, according to which war time companies or platoons are formed, beginning with the training selections of the special training phase, from the older leadership intake and the younger rank and file intake. Training is carried out in this configuration. At the end of military service, these troops are transferred into the reserve still in the same configuration. Already at the training phase this procedure makes possible two requirements that are essential from leadership's point of view:

1. the creation of trust between the leader and the group, and
2. the creation of primary cohesion.

The principle of troop production is explained to conscripts at the start of military service and it is believed that it motivates both leaders and the rank and file to get to know and adjust to their war time unit.

During military service, the most important elements in the development of leadership behavior are one's own instructor, systematic feedback, personal leadership file and teamwork among the conscript leaders.

Instructor is the coach of a conscript leader

Supporting the growth as a leader and encouraging development require that an instructor who belongs to regular personnel has a coaching approach to the conscript leaders under him. Coaching begins with the instructor's own example. In everyday service conscript leaders need time, support and instructions as they prepare to lead

various training events. Here is one of the critical factors of the system: *are young instructors, who are still trying to find themselves as military leaders, able to function as coaches to the conscript leaders under them?*

In the best case a company has both young and more experienced instructors who keep up a close and genuine dialogue that is oriented towards learning. In such a case a young instructor receives support not only from his superior but also from his service mates, and the instructors of the company form kind of a team of experts. The role of the company commander as the developer of the leadership behavior of the instructors is important. By coaching his subordinates, the commander creates in his company an atmosphere that encourages learning and development. For instructors, too, the leadership profile produced with the deep leadership questionnaire is a central tool and it functions as a basis for development discussions.

By sharing his knowledge and experience with his subordinate conscript leaders, an instructor makes it possible to carry out high-quality training events. During training the instructor must be available, but the conscript leaders must, within the limits of security and purposefulness, be guaranteed certain freedom of activity. An entity that creates a foundation both for the learning of conscript leaders and good training results through direct feedback is born from good preparations and adequate freedom of activity.

Direct feedback

The extent and execution of direct feedback have to be proportioned to the entity being evaluated. The most important thing is that the handling of feedback really is direct and continuous. Direct feedback is a guidance discussion in which a conscript leader evaluates a training event he himself has led. An essential question is, did the training event reach the goal set for it. The conscript leader should be taught to answer this question so that he is capable of separating from each other his own potential, the guidance he has received and reasons relating to situational factors. The evaluation of the effects of situational factors enriches the conscript leader's sphere of experiences and creates potential for acting in similar conditions later on. The evaluation of guidance received is feedback to the instructor.



Photograph 12 Discussion on feedback is irrespective of time and place

For the development of leadership behavior, probably the most important sector is the evaluation of one's own potential, in which the deep leadership model and the related feedback form can be used as support and structure. This way it is possible to separate from each other professional skills, the correction of mistakes and effects noticed in the target group.

For the development of self-directiveness, it is fundamentally important to give direct feedback so that the situation begins with the conscript leader's self-evaluation. After this the instructor states his own observations and the most important ones are written down on the feedback form that the conscript leader then files in his own leadership folder. The more extensive the entity, the more time the instructor must have for the execution of feedback. The atmosphere of the feedback situation has a decisive effect on whether the situation supports learning or is it just a formality that feels useless. The feedback situations must have quality that stems from an unhurried atmosphere. The trainee must be listened to.

Team work

The team work of conscript leaders is typically a process in which the conscript leaders of one platoon are called round one table. The question is thus about working in small groups, in which everyone can and must take a stand towards the issues being handled. In a company, one hour two to four times a month is reserved for team work. The objective of team work is to get conscript leaders to discuss training and

its execution among themselves. The aim of the process is that after the practice phase conscript leaders:

- can assume responsibility for the reaching of training goals and perceive their own share in the training results,
- can analyze the established routines of the company and make justified development suggestions to the company commander,
- can harmonize their own leadership procedures and think about common solutions for situations that are perceived problematic,
- notice in practice the common development needs related to leadership and are encouraged to support each other in development aspirations.

Dealing with training and its aims is possible through the means of group work even after a short orientation phase. On the other hand, developing leadership behavior with the help of a team requires strong unity and trust from the group in question. Through feedback on group work it has been noted that in the beginning the team needs a leader or an instructor for support so that the aims and principles of activities are understood and that work would be purposeful and efficient. After the first stage an outside instructor is no longer needed, but work is carried out with each conscript leader acting as the leader. If the conscript leaders have proposals to the company commander, a short memo is drawn up of the team work. In many companies it is purposeful to join the team work of conscript leaders and the (weekly) instructor meetings led by the company commander so that information can be transferred quickly.

Full range feedback

The purpose of full range feedback is to produce extensive information about the leadership behavior of the conscript leader. The Defence Staff has given directions to carry out full range feedback three times during a leadership period, i.e. at the end of each training season. The basis of full range feedback is the deep leadership questionnaire. Because the feedback system applies to all military leaders in the company, it is justified to reserve a two-hour slot in the weekly schedule for the completion of the questionnaire. This also gives time to evaluate the instructors.

The general answer forms of the entire company can be collected into one pile, because each leader being evaluated has his own ID code^[4]. The general answer forms are read with the nearest optical scanner and the data file is transferred via the Defence Forces' own internal information system (IIS) or on a disc back to the company. At the company the data is read using the RDA system, and a leadership profile is produced on paper for each conscript leader^[5]. The leadership profiles are filed in the leadership portfolios. The RDA system is very easy to use and with one-hour basic training, conscript leaders can perform the different stages of work needed to process the information.

In connection with the first full range feedback of each intake it is well-founded for the company commander to go over with the company the filling of the general answer form and to motivate all those who answer it to give honest and thorough feedback. There is a reason to emphasize to the entire company the significance of the feedback to the individual in question. Even though the leadership profiles are for the leaders' own use to support their personal development, it is sensible for the overall picture to tell how leaders analyze and take advantage of the feedback. When the relationship between a conscript leader and his group is fine, it has been noted^[6] that he is also able to go over his own feedback with his group.



Photograph 13. Feedback reveals whether leadership has been based on personal example (SA-kuva)

After receiving his leadership profile, the conscript leader will begin to analyze his leadership behavior, leaning on the instructions for the interpretation of the deep leadership questionnaire, which is included in the appendix of this book. Special attention should be paid to those dimensions in which self-evaluation differs significantly from the evaluations of others or where there is great dispersion between different feedback groups. When dealing with these questions, the support and observations of the closest peers^[7] are often useful. Once the conscript leader has gone over his feedback, he will have a feedback discussion with his own instructor^[8].

The feedback discussion again proceeds so that the conscript leader recounts his own observations and the instructor listens. Personal strengths and development needs should be found and identified from the leadership profile so that a positive attitude towards feedback is maintained. For one concrete development need, the feedback discussion should finish with a decision according to which the conscript leader will attempt to develop his behavior for the next two months. In an ideal case the conscript leader will also go over the feedback he has received with his own subordinates. The duty of the instructor is to support the conscript leader in these aspirations, leaning on his own experience. All feedback is filed in the leadership portfolio. The results of the last full range feedback are recorded in the leadership evaluation^[9] that is filled out at the company when an intake's military service ends.

The leadership portfolio

The leadership portfolio is the personal deposit file of each military leader and it is opened in the first phase of the non-commissioned officer course. In the portfolio are filed the most important study materials (e.g. the pamphlet *Growing to Be a Leader*), feedback forms from exercises, leadership profiles, open feedback, self-evaluations and development plans. The portfolio is the memory of leadership development and its duty is to show concretely to each leader that changes occur in the behavior of the leader as well as in subordinates. The portfolio goes into the reserve or advanced training with the trainee and its upkeep is encouraged in the training of regular personnel as well as in connection with refresher training.

Company as an operational environment

Considering the development of conscript leaders, feedback systems are an easy way to motivate and make learning more effective. The meaning of feedback systems is blurred, however, unless the routines and procedures of the company support development as a leader. From this viewpoint, it is possible to examine the company as an area of operations using the general framework of leadership shown in figure 5.

The structure and routines of the company create a foundation for the activities of conscript leaders. It is more natural to start growing into responsibility and more challenging duties from this level. An efficient company can not afford to tie its trained personnel to tasks and routines that belong to conscript leaders' level and responsibility. When a new intake begins its service, the company must have clear task descriptions that show the organization of the company, leadership relationships and distribution of responsibility at the level of daily duties. There must be control and guidance especially in the beginning so that procedures shape themselves into what the company commander wants^[10]. Traditions that do not serve training and the development of positive attitudes must be effectively eliminated. Traditions that strengthen the will to defend the country, group cohesion and commitment to shared goals must be preserved and strengthened.



Photograph 14 As an operational environment, a vessel has its own special characteristics

The key process of the company is the planning, management and execution of training. Conscript leaders must be included in this process so that they understand the importance of their own activities in the production of war time troops. *The respect shown to the conscript leaders by regular personnel is directly related to the respect the conscript leaders receive from their subordinates.* The conscript leaders have to be supported in their demanding task in all possible ways so that they could, through the creation of a natural leadership position, strive towards deep leadership and away from the role of a formal disciplinarian. This process does not have a clear formula, but it is possible to increase the understanding of the issue by dealing with military discipline and discussing it with all conscripts.

The personal authority of conscript leaders in relation to their subordinates is usually low. Therefore the conscript leaders require as their support a position in the company's hierarchy that removes insecurity. A position like this can only be created through the respect and trust shown by regular personnel^[11]. Control must not be neglected, though, especially in the beginning of the leadership period. Sometimes it is necessary to end "traditions" that do not support learning and the achievement of training results.

In the end, the conscript leader's learning and development as a leader are not based on the leadership training program, some information systems, or even deep leadership.

The basis of learning is that the conscript leader perceives his duty important and useful, he gets an opportunity to try his skills in demanding leadership tasks and feels that he receives from the company personnel an example, support and encouraging feedback in these tasks.

Development as a leader can begin only from these premises already at a company. The framework of the leadership training program, the deep leadership model and the adopting of feedback systems create the preconditions for the continuing and deepening of development as a leader in the reserve as well. In refresher training it is possible to produce feedback and leadership profiles to those leaders in the re-

serve that have been trained in the earlier conscript system. The use and application of feedback systems have to be included as one of the goals of refresher training in the near future.

5.2 The development of leadership behavior in institutions of military education

In institutions of military education, the *extended concept* of leadership behavior is applied to all assessments, feedback and development. According to the concept:

"Leadership behavior is the leader's goal-oriented interaction with his subordinates. With leadership behavior, a leader takes into use and directs the resources of his organization in order to achieve the set goals. Leadership behavior includes interaction with colleagues, superiors and interest groups. Leadership behavior is examined in leader, expert and subordinate tasks."^[12]

According to this definition, leadership behavior is evaluated and feedback is comprehensively given on it. On the background of the extended concept is the assumption that a good superior can also be a good subordinate and build interaction with his peers as well as interest groups. The result of the interpretation of the concept is that it is possible to find from all practical exercises some material for the feedback process, no matter what the duty of the trainee is.

Basic training

The personnel to be trained into military leaders of the Defence Forces is recruited from the group that has received leadership training during military service. This way the leadership training of conscripts creates a systematic foundation for the continuation of training and the development of leadership behavior. Because the syllabus of the leadership and instructor training of military leaders is the same in all services and branches, the basic training of military leaders starts off from a fairly uniform starting level.



Photograph 15. Each trainee has already some experience of the leadership culture of the Defence Forces (SA photo)

Basic training can be built on the following basis:

- each trainee has personal experience of the military organization as well as of acting as a leader and being under someone else's leadership,
- the most important experiences, feedback and development-oriented plans are filed in the personal leadership portfolio,
- the trainees know personally the deep leadership model and its principles, as well as the feedback related to it,
- many trainees have experiences of leadership from a viewpoint other than that of a conscript leader, and
- concrete experiences of a company as an area of operations and leadership culture nevertheless vary greatly.

The starting points stated above provide an excellent foundation for the varied application of the methods of leadership training in the basic training of military leaders. Training is begun with the profound handling of experiences acquired during military service and one's own leadership profile. When an entire course is working together, the method used is still the unraveling of leadership experiences. Students also form

small groups that begin to unravel leadership profiles got during military service and the conclusions drawn from them. The filed leadership profiles also function as excellent basis for the instructors of institutions of military education and course directors to get to know their trainees and their backgrounds, starting from the first discussion. The cohesion and performance capability of the small groups should be maintained as training proceeds, because at best, they can offer strong support for an individual in the interpretation and evaluation of feedback received during the course.

The teaching of leadership skills deepens and expands the contents of the leadership and instructor training package of military leaders. A foundation for the development of leadership behavior is created by building an image of an efficient military leader from the viewpoint of an instructor and war time combat leader. The control of entities and the development of inductive thinking of training can be approached by applying for example the model of situational leadership^[13] to the production of troops. Observations and examples that stem from peace time companies, peacekeeping operations and war experiences act as a frame to leadership simulation courses and practical exercises. Personal growth as a leader is encouraged in feedback sessions through the areas of personal strength that each trainee has.

Because the basic training of military leaders is a time of growth as a person as well, each trainer and instructor in institutions of military education must assume responsibility as an educator^[14] as well, not solely as an expert. Many examples show that the experiences and incentives obtained in basic training carry military leaders far into the future. Focusing on the individual development of trainees and their learning to learn is the best way in military training to build a future. This applies especially to those trainees with the most needs for development.

The feedback system of institutions of military training should be as versatile as possible. The most important feedback tools are:

- evaluations by peers,
- direct feedback and assessment related to leadership and training performances in various exercises,
- instructor evaluations, and

- feedback on supervised practical training.

The development of leadership behavior in institutions of military education still includes assessment that shows success in courses. In this context I will not profoundly deal with the assessment systems of institutions of military education. However, according to observations, assessment based on a comprehensive feedback system creates a foundation for a credible assessment of leadership behavior^[16].



Photograph 16. One of the traditional applications of peer evaluation is the selection of the officer awarded with the sword of honor (SA photo)

The effectiveness of **peer evaluation** is based on the fact that the group of students doing the evaluation is familiar with each other. The observations about an individual's leadership behavior, endurance and ability to stand pressure that are made in the harsh and demanding field exercises of military training form the basis for familiarity deeper than mere "lecture behavior". To the extent possible, peer evaluation must take advantage of the small groups formed for the development of leadership behavior. Peer evaluation is carried out according to need, usually once a year. A method based on both numerical and verbal feedback is being established in peer evaluation.

In the processing of numerical data from peer evaluation it is possible to use the RDA system. In groups the trainees evaluate each other with questions adjusted to the goals of peer evaluation, such as: "How would he succeed as a trainer in a company" or "How would he succeed as a combat leader?". The evaluation scale typically has five choices (poor - satisfactory - average - good - excellent). The result of numerical peer evaluation is obtained individually as the average of the desired numerical scale.

Verbal peer evaluation is carried out in connection with numerical evaluation. Verbal evaluation can be seen in a way as justification for the numerical evaluation. Trainees evaluate each other shortly on a form that has been pre-filled. The feedback attempts to present observations about the leadership behavior of one's peers, otherwise the shape of feedback has not been structured. Instead of using paper forms, verbal peer evaluation can be carried out with the help of computers, which reduces the amount of work that goes into the collection and analysis of data. The results of peer evaluation are dealt personally with each trainee in development discussions. The results are also filed in the leadership portfolio.

The **direct feedback process** is in institutions of military education as essential as in military service. The difference between these two is that in the training of basic courses with a large number of trainees a single trainee will have actual leadership performances rather rarely. *For this reason feedback related to leadership performances is very valuable to the trainee.*

In the feedback discussion the principles presented earlier are followed. In a single exercise, however, several sources of feedback can be used. A leading principle in training should be that in extensive and expensive field exercises focus is on the quality of learning by carrying out the feedback system as effectively as possible. This applies to the feedback of the trainees as well as the development of the entire exercise. The time required by the feedback process must be taken into account already in the planning stage and noted in the execution plans.

As an example, let's take a normal command post exercise. An organization is created for the exercise in which, considering the emphasis of the exercise, it is possi-

ble to find for each trainee a leadership position with a superior and a subordinate, a real one or one played by a referee. A tactical game is used to create a situation that directs the management of the battle in its entirety. With a separate case-group, problem situations related to the leadership of people are created during the exercise. Within this framework, an exercise of even a few days can be both physically and psychologically demanding. Before the end of the exercise, the instructor can collect feedback at least on the trainees in key leadership positions from the following sources: subordinates, superiors, the leader's own headquarters and the instructor of the case-group. A standard leadership performance evaluation form should be used in the collection of feedback.



Photograph 17. Feedback sessions are an essential part of training geared towards peace support operations (SA photo)

This method increases notably the quality and reliability of feedback the trainee receives. If the leadership performance is evaluated numerically, the feedback in question provides a credible foundation compared with the evaluation of a single instructor. The feedback system in the shape described above does demand from the instructor an effort of several hours in the exercise. *Is the benefit obtained in proportion with this effort?* According to experiences obtained and study feedback collected over several years the answer is a definite yes^[16].

At fixed intervals, often in connection with the assessment system, a trainees' **instructor evaluation** is carried out. The premise is that in most cases the instructors do not get to know all trainees well enough in courses where the number of participants is high. Should the validity of the instructor evaluation be increased, each instructor must supervise the same small group of trainees assigned to him. This way it is possible to deepen in a limited manner the familiarity between instructors and trainees.

Instructor evaluation is prepared individually. Instructor evaluation emphasizes the responsibility of each teacher on his trainees. In practice, this should be visible by purposefully getting to know the trainees as well as possible. The training system itself provides opportunities for this, but the actual work and emphasis in this area often rests solely on the conscience of a single teacher. Evaluations are combined in a teachers' meeting. Preparations can be made using a list of students' names and pictures. Each teacher evaluates the trainees using the same principles that were used in peer evaluation, both numerically and verbally. In the teachers' meeting, a numerical evaluation is the average of individual evaluations. Verbal evaluation takes its shape in the teachers' discussion. According to the distribution of responsibility agreed upon in the beginning of the course, all evaluations are reported to the trainees during the development discussions. The development discussions follow the principles of the feedback process presented earlier.

Supervised practical training is a real opportunity to the trainee to focus on his leadership behavior between the conscript leadership experiences and the actual service career. When understood correctly, practical training is a significant intermediate stage in the development of leadership behavior. In order for the organization to benefit from this experience, the training military leader must not be used in the company as a "rotating instructor". Instead, he must be given the opportunity to train one platoon, battery section or contingent long enough so that all the feedback requirements can be fulfilled.

The group, conscript leaders and the instructor must get to know each other in the barracks as well as in the field. The company commander or an experienced instructor must at least from time to time follow these training events and supervise the

trainee. The aim should be that the commander is able to assess training results using established "hard" meters as well (shooting results, combatant's basic test, quality of produced war time unit, etc.). This is important information for a developing military leader.



Photograph 18. We just learned something: "Let's all stop here!" (SA photo)

When the supervised practical training is over, the trainee obtains from the company a full range feedback with the deep leadership questionnaire. Furthermore, the company commander draws up a written feedback that is based on the achieved training results. When the course continues in the institution of military education, the trainees analyze their feedback by comparing their leadership profiles to earlier ones. Comparison is made difficult, though, by the earlier-mentioned fact that as duties and the level of leadership change, the assessment criteria of other people change as well. It is probable that more is expected from a military leader who has received basic training than from a conscript leader. After the personal analysis phase feedback is unraveled in development discussions with both the immediate superior and the peer group. After the discussions, the trainees draw up a development plan with actual training duties on mind.

Advanced training

Military leaders arrive for advanced training from very different service locations, no matter what the level of training is. From the viewpoint of leadership training, this experiential variety is a source of wealth that should be taken advantage of in the structures of various courses as a part of the development of leadership behavior. With the methods of leadership training, these experiences can be extensively shared with the trainees. The development of leadership behavior is still based on full range feedback. The superiors of military leaders arriving for advanced training carry out full range feedback as instructed by the institution of military education. In the postgraduate degree, the development of leadership behavior is again commenced with the analysis of this feedback. The analysis is finished with the drawing up of a personal development plan.

In the postgraduate degree, the peer and instructor evaluations of the feedback system are used with the same principles as in the first degree. Work in groups and various assignments in headquarters during different kind exercises create preconditions for reliable evaluation. Because the advanced training phase includes relatively few actual leadership assignments, the cooperation potential of a military leader is emphasized especially in peer evaluation.

Considering the comprehensive development as a leader, in the postgraduate degree there is a shift in emphasis in the direction of the development of conceptual thinking. Change management, for example, is examined as a link between the development of leadership behavior and strategic level leadership. In the 1980s the roots of research on the background of deep leadership are in the theory of change management. Because the advanced training phase aims for the creation of potential needed for the long-term development of the Defence Forces, change management can be seen as one organizational tool for the development of the organization and leadership culture of the Defence Forces. At this level too, deep leadership is a personal tool in both leadership and the development of leadership behavior for the tasks of the highest command of the Defence Forces.

The military leader is always both the trainer and the coach of his subordinates. This view is emphasized in advanced training and after it. Commanders as well as chiefs of staff and heads of divisions should in the near future be able to develop their work communities within the framework provided by the general model of leadership. The structures and routines of the organization must be reviewed, inefficient solutions must be abandoned and feedback systems must be taken advantage of in the support of self-evaluation. The efficiency of the leadership process and the professional skills required by tasks have to be ensured. Emphasis must be on the commitment and learning of people. Requirements in the development of leadership are no longer limited to one's own leadership behavior; instead, the coaching of one's own closest subordinates is also included. Coaching means releasing the potential hidden in the subordinate for the benefit of the work unit and thus the entire organization. The hidden potential of people can be released with the means of deep leadership.

5.3 The development of leadership behavior in service

The process of developing as a leader has two levels in a military organization. The long-term development process that takes place in the direction of the general goals of training can be seen as the **basic level**. Its most important sectors are:

1. the updating and widening of one's own knowledge and practical skills,
2. the purposeful and systematic development of one's own leadership behavior, and
3. conscious practicing in conceptual thinking.

This life-long development process is the responsibility of the military leader himself and in the end its driving force can only be innate motivation connected to values and growth needs. In the development of leadership behavior the basic idea is change that takes place with small steps but purposefully nevertheless. At individual level a requisite for change is making a clear development decision and sticking to it. This is the culmination point of the development of leadership which requires from the individual real motivation and willpower. If these basic requirements are lacking,

not even the most extensive leadership training program will produce the desired results.

Decision-making takes always courage and it is so in this case as well. Military leaders can serve as examples to younger officers in the handling of feedback and learning from it. Each military leader also has his share of responsibility in the development of the leadership culture in the Defence Forces. The deep leadership questionnaire is available to each military leader whenever and where ever there is a reason to collect feedback on one's own behavior. The question is not only about forms, it is about learning a developing feedback culture.

Competence evaluation

After the actual advanced training and in connection with the courses of the highest command, a competence meter developed especially for this purpose is taken into use. Competencies refer to those features of an individual that predict success in the roles of leadership. The competence meter is divided into four main dimensions:

- intellectual capacity,
- purposefulness,
- professional credibility, and
- leadership.

The elements of intellectual capacity are the sense of what's essential, the ability to learn and change, organizational awareness, the promotion of fluency and creativity and innovativeness. The factors of purposefulness are the carrying of responsibility, decisive carrying out of things and independence. Professional credibility is made up of organized activities, extensiveness and commitment to values and goals. In evaluation, the areas of leadership are encouragement towards self-directiveness, human relations skills, intellectual flexibility and encouragement of cooperation.

Competence evaluation is carried out using the principles of full range feedback. Evaluation data is sent from the Defence Forces Education Development Centre to the superior of the individual being evaluated. The superior selects two subordinates of the individual under evaluation and one peer who carry out the evaluation in addi-

tion to the superior and self-evaluation. The questionnaire consists of a total of 159 statements that are answered using an evaluation scale that has six steps. In addition to leadership behavior, the competence meter thus produces information about those characteristics related to conceptual thinking that military leaders are considered to need in the highest expert and leadership positions in the Defence Forces. The competence requirements have been defined for command and strategic, operational and expert tasks.

There is an attempt to put competence evaluation systematically to good use in human resource management as well, so that military leaders with the most suitable potential and attributes are selected to key posts in the Defence Forces.

Duty rotation

Development as a leader is related to career and duty rotation and it is concretized in the **development of task-specific potential**. In its most typical form this process takes place when a military leader moves to a new post. For the part of the development of leadership behavior, this process takes place also when people in the area of operations change when, for example, the intake to be trained changes. The goal of this process is task-specific orientation as quickly as possible so that a military leader achieves in his activities the core of the tasks in question. Here 'core' means the activities and behavior of the military leader that achieve the best results in the particular assignment. As figure 19 shows, an organization often has fairly loose criteria (outer circle) for when the military leader "fulfills his task". Leaders aspiring to develop are not satisfied with this minimum level, however. They attempt to optimize their performance in every task (inner circle).

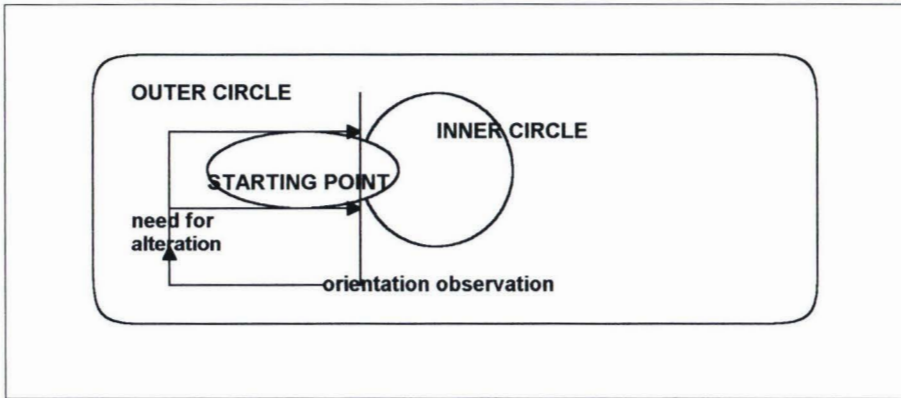


Figure 19. Task-specific development

An *orientation observation* is obtained when a military leader soon after starting in a new assignment obtains with the help of task analysis and feedback information on whether his activities and behavior correspond to the requirements of achieving an optimal result. If no support for the task analysis can be obtained from one's own experiences, manuals and regulations or the training one has received, the analysis must be constructed with the help of the key persons in the new work community. Through a normal feedback cycle, the orientation observation is followed by a *need for improvement* that aims from the starting situation towards the inner circle. This is a process that the closest superior should actively support.

Motivation for development

Learning at work thus has two levels. Leadership behavior should be continuously and purposefully developed towards deep leadership. On the other hand, each new task or new trainees are always a challenge to the military leader and the challenge should be responded to in a self-directing manner, taking into consideration the goals of activity and situational factors. The military leader's physical area of operations with its field of tasks may remain the same even for long periods of time.

If the individual motivation for service is connected only to duty rotation and career development, the result will not be good for the individual nor the organization.

The service motivation of a military leader should be based on life-long learning and leadership. Especially in instructor duties, a new intake of conscripts always represents a new challenge and it also offers a natural opportunity for the development of one's own leadership behavior from a "clean table". This is one of the special characteristics that a peace time military organization has, compared to times of war or a civilian organization. Development-wise, this special characteristic is also an advantage, because in leadership training programs carried out as follow-up studies it has been noted that people usually change very slowly their set conceptions and images of other people.

5.4 To the military leader



Photograph 20. The legacy of veterans in the words of Alpo Reinikainen:

"War comes to mind and so it must, because otherwise its precious teachings would be wasted." (SA photo)

We are morally bound by the legacy of our veterans and society's faith in the strength of our calling. Judicially we are bound by the existing laws, statutes and regulations. By our honor, we are bound by the soldiers' oath (pledge):

"... If I am placed in a position of superiority, I want to be fair towards my subordinates, look after their well-being, acquire information as to their wishes, act as their advisor and supervisor and for my own part attempt

to be a good and encouraging example. All this I want to fulfill by my honor and conscience."

The development of leadership behavior is growth into a superior described in the soldiers' oath. It is a life-long process in which perfection is impossible to achieve. Mistakes and human deficiencies are features shared by the superior and his subordinate. These things are joined together by one word: learning. Learning is an attitude, a skill and a process. It is both a road and the goal at the end of it. The motto of the military leader could be: *"I am genuinely proud of what I am now. But I am even prouder of the fact that I can still learn new things".*

CHAPTER 5 REFERENCES

1) Act on the Defence Forces (1974) and the Statute on the Defence Forces (1994) clearly define attitude education as one of the tasks of the Defence Forces: "[Among] the functions of the Defence Forces [is to] support voluntary defence training as prescribed by law or as ordered by the Ministry of Defence or, according to the matter, the decision of the Defence Staff, and otherwise increase the will to defend the country and encourage activities to improve the physical condition of citizens". (Act on the Defence Forces, 2§, 5a)

2) Value education as such is a controversial issue. If it is possible to agree on the central values of education, "teaching" those values is perhaps an even more challenging process. Military Review (1999) aptly quotes one of the pioneers of value education. On the basis of his research, Jacobs (1957) writes: "*..The values of students do not change as a result of a formal teaching event or even a good curriculum. Values can change only when the learning atmosphere, encouraging and exemplary teachers and students' own value-based experiences combine to support intellectual development. Even the so-called "difficult cases" can be reached by this type of teaching if the teacher has enough patience to support and encourage the student's self-confidence to think and and draw conclusions independently.*"

3) A third educational film is in the works in the year 2000 to be used as support for the leadership training program. The working title of the film is "Veteraanien Viesti" (The Message of Veterans) and its purpose is to integrate in an illustrative manner the war experiences of veterans into today's training.

4) As the questionnaire states, spaces 2-10 of the general answer form are reserved for the personal identifiers of the leaders. In a company this means that all leaders are listed on the same list (2A = Corporal Aaltonen, 2B = Lieutenant Björkvist, 2C = Officer Cadet Dahl, etc.) The individual doing the evaluation looks up the identifier of the leader in question and blackens the appropriate box on the answer form. *The RDA system is being developed so that it will be easier to use it for deep leadership evaluations, and at the end of year 2001 a new version that produces, among other things, ready-made leadership profiles will be issued for use.*

5) Technically the functionality and "handiness" of the feedback system is based on the optical reading of the general answer forms and the use of the RDA system in the analysis of results. For the user the RDA system is very simple and , one hour will be sufficient to train people to use the system if the company has someone ready to provide support should any difficulties arise. At the beginning of the leadership period it is useful to give all conscript leaders RDA training at the user level. With practice, the training takes approximately two hours.

6) In those contingents that have been able to carry out the new leadership training as planned, it has been noted that conscript leaders are able to handle their feedback in a natural manner with their subordinates.

7) Previously formed teams can also be used to unravel feedback, i.e. go over the feedback in a peer group. However, this requires the team to have a high degree of unity and trust.

8) The feedback discussion can be carried out by the company commander or the second in command as well.

9) The leadership evaluation carried out at a company at the end of military service is an important document to the individual going to the reserve, especially now when the appreciation of leadership training in its current form is clearly on the rise in both training and labor market policies. The structure of leadership evaluation is still under development so that the part dealing with leadership behavior is derived directly from the final feedback of the conscript leader, from the evaluation of all his subordinates.

10) In the beginning, routines are most of all about the internal order of a unit. The newsletter of the Defence Forces, Ruotuväki, 3/38 (2.2.2000) interviewed squad leaders on the execution of deep leadership in the company. A corporal who wanted to remain anonymous wanted to "keep his subordinates running, because the same thing had been done to him when he was a recruit... Nasty strength counts in the evenings and pedantic berth inspections are important in the training of a fighter." The routines and models being used in the company are the responsibility of the company commander. Training has to be tough, but justified as well. This is necessary for motivation and the development of positive attitudes.

11) In the leadership and instructor training package for military leaders military discipline has been dealt with through its external and internal basis. The functional discipline of the group is always more effective than the formal discipline that is based on dominance and fear. The demanding training tasks given to conscript leaders also change the conscript leaders' role from a "disciplinarian" to the direction of a real instructor and leader.

12) The National Defence College rule 696/5.2.3/D/II/4.9.1998 and the Post-graduate Division rule "Johtajana kehittymisen arviointi upseerin jatkotutkinnossa" (The evaluation of the development as a leader in officers' postgraduate degree) 1.11.1999.

13) Hersey & Blanchard & Johnson (1996): "Management of Organizational Behavior". In this edition the scientists have taken into account the new paradigm of leadership and on pages 519-541 they extensively deal with the theory of transformational leadership, attempting to combine these viewpoints.

14) At the basic training stage, the significance of the "platoon leader" who continuously follows, trains and instructs a platoon or a corresponding group of students is very important also from the viewpoint of feedback. As noted earlier in connection with value education, only instructors who are professional and act in an exemplary and encouraging manner should be chosen as platoon leaders.

15) The final evaluation of leadership behavior that was based on a comprehensive feedback system was first applied with the final evaluation of the infantry line of the 81. Cadet Course in April 1998. Instructions for the current evaluation system are given in the publication of the National Defence College's Department of Management and Leadership Studies "Johtamisopin opinnot kadettikurssilla" (Studies of Leadership Skills at the Cadet Course), 15.10.1999.

16) A versatile feedback system has been applied in recent years for example in cadets' command post exercises. Feedback from these exercises have been written down and filed in development portfolios kept in the National Defence College's Department of Management and Leadership Studies. According to cadets, a versatile feedback system is excellent learning-wise and the method that supports most the development of leadership behavior in exercises. This feedback has also been analyzed thoroughly in the book "Uuteen johtajakoulutukseen" (Towards a New Leadership Training).

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THE DEEP LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE AS THE PREMISE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

1. THE STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE¹

The questionnaire consists of 30 questions that measure:

- the potential and attributes of the leader
- leadership behavior
- the effects of leadership.

The potential and attributes of the leader measures:

- professional skills.

Leadership behavior measures the four cornerstones of deep leadership, which are:

- creation of trust and confidence
- inspirational motivation
- intellectual stimulation
- individualized consideration.

Furthermore, leadership behavior measures two other ways of leadership:

- controlling and corrective leadership and
- passive leadership.

Outcomes measure three entities:

- efficiency
- extra effort
- satisfaction.

The questions are answered on a five point scale, points are given on the scale of 0 to 4. An optically readable general answer form is used for answering, from which data is transferred directly to the RDA system. The RDA system has a ready-made questionnaire with the help of which it is easy to print the previously mentioned entities.

2. THE DIMENSIONS TO BE MEASURED

2.1 The potential and attributes of a leader

The attributes of a leader refer to those innate (inherited) and learned features of one's personality that have been noted to be connected to success as a leader. Potential is often evaluated and spoken of especially in everyday situations rather comprehensively as, say, charisma or talent in leadership. This is a kind of an overall evaluation of the basic requirements related to leadership.

Professional skills mean the theoretical and practical potential shown by the leader in his work. Professional skills are centrally connected to military leadership and it

¹ The questionnaire can be used without permission inside the Finnish Defence Forces and the Frontier Guard. Outside the Finnish Defence Forces, permission for the use of the questionnaire has to be requested from Vesa Niissinen (Copyright Act 404/61 and 897/80). Based on the agreement in the document PEKoul-os 141/5.7/D/I 4.6.1999.

creates a foundation for efficient training. However, professional skills alone do not guarantee good results, because the noted effects usually follow the level and direction of leadership behavior.

2.2 Leadership behavior

The dimensions of deep leadership described here have been simplified so that it is possible to draw conclusions on each leader's own surroundings and style of leadership. On the background it is still wise to remember that deep leadership cannot be a separate or formally learned style of leadership. Deep leadership works only when it or its cornerstones are a part of a natural and personal style of leadership. In that case the leader's personal human conception can be considered as the basis of everything (including development as a leader).

The deep leader's overall human conception is positive, constructive and emphasizes the willingness to grow. The typical thinking of the deep leader in relation to other people can be described with the following claims:

- a group is like its leader,
- people usually try to do their best, if they understand the goal of their activities,
- many individuals have skills and knowledge that I do not have,
- as human beings, we are all equal, and
- with his own coaching and encouragement, a leader can develop the professional skill and potential of his subordinates.

2.2.1 Building trust and confidence

The deep leader shows that he trusts his subordinates and offers a behavioral model to them. The leader is trusted, valued, respected and even admired. Subordinates often identify with this type of a leader. The leader can, when necessary, place the needs of his subordinates before his own. Risks are felt to be shared, because the leader can with his behavior create trust among the group he leads. Cohesion within the group increases. The ethical and moral foundation for leadership is strong. The leader uses his legitimate power rarely, and never to achieve benefits.

2.2.2 Inspirational motivation

The deep leader gets his subordinates to find new contents, features and challenges from their work. A positive outlook on the future and optimism strengthen the entire organization. The leader includes his subordinates in the visioning of both long and short term goals. The leader can clearly draw together the demands of each individual's work, and creates commitment through shared goals and visions. Emotional encouragement is a part of this kind of behavior, of which it is typical that the leader manages to surprise his subordinates with his enthusiasm and activity over and over again. The leader emphasizes the significance of shared responsibility, shared goals and common trying. The inspiring leader can also use humor in his leadership and he is creative in developing new ways to motivate his subordinates.

2.2.3 Intellectual stimulation

The deep leader supports the innovativeness and creativity of his subordinates by questioning the basic assumptions, by seeking new solutions to problems and new viewpoints to work. Creativity is encouraged. An individual is not publicly punished for his mistakes; instead, mistakes are seen as learning opportunities associated with the trying out of new things. Subordinates are asked for ideas and they are included in problem solving processes. Subordinates are allowed to try out new solutions and they are not expected to always agree with the leader. The leader shows his appreciation for the knowledge and experience of each individual and attempts to fully put into good use the skills of his subordinates.

2.2.4 Individualized consideration

The deep leader is a good listener. He notices each individual's needs to grow and develop, working as a coach of some sort. There is an attempt to productively use the capability potential of subordinates and colleagues. In an encouraging atmosphere opportunities for the learning of new things are offered. Individual needs are concretely taken notice of, and the leader wants to participate in the solving of his subordinates' problems whenever it is necessary. It is evident in the leader's behavior that he accepts individual differences between people and he acts accordingly. Feedback is two-way and the leader spends a lot of time with his subordinates. Interaction is individual - the leader remembers earlier discussions, knows his subordinates personally and treats them as individuals, not solely as employees or subordinates. The leader delegates assignments to develop his subordinates and supports them in the performance of tasks. The deep leader is known for continuously taking care of his own group.

2.2.5 Controlling and corrective leadership

The controlling leader shows to his subordinates with his behavior that he believes things to turn out right only when he is there to supervise and correct mistakes. Encouraging and positive feedback is often forgotten, but if mistakes are made, the leader always finds a culprit and punishes accordingly. The leader also attempts to do as many things himself as possible, because he does not trust his subordinates' ability and willingness to handle the most demanding tasks.

2.2.6 Passive leadership

The passive leader mainly works alone. He does not want to take a stand especially in problem situations and does so only when he is forced to. The passive leader does not interact with people and is not even available; instead, he avoids responsibility and runs from potential problem situations. In such a case, leadership often slips to the responsibility of the unofficial leader inside the organization. The passive leader relies on things getting sorted out on their own, just like they have done in the past. "Time will take care of it" is his favorite saying. The passive leader is a real obstacle on the road to development, because to his subordinates he is a practical and lasting example of resistance to change .

2.3 Outcomes

The effects of leadership refer to changes in the efficiency and productivity of activities and in the group members' ways of thinking that are perceivable from within the group as well as from the outside.

Efficiency manifests itself when set goals are achieved better than before or they are even surpassed. The most important factors that influence efficiency are the purposefulness of activities, the clarity of leadership and naturally subordinates' commitment to shared goals.

Satisfaction is mainly an emotion-based conception of how the leader has fared in his duties and how his way of leadership corresponds to the needs and expectations of other people.

Extra effort describes the level of permanent commitment the leader has managed to create among the members of his group. Commitment to tasks, goal and one's own group shows as an increase of "voluntary" work effort and the productivity of the work of the entire group.

3. USE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

The purpose of the questionnaire is thus to produce information on the leadership behavior of the person being evaluated. The evaluation can be done by:

- subordinates,
- peers,
- superior (superiors),
- the person being evaluated.

This is thus a method with which an individual can obtain from his own area of operations a "full" (360 degrees) feedback. To add to the interpretation, the averages of an appropriate peer group can be used, in which case the person being evaluated can compare his own level with the average level of his peers.

3.1 Subordinate evaluation

In actual leadership, instructor and superior positions the feedback from subordinates is the most important part of the overall feedback. Because the optical reading of forms is easy and quick, it is practical to obtain subordinate evaluation from the entire group working under the person being evaluated. When going up the organization levels, it is necessary to apply the principle according to which the main group of those giving subordinate feedback represent direct subordinates of the superior (for example a battalion commander is evaluated primarily by company commanders). The most important thing is that the person doing the evaluation really knows the person he is evaluating. The evaluation is carried out anonymously.

3.2 Peer evaluation

Peer evaluation is carried out in the work community at the same level as the person being evaluated works on. With certain limitations, peers can include cooperation partners outside the actual work community or from interest groups who have acquired adequate knowledge of the person being evaluated by working together with him. It is appropriate to carry out peer evaluation as extensively as possible, like subordinate evaluation. Peer evaluation is carried out anonymously.

3.3 Superior evaluation

Superior evaluation is carried out according to the current situation. Sometimes the person being evaluated may have more than one superior. All of them can do the evaluation (for example an officer cadet can be evaluated by several instructors and the company commander). In most cases there is only one superior. In superior evaluation the principle of anonymity is not realized, but on the other hand, the information produced by the deep leadership questionnaire is something that should be dealt with in discussions between a superior and his subordinate.

3.4 Self-evaluation

A self-evaluation as honest as possible gives a good basis for the interpretation of the actual feedback. When doing a self-evaluation one should not be concerned with the question of "what would I want to be?" but concentrate honestly on "this is what I am right now".

3.5 Evaluation results

Comparison results mean a sample of other people performing the same task, or more accurately an average of this sample. Comparison results, like self-evaluation, provide a foundation for the evaluation of one's own leadership and help to put it in perspective in relation to others.

4. OBSERVATIONS ON DIFFERENT SOURCES OF FEEDBACK

After obtaining the feedback produced by the deep leadership questionnaire, an individual must, when analyzing the results, keep in mind the following general observations on the feedback:

- Self-evaluation, especially with male leaders, is often too positive compared to the evaluations of others (this fact also justifies the reason why feedback is needed in the first place).
- The level of the subordinate evaluation is often the lowest. The level of feedback is always influenced by the number of respondents (for example in relation to individual consideration) and the quality of the superior-subordinate -re-

lationship (for example in recruit training it is impossible to strive for the same level of intellectual stimulation as when leading a group of experts).

- Peer evaluation is influenced also by the organization of tasks and responsibility in the work environment of the person being evaluated. It is normal that peers have expectations of the person being evaluated that have not surfaced in everyday work.
- A superior observes the person being evaluated from his perspective influenced by the carrying out of duties and overall productivity.

5. FOUNDATIONS FOR THE INTERPRETATION OF FEEDBACK OBTAINED

5.1 The interpretation of different dimensions

Based on the basic research on the deep leadership questionnaire (4 189 respondents, of whom 101 squad leaders, 87 members of regular personnel and 63 officer cadets have been evaluated), score levels have been defined and a leader can evaluate his own results in relation to these preliminary national results. The score levels presented in sub-appendices 1, 2 and 3 have been defined especially for the basis of the interpretation of feedback given by subordinates. In the scale the minimum of points is 0 and the maximum is 4.

Considering Finnish military leadership, the basic study has noted that the strongest dimension on the average is the creation of trust. The weakest dimension is intellectual stimulation.

In the future, it is possible to analyze the standard deviation of the responses. It reveals to the analyst how unanimous the respondents were in their evaluations. For the evaluation of the deviations the following basis can be given:

- | | |
|-------------|------------------|
| - below 0,5 | small deviation |
| - 0,5 - 1,0 | normal deviation |
| - over 1,0 | large deviation |

5.2 Interpretation of the leadership profile

The leadership profile refers to the relationship between the dimensions of behavior and professional skills and outcomes. **The leadership profile must always be interpreted in relation to the duties and leadership environment of the person under-evaluation.**

Of the dimensions of deep leadership, intellectual stimulation is the most closely connected to tasks. In the most typical leadership tasks it is not as important for the efficient activity of a group as other dimensions according to preliminary results. On the other hand, in environments where experts are led and existing systems are being developed, intellectual stimulation may become the most important dimension productivity-wise. Intellectual stimulation is perhaps most clearly connected with a

superior's conception of human beings: can your subordinates think, is it possible that they have ideas worth carrying out, can a good subordinate be critical?

6. DEVELOPMENT AS A LEADER

Study your own profile and its dimensions. Find your strengths and build your development on them. If you notice that in some dimensions you are placed below average or in the column "development need" in the chart included in the Appendix, you can begin analyzing your leadership through the following questions. The questions are related to leadership behavior and they are in accordance with the deep leadership model. Based on the questions you can think about how to develop these qualifications where there are needs for improvement

6.1 Building trust and confidence

- Can I trust my subordinates?
- Have I shown in practice that I trust my subordinates?
- Am I a good example to my subordinates?
- Have I emphasized the importance of mutual trust as the basic requirement of efficient activity?

6.2 Inspirational motivation

- Do I always make clear the long and short term goals of our activities?
- Do I give a positive image of the future to my subordinates?
- Can I manage to be enthusiastic about and interested in my work?
- Is my subordinates' division of labor clear?
- Do I devote my time to thinking about new ways in which to encourage and motivate my subordinates?

6.3 Intellectual stimulation

- Do I use feedback for development purposes?
- Do I know how to handle critique and learn from it?
- Can I get my subordinates to think and consider various issues?
- Do I want to develop things and use other people's help in doing so?
- Do I crush new ideas immediately or do I take them into consideration?

6.4 Individualized consideration

- Do I know how to listen to other people?
- Do I care about the needs of other people?

- Am I interested in the problems of others and do I try to help in solving them?
- Have I shown my respect for other people no matter is what their training or position?
- Do I support my own subordinates, do I take responsibility for them?

6.5 Controlling and corrective leadership

- Do I spend my time doing the most important things or do I only attempt to find mistakes in my subordinates' work?
- Do I see mistakes as opportunities to learn or do I punish for them without further thinking?
- Do I focus on the essential, do I see the central goal of activities, do I guide others towards that goal?
- Can I make decisions quickly if needed and take swift action no matter what the issue?
- Are my professional skills adequate for the control of the entity?
- Do I also give positive feedback?

6.6 Passive leadership

- Do my subordinates ever see me?
- Do I lead actively or do I only wait for the emergence of mistakes or problems?
- Do I try to handle things quickly or do I let time handle them?
- Am I interested in my work, am I enthusiastic about it?
- Do I know how to take responsibility for my own actions and that of my subordinates?

Developing as a leader and changing leadership behavior is difficult and persistent. However, it will reward you greatly if you succeed. Make a clear decision if you notice a clear need for development in yourself. Focus on one thing at a time, keep it on your mind every day and act according to what you have decided. Remember that it is difficult for people who already know you to change their opinion, so do not get discouraged if results do not appear immediately in feedback; it will take time. Be humble before your development needs. Everyone can develop as a deep leader, i.e. a good military leader, if that is what one really wants...

Appendix 1 annex 1 of the instructions for the interpretation of the deep leadership questionnaire

THE NATIONAL SCORE CATEGORIES OF BATTALION COMMANDERS AND ABOVE

DIMENSION	AREA OF STRENGTH	ABOVE AVERAGE	BELOW AVERAGE	AREA TO BE DEVELOPED
Professional skills	over 3.17	3.17 - 2.87	2.86 - 2.56	below 2.56
Building trust and confidence	over 3.30	3.30 - 3.01	3.00 - 2.71	below 2.71
Inspirational motivation	over 2.88	2.88 - 2.60	2.59 - 2.31	below 2.31
Intellectual stimulation	over 3.07	3.07 - 2.80	2.79 - 2.52	below 2.52
Individualized consideration	over 3.05	3.05 - 2.83	2.82 - 2.60	below 2.60
Controlling and corrective leadership	To be interpreted in relation to the dimensions of deep leadership Recommended level is between 0.8 - 1.5.			
Passive leadership	below 0.53	0.53 - 0.74	0.75 - 0.96	over 0.96
Efficiency	over 2.97	2.97 - 2.62	2.61 - 2.26	below 2.26
Satisfaction	over 3.02	3.02 - 2.75	2.74 - 2.47	below 2.47
Extra effort	over 2.67	2.67 - 2.36	2.35 - 2.04	below 2.04

Source:

A sample of 25 commanders and 115 respondents, collected in October 1999.

Appendix 1 annex 2 of the instructions for the interpretation of the deep leadership questionnaire

NATIONAL SCORE CATEGORIES FOR COMPANY COMMANDERS

DIMENSION	AREA OF STRENGTH	ABOVE AVERAGE	BELOW AVERAGE	AREA TO BE DEVELOPED
Professional skills	over 3.16	3.16 - 2.86	2.85 - 2.55	below 2.55
Building trust and confidence	over 3.16	3.16 - 2.87	2.86 - 2.57	below 2.57
Inspirational motivation	over 2.89	2.89 - 2.61	2.60 - 2.32	below 2.32
Intellectual stimulation	over 3.01	3.01 - 2.74	2.73 - 2.47	below 2.47
Individualized consideration	over 3.16	3.16 - 2.94	2.93 - 2.71	below 2.71
Controlling and corrective leadership	To be interpreted in relation to the dimensions of deep leadership Reommended level is between 0.9 - 1.6.			
Passive leadership	below 0.77	0.77 - 0.98	0.99 - 1.20	over 1.20
Efficiency	over 2.88	2.88 - 2.53	2.52 - 2.17	below 2.17
Satisfaction	over 3.03	3.03 - 2.76	2.75 - 2.48	below 2.48
Extra effort	over 2.61	2.61 - 2.30	2.29 - 1.98	below 1.98

Source:

A sample of 50 company commanders and 344 respondents, collected in January 2000.

Appendix 1 annex 3 of the instructions for the interpretation of the deep leadership questionnaire

NATIONAL SCORE CATEGORIES FOR REGULAR PERSONNEL

DIMENSION	AREA OF STRENGTH	ABOVE AVERAGE	BELOW AVERAGE	AREA TO BE DEVELOPED
Professional skills	over 3.44	3.44 - 3.14	3.13 - 2.83	below 2.83
Building trust and confidence	over 3.10	3.10 - 2.81	2.80 - 2.51	below 2.51
Inspirational motivation	over 3.00	3.00 - 2.72	2.72 - 2.44	below 2.44
Intellectual stimulation	over 2.70	2.70 - 2.43	2.42 - 2.15	below 2.15
Individualized consideration	over 2.80	2.80 - 2.58	2.57 - 2.35	below 2.35
Controlling and corrective leadership	To be interpreted in relation to the dimensions of deep leadership Recommended level is between 1.1 - 1.8.			
Passive leadership	below 0.70	0.70 - 0.91	0.91 - 1.12	over 1.2
Efficiency	over 3.00	3.00 - 2.65	2.64 - 2.29	below 2.29
Satisfaction	over 3.10	3.10 - 2.83	2.82 - 2.55	below 2.55
Extra effort	over 2.70	2.70 - 2.39	2.38 - 2.07	below 2.07

Source:

A sample of 80 instructors and 1 845 respondents, collected in March 1999. Units: Jaeger Brigade, Kainuu Brigade, Pori Brigade and Karelia Brigade.

Appendix 1 annex 4 of the instructions for the interpretation of the deep leadership questionnaire

NATIONAL SCORE CATEGORIES FOR OFFICER CADETS

DIMENSION	AREA OF STRENGTH	ABOVE AVERAGE	BELOW AVERAGE	AREA TO BE DEVELOPED
Professional skills	over 3.10	3.10 - 2.78	2.77 - 2.45	below 2.45
Building trust	over 2.90	2.90 - 2.60	2.59 - 2.30	below 2.30
Inspirational motivation	over 2.75	2.75 - 2.45	2.44 - 2.15	below 2.15
Intellectual stimulation	over 2.60	2.60 - 2.32	2.31 - 2.03	below 2.03
Individualized consideration	over 2.80	2.80 - 2.44	2.43 - 2.07	below 2.07
Controlling and corrective leadership	To be interpreted in relation to the dimensions of deep leadership Recommended level is between 1.2 - 1.9.			
Passive leadership	below 0.81	0.81 - 1.10	1.11 - 1.39	over 1.39
Efficiency	over 2.70	2.70 - 2.41	2.40 - 2.11	below 2.11
Satisfaction	over 3.00	3.00 - 2.66	2.65 - 2.31	below 2.31
Extra effort	over 2.45	2.45 - 2.18	2.17 - 1.90	below 1.90

Source:

A sample of 63 officer cadets and 1 260 respondents, collected in March 1999. Units: Jaeger Brigade, Kainuu Brigade, Pori Brigade, Karelia Brigade.

Appendix1 annex 5 of the instructions for the interpretation for the deep leadership questionnaire

NATIONAL POINT CATEGORIES FOR SQUAD LEADERS

DIMENSION	AREA OF STRENGTH	ABOVE AVERAGE	BELOW AVERAGE	AREA TO BE DEVELOPED
Professional skills	over 2.72	2.72 - 2.44	2.43 - 2.15	below 2.15
Building trust and confidence	over 2.58	2.58 - 2.29	2.28 - 2.00	below 2.00
Inspirational motivation	over 2.45	2.45 - 2.15	2.14 - 1.85	below 1.85
Intellectual stimulation	over 2.42	2.42 - 2.15	2.14 - 1.87	below 1.87
Individualized consideration	over 2.60	2.60 - 2.30	2.29 - 2.00	below 2.00
Controlling and corrective leadership	To be interpreted in relation to the dimensions of deep leadership Recommended level is between 1.3 - 2.0.			
Passive leadership	below 0.90	0.90 - 1.24	1.25 - 1.59	over 1.59
Efficiency	over 2.40	2.40 - 2.14	2.13 - 1.89	below 1.89
Satisfaction	over 2.70	2.70 - 2.42	2.41 - 2.13	below 2.13
Extra effort	over 2.20	2.20 - 1.94	1.93 - 1.57	below 1.57

Source:

A sample of 99 squad leaders and 1 004 respondents, collected in March 1999. Units: Jaeger Brigade, Kainuu Brigade, Pori Brigade and Karelia Brigade.

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