The Finnish Defence Forces

Leader's Handbook 2022

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Introduction

Dear reader, one is not born a leader; one grows to become one. Growing to become a leader is a process that takes the whole life time. Growing to become a leader and developing as a leader require knowledge of the principles of leadership and the importance of interaction. This development also requires practise in various kinds of leadership tasks. Self-knowledge and knowledge of the human character are important qualities for a leader to be able to apply leadership approaches required by different kinds of situations and operating environments. In can not develop oneself as a leader, if one is unable to receive feedback and assess one's conduct critically.

The purpose of the Leader's Handbook is to provide guidance for leading people and the working community in the Defence Forces and support the leadership training provided for persons liable for military service. The Handbook supports the development of military leaders' leadership skills and the leadership culture according to the changed requirements in the operating environment. The Leader's Handbook deepens the essence of leadership skills and performance capability from the leadership and leadership training perspective. The handbook discusses the components of leadership and interaction behaviour in the Defence Forces which are generally known also in the operational environment outside military

leadership. Owing to the nature of the Defence Forces' operating environment, this handbook focuses on leadership in peacetime and the special features of leadership in wartime.

The Leader's Handbook is aimed at all those serving in a military leader's position and getting trained for them. The handbook provides the basics for all the superiors working for the Defence Forces for leading people and the work community. Those serving in leadership or superior roles at different levels have to be able to apply the principles presented in this handbook according to the operating environment and situation. The central goal of the handbook is to provide support for teaching in conscripts' leadership and instructor training. The book is intended for teachers and students in military education establishments as well as brigade-level units' instructors and conscript leaders. The Leader's Handbook is a course book on the Non-Commissioned Officer and Reserve Officer Courses.

The Leader's Handbook is divided into four parts. **The first part of the handbook** introduces the reader to leadership as a phenomenon, which provides a basis for the other parts of the handbook. The first part discusses the evolution of the models and theories of leadership, the basics of military leadership and leading people, the leader's roles, responsibilities as well as the ethical principles of leadership.

The second part of the book discusses leading people according to the model of deep leadership. The second part delves into the framework of deep leadership, dimensions of leadership and interaction behaviour, effects of leadership, the importance of feedback and the personal development plan. This part encourages all those who have received the Defence Forces' leadership training to keep continuously growing and developing their leadership competence in the reserve.

The third part discusses the basics of wartime leadership and operating environment. This part of the handbook deals with the leadership process, leading and giving orders, communication and the qualities of a good combat leader based on war experiences and observations involving leadership in demanding crisis management operations. The part also discusses the most central components of a soldier's performance capability and provides tangible instructions for military leaders for developing, keeping up and restoring their personal and their unit's performance capability.

The fourth part goes into leading a working community, a working community as an operating environment, the role and responsibility of a superior, pedagogical leadership and supervisor and interaction coaching in the Defence Forces.

The Instructor's Handbook and the Leader's Handbook make up a whole with the handbooks complementing each other. This handbook repeals Leader's Handbook 2012.

1

Introduction to leadership

The first part of the handbook introduces phenomena related to leadership. It introduces the evolution of leadership philosophy in the light of central theories, models and trends. This information provides a background and foundation for the other parts of the book.

1 Management and leadership

Management can be seen as activity by means of which human resources and work contribution can be acquired, allocated and utilised efficiently for achieving a certain goal. The goal of management is to make people who are different from each other, in different positions and who contribute in different ways to work together for achieving common goals in the everyday life of their organization and working community. The purpose of management theories is to consider management from the perspective of the activities, tasks, purpose and scope involved.[1]

Management can be considered through a number of different perspectives. Examining management in its context places focus on the culture and operating environment in which the management takes place[2]. Management may also be regarded as a communal phenomenon and a task of serving people, because a leader enables conditions suitable for working and helps the people bring out the best of them[3]. Management is a phenomenon inherent in the everyday life of an organization, because common meanings are shaped and produced in the everyday life of the organization[4]. Against this background, you can say that leaders shape the reality by their own actions[5]. The Finnish management style developed until the 1950s based, on the one hand, on the lessons of scientific business management (Frederick Taylor, Taylorism) and on the other, on the principles of army leadership. In addition to these, Lutheran ethics has been considered to have affected the development of Finnish leadership[6].

Military leadership means leading in a military organization. In peacetime situations and tasks, a military leader encounters similar challenges as any other leader. In other organizations, the leader does not usually need to be prepared to meet the heaviest challenge of leadership, the ultimate responsibility for people and tasks during wartime. The ultimate efficiency of military leadership is measured in a combat situation which, regardless of technical advancement, includes many permanent features on the level of the individual human being. Leading people in combat has always been the most demanding of leadership situations. On the level of the Defence Forces, such challenges may be responded to by two interrelated areas, that is, leader selections and leadership training[7].

1.1 Evolution of management models and theories

Management practices have taken shape in the course of thousands of years through experienced tradition and stories, but for about a hundred years, scientific research on management has also influenced them. Management philosophy has been influenced i.a. by psychology, sociology, economics and research on history. What is meant by

"scientific" is that generalizations and concepts involving management have been formed based on studies, and they are widely recognized. However, research has not produced only one kind of truth about management and its efficiency, but there are different and sometimes also mutually conflicting doctrines In fact, understanding what essentially constitutes management and what the characteristics of good management or leadership are have changed over time.[8]

In 1962, philosopher of science Thomas Kuhn introduced the term paradigm for examining scientific evolution through scientific theories or achievements. By achievements he referred to generally accepted theories in a particular scientific field which serve as a basis for conducting research in that field at a given moment. For a theory to be defined as a paradigm, it has meet two criteria: 1. The theory has to be sufficiently unforeseen to gain supporters from rival forms of science. 2. At the same time, it should be sufficiently open for scientists to be able to seek answers to questions related to the paradigm. The basic assumptions of a prevailing paradigm are generally accepted by the scientific community and the research relying on the paradigm applies the same guidelines set by the paradigm.[9] In other words, a paradigm is a theory in a given scientific field the impacts of which have been so significant that through its results, fundamental notions and generally accepted procedures in that scientific field have been affected.

Thus, the term paradigm refers to a generally accepted system of thought and a way of thinking based on it regarded as the correct one. It is made up of a community's traditions, experiences, education and lessons learned, organizational culture and practical realities. A paradigm is about assumptions on what is observed, examined and what kind of questions are asked and in what way.[10]

"Management paradigm" refers to the central concept of management of its time. It is used to provide answers to management challenges at a given point in time. The ways paradigms work differ from one another, because they perceive the problems involving management in dissimilar ways.[11] The challenges arising from the problems have guided emphases related to management. Management paradigms have not disappeared as the next one has gained validity. Instead, they have slowly become rooted in different organizations[12]. This differs from the general notion of paradigm, because old management paradigms remain in use in parallel with new paradigms.[13] Management paradigms can be classified in several different ways, and they vary from normative to rational[14]. This means that the problem striven to be addressed has been seen either as abstract, normative or rational.

Management paradigms may be divided into scientific business management, the human relations movement, structural theories, cultural theories and innovation theories[15]. Several different theories and "isms" are related to management (quality management, strategic

management, human resources management etc.) which are generally regarded as belonging to one of the management paradigms[16]. Finnish organizations have adopted management paradigms from abroad. They were introduced in Finland around 10–20 years after they were developed. In Finland, focus has traditionally been on rational management paradigms[17].

According to scientific business management, or Taylorism, industrial problems can be solved by rational methods. In Finland, the principles of scientific

business management were at their strongest in the years 1940–1960. The purpose of scientific business management is to organize production and streamline rules and hierarchy between the employees and employer. Focus is on increasing efficiency because operations are growing and complex. In scientific business management, the tools used include external motivation (salary and incentives), streamlining work phases and division of labour.[18]

The human relations movement strived to address personnel-related problems (low motivation, calling in sick etc.) The objective of the human relations movement is to improve employee commitment, motivation and satisfaction. The employees are seen as social beings who need a sense of belonging and acceptance. In Finland, the impact of the human relations movement was at its strongest at the same time as scientific business management, in 1940–1960.[19]

Structural theory emerged as criticism towards the human relations movement. Structural theory emphasizes planning and it strives to address problems encountered by large organizations by restructurization. Structure theory scientists regarded that the procedures of the human relations movement were inefficient and expensive and that they could not address the problems of bureaucratic organizations which had grown larger than ever. In Finland, the structure theories had their strongest impact in the years 1960–1990.[20]

Organizational culture theory strived to address structural theory's problem by employee commitment, quality and flexibility. According to it, increasing employee commitment through organizational culture improves working efficiency and consequently, productivity. In fact, cultural theories emerged from a need to improve international organizations' competitiveness quickly. In Finland, cultural theory was at its strongest at the turn of the 21st century.[21]

Today, innovation theories are the prevalent doctrine related to management in organizations. It has gained a foothold in Finland as well. The Finnish State has spoken for innovation theories and supported the promotion of innovations in a tangible manner. Innovation theories strive to respond to the continuous need for renewal and bring

new or renewed products to rapidly changing markets. Employees are encouraged to be creative and use their potential. The effect of innovation theories started to be felt at their strongest starting from the beginning of the 21st century.[22] According to innovation theories, organizations' productivity improves through continuous renewal and employees are motivated by creative and challenging tasks.

1.2 Evolution of leadership theories

In the examination of management paradigms, focus is on the organization and its management. In leadership, individuals (leader and those under their leadership) are the focus, not the organization.

The evolution of leadership theories can be divided, i.a. Into personal traits based, behavioural¨, situational leadership theories, "the new leadership paradigm" or heroic and post-heroic leadership theories. What is true of management paradigms also applies to leadership theories; they have not disappeared, or become obsolete or false with the emergence of new theories.[23]

Trait-based theories focus on the leader's qualities. Leaders and subordinates are set apart based on various traits. Different traits include, among other things, hight, gender, physical appearance, ambition and so forth. One challenge of trait theories is that in research it is difficult to find universal traits essential to efficient leadership.[24] From the point of view of teaching leadership, the trait-based approach is challenging, because according to it, leadership is considered an ability or quality one is born with, so leadership can not be taught, because it is composed of personal traits.

Trait-based theories were followed by behavioural leadership theories. The consideration of a leader's characteristics and traits did not provide enough answers, so one moved on to examine their behaviour and its effects. During this period, a distinction was made between management (focused on facts) and leadership (focused on people). These approaches have been widely examined in literature and research on leadership. Research on behaviour has the same challenge as research on traits: finding universal explanatory factors is extremely challenging.[25]

Trait theories were followed by contingency or situational theories. They are focused on the effect of different situations and different kinds of people on leadership, the leader and leadership behaviour. The idea behind the theories is that different situations affect or they should affect the leader's behaviour. Thus, identifying different kinds of situations and adapting to them is central. The most famous contingency theorists are, perhaps, Hersey and Blanchard who developed a four-step model on how to operate with subordinates based on their level of experiences and competency. The most central difference compared

with the previous theories was that the contingency theory shifted focus from the leader to the subordinates, too, perceiving leadership as a situation-based event.[26] In practice, this also entailed that leadership was no longer perceived as a quality one was born with, of which great leaders were made. Based on contingency theories, leadership is a skill one can study and learn.

Leadership which also includes transformational leadership has been called "the new leadership paradigm".[27] From the perspective of the Finnish Defence Forces, this is a very significant trend, because the model of deep leadership bases on the principles of transformational leadership and the new leadership paradigm.[28] In these theories, one of the central factors involves transforming the employees' values to match the organization's values. The transformational approach works with different kinds visions and missions to

inspire and motivate the employees. Transformational leadership has been the prevailing leadership theory in the 21st century. It has provided some answers to what constitutes good leadership and interaction behaviour, and it has also brought forth the importance of employees' emotional reactions in leadership[29].

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2 Military Leadership

Leadership plays an important role in an organization's success. Leaders are required to have a range of competencies to help them and their organizations achieve their goals. Many of the challenges faced by leaders are the same regardless of organization. What is different is the mission of the organization and the kind of operating environment in which the organization operates or gets ready to operate.

Military leadership refers to leadership in a military organization. The ultimate purpose of a military organization is to operate in wartime and in the environment of wartime. This task is prepared for in peacetime. In peacetime, a military leader encounters the same challenges as any other leader, at the same time getting prepared to lead people and to achieve assigned tasks in wartime. The abilities and efficiency of a military leader are measured in battle and the operational environment of wartime.

A military leader is first and foremost a leader of people. Despite technological and technical advancement, the human dimension of leadership is present in all the operating environments of a military leader. The Defence Forces' leadership training has been built on the model of deep leadership from the late 1990s onwards. Deep leadership provides an excellent model of leadership conduct for those trained to be leaders. It includes a feedback system with the help of which leaders or leadership trainees can work on their leadership competence. It enables life-long development and teaches one to encounter the people under one's leadership in a way as efficient and effective as possible in the operating environments in which the military leader operates. As an organization, the Defence Forces meets the challenges set for military leadership by selecting and training its own leaders.[30]

The Defence Forces may be regarded as a pioneer of leadership training in Finland. Deep leadership has established itself in the Defence Forces and has also found its place in supervisor activities in the civilian society. Military leadership has long traditions and it is deeply rooted in the Finnish military culture and military history.[31]

The general principles of military leadership have not changed in the course of time[32]. What has changed or is changing are the operating environments in which these principles are applied. The framework of Finnish military leadership is built upon three entities. These include the leader's position, decision making and leadership behaviour.[33]

2.1 Defence Forces' four-field model of leadership

Leadership is quite an extensive abstract entity. Therefore, it is not possible to work it into just one leadership model applicable to all situations. Military leadership includes operating in the peacetime environment, the special features of operating in the wartime environment, and its requirements for leadership.[34] In the training provided by the Defence Forces, leadership is understood and modelled as a four-field entity which is a tool providing clarity for examining this wide phenomenon. The four-field model is mainly an approach, not an actual theory on leadership. The Defence Forces' four-field leadership model consists of the following areas:

- management
- leadership
- organizational structure
- Organizational culture.
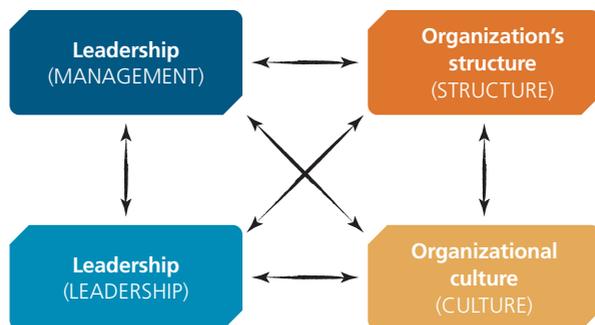
FIGURE 1. Four-field model of leadership and interdependencies.

Management refers to managing things, while leadership refers to leading people.[35]

The area of Management in the four-field model contains, by way of a process, different phases from generation of situation awareness through planning and decision making to implementation and evaluation of effects. The same phases can be identified in the peacetime and wartime leadership processes, even if the operating environment and the instruments of leadership are different.[36]

In practice, leadership something that takes place in interaction between people. In the Defence Forces operating environment, trust, respect, enthusiasm and learning are considered components of good leadership. Good leadership involves finding a balance between allowing

subordinates some freedom of action and controlling them depending on the situation and operating environment. The leadership behaviour aimed at is not too controlling nor passive.[37]

Organization structure conceptualizes and describes the system in which leadership takes place. It determines the chain of command, and the tasks of the persons and groups belonging to a unit. Organization structure also determines the matters falling under the authority of superiors, the chain of command and the formal structure of the organization. According to the organization structure theory, an appropriate group structure is a key success factor. Leadership can thus be made more efficient mainly by modifying structures.[38]

Organizational culture is a wide entity made up of the ways of doing things and behavioural models of the people working in the organization in different situations. Organizational culture is made up of the interaction between people belonging to a group and the transfer of experience and practices from older to new members of the organization. It is a social network made up by the members of a group the activities of which build a sense of togetherness and well being. One must remember that organizational culture may also weaken the achievement of results in case there are factors hampering security and team spirit, such as prejudices or petrified procedures.[39] Organizational culture tends to shape itself in the course of time around the requirements, values, and different traditions of the operating environment. Inside an organization's official operating culture, there tend to be different kinds of unofficial sub cultures the activities of which may also be in conflict with the official organizational culture.[40]

The areas in the Defence Forces four-field leadership model are interdependent. Management and organization structures which focus on planning and structure are closely interdependent. Leadership and organizational culture which are built upon interaction and its effects make up another pair. All four of the areas including their characteristics must be accounted for in all leadership situations. The leader must not base their behaviour on one of them only. The focus of leadership in the four-field leadership model varies according to the set goals, requirements of the operating environment and group of people led.[41]

A leadership performance may vary in scope and duration very much indeed. Nevertheless, all of the four areas in the four-field model can be identified in a leadership performance. A plan based on situational awareness is produced to carry out assigned tasks. Planning and execution take place in interaction with other people. Achievement of goals and assessment of results depend on the quality of both the plan and the interaction. The leader organizes the structure of their organization as appropriate from the point of view of the goal, and they have to understand the principles which guide cooperation between groups, motivation and commitment to the group and the goals set to it.

Being successful as a leader requires identifying and understanding the characteristics of the different areas. Other than this, the leader must understand how the different areas affect one another. Managing the whole requires a wide understanding of the leadership process, interaction, structure and placement of the unit led in the wider entity and the operating culture of the Defence Forces.[42]

2.2 Changing Operating Environment

The concept operating environment is a central notion in the military leadership framework.[43] The concept may be considered from the perspective of the organization or individual. In examining the concept of operating environment from the organization's perspective, the Defence Forces' operating environments may be derived and defined through the tasks assigned to the organisation. This means that the central operating environments on the level of the organisation come to include the
- wartime
- peacetime
- crisis management
- total defence operating environment.[44]

When examining operating environments from the individual's point of view, they can be defined according to their nature, which means that the operating environments of a military leader come to include
- open
- restricted
- minimal operating environments.[45]

As a rule, the operating environment in which the organization operates has its reflection on the individual as well. The peacetime operating environment is open in nature, whereas the wartime operating environment is minimal. This division is, however, a simplification. In peacetime, a military leader may have to operate in an operating environment minimal in nature while a wartime operating environment may include features of an open operating environment. A crisis management operating environment, depending on the operation and the phase it is at, may include features of an open, restricted or minimal operating environment from the individual's point of view.

Different kinds of operating environments set leadership their specific requirements. Some of these requirements, including legislation, level of technology and availability as well as publicity are objective. Some of these requirements may be subjective, such as threats posed to leadership activities by the operating environment. People experience things differently, so the leader has to be aware that other people around them do not necessarily interpret the operating environment in the same way they do.

This handbook approaches the concept of operating environment from an individual-oriented perspective in line with the leadership and instructor training programme. From this perspective, the term operating environment refers to the physical and psychological and cultural environment in which the leader operates and which they make observations of.[46] In other words, leadership takes places in an operating environment bound by time and place.[47] From the individual's point of view, the operating environment determines the foundation for the interaction between the leader and subordinate, and leadership behaviour. In each operating environment, the leader should find a balance between the three entities of the military leadership framework, namely the military leader's position, decision making and leadership behaviour. The optimal relationship of these concepts to each other depends on their operating environment the special features of these operating environments changing the balance between them. For example, decision making and ability to execute are decisive in the leadership of troops in combat, that is, in the minimal operating environment. Analogously, in the open operating environment of a unit in training in peacetime, leadership behaviour comes to the fore.[48]

> For assimilating new information, It is important for the trainee to feel that they are in an open operating environment.
> A restricted or minimal operating environment does not provide the best possible support for the learning of an individual.
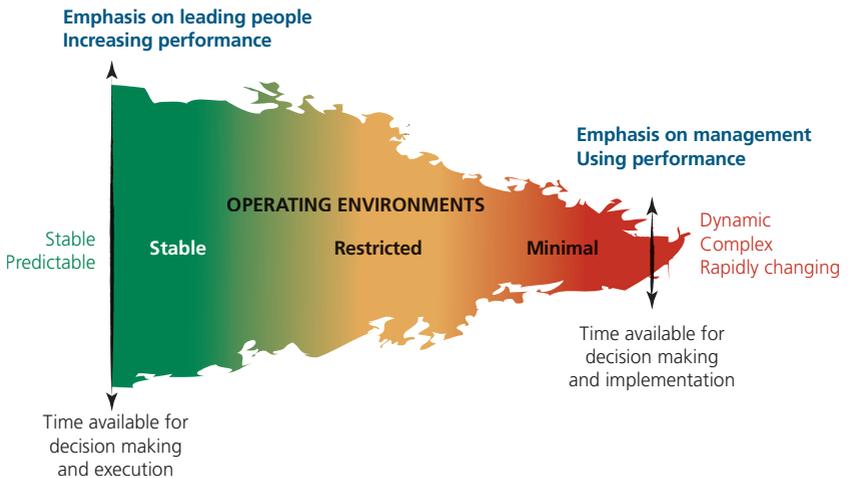
FIGURE 2. Military leader's operating environments.

There are always overlapping elements in operating environments. They include also changing and permanent factors. Therefore, different kinds of operating environments can not be delineated clearly. Instead, they are rather examined between two extremes, where moving from one operating environment to another is not clearly delineated.

A military leader has to act efficiently in all operating environments In order for leadership to be able to achieve the set goals, the operating environment and requirements posed by it must be interpreted correctly. One type of leadership does not work all the time. Instead, leadership must be the right kind with respect to the requirements set by the operating environment. From this point of view, the requirements set for leadership by the operating environment approach the contingency theory, or situational trend.[49] Change in the nature of the operating environment may be slow and gradual, but it may also be rapid.

Considering it from an operational point of view, in a military organization, leadership is a necessary phenomenon for achieving a given task. It can be defined as a creative process for fulfilling a human will. Creativity enables effective use of human resources in a military organization. Will is a core military power concept.[50]

Open operating environment

What is characteristic of the post-information revolution society is the change brought along by progress constant, accelerating and difficult to predict. Learning organizations and people are the best at coping with change. In an open operating environment, one is in contact with external change, and that is why a military leader gets faced with requirements set for leadership by the open operating environment. Let us mention transparency toward society as one example of the requirements mentioned. One's actions must stand public scrutiny however critical it may be, and one has to be able to justify them also to bodies external to one's own organization.

The characteristic features of an organization successful and apt to learn in an open operating environment include[51]
- creativity and innovation
- situational sensitivity and low hierarchical structures
- networks
- high level of individual freedom of operating
- flexible organizational structure
- routines.

In the peacetime operating environment, the Defence Forces prepares for its main task, military defence of Finland. The Defence Forces generates military situational awareness of its security environment, surveys and safeguards Finland's territorial integrity and maintains adequate readiness to ensure operational use of troops. In peacetime, supporting

other authorities, participating in receiving and providing international assistance, and participating in international military crisis management are also key elements of the Defence Forces' activities.[52]

An organization operating in an open operating environment must support its members' learning and personal development consistently. This kind of operating environment ensures that the needs of the organization's members to grow are met. Leadership culture becomes key in the open operating environment. Leadership culture should support the interaction behaviour based on the deep leadership model on all organizational levels.[53]

Restricted operating environment

From an individual's perspective, features of restricted operating environment include established organization structures and procedures, a strong organizational culture, high and hierarchy-based line-staff organization, restricted individual freedom to act, and cooperation towards the outside the organization. Traditionally military organizations create a restricted operating environment. Starting conscript service is one example of a situation where, from the individual's point of view, one moves from an open operating environment to a restricted one.

The leadership culture of a strongly restricted operating environment comes across as fact-oriented and controlling. In this operating environment, organizational culture is the most permanent structure. If the organizational culture is very influential, structural reforms do not necessarily lead to the desired outcome, if people's ways of thinking and the operating culture do not change.

The leader and their conduct have a great impact on how the subordinates view the operating environment. Features of restricted operating environment may locally occur in a learning organization operating in an open environment, if the leaders start to create culture corresponding to a restricted operating environment. On the other hand, in an organization characterized by being a restricted operating environment, there may be local communities with an open operating environment due to a leadership culture favouring learning and development.

A restricted operating environment has an impact on people's level of commitment and motivation. If individuals are deprived of freedom of action and any possibilities to influence without a justified reason, the needs of many of them in a hierarchy of needs may go down from needs involving growth to their lower level needs being met.

From the point of view of external competitiveness and personnel's commitment, aspiration towards an open operating environment is a challenge to be met by military organizations as well. Wartime requirements can and should be used to justify certain organizational structures, but this does not justify an inefficient leadership culture.[54]

Minimal operating environment

The most dominating features of a minimal operating environment include an intense mental and physical stress which may momentarily reach an individual's breaking point followed by combat stress reactions. The organization and individuals must be able to adapt to rapidly changing and complex situations. Troops in combat often operate in a minimal operating environment.

In the interaction between a leader and those under their leadership, management and decision making take a decisive role. The minimal operating environment hardly leaves the individual any freedom of action or choice. This leads to one's behaviour becoming marked by the need of physical survival and security. Responding to this need underscores a military organization's and military leader's actions.[55]

In a minimal operating environment, one of the factors contributing to the success of a military organization is group cohesion, which may also be called team spirit. Building cohesion starts as soon as a unit starts to be formed, for example in conscript training. To make this possible, the military leader has to understand the different dimensions of the cohesion of the group and the factors contributing to it and how the behaviour of individuals and groups affect it in different situations.[56]

In the minimal operating environment, the performance ability accrued in the open operating environment is used or consumed. Minimal operating environment does not, however, unambiguously mean combat or war. If the situation is felt to be stressful, complex, rapidly changing enough, or if there is little time available for decision making and execution, the individual may feel the operating environment is minimal.[57]

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3 Introduction to leading people

3.1 Leading people

Leading people does not take place in a vacuum. You are not born a leader nor is it a quality you are born with. Anyone can be chosen to be a superior, but turning from a superior to a leader takes determined, systematic and constant training and self-development by different means. Learning leadership and developing as a leader is hampered by the fact that generally, people imagine that they have natural leadership skills and think they are good leaders of people. Without feedback, however, one never notices this illusion in one's thinking. To grow to be a good leader of people, one has to be enthusiastic and willing to improve and reflect on everyday leadership and interaction situations by posing questions to oneself. Comprehensive feedback is important, because it identifies strengths and areas to be developed. Only then can one develop oneself as a leader instead of taking steps backwards.

Leading people, however, is not actions carried out by just one person; it always involves actions of several individuals. It takes working community skills which involve interaction and all those concerned being enthusiastic about the matter at hand. In reality, leadership is a process involving the superior, subordinate, situations and goals achieved. Interaction plays a central role in leading people – leadership takes shape little by little in interaction. It is joint, shared action between people doing something together. Leadership also involves the members of a working community sharing perspectives, goals and ideas. This makes leadership complicated, because it bases on relationships between people. This is why leadership comes across as different in different situations. One theoretically described way or style of leading does not work for all situations.

Speaking about leadership skills also involves, on the flip side, speaking about subordinates' skills, or more generally, working community skills. Focus is on coaching leadership, importance of feedback, psychological security, emotional intelligence skills and understanding the self-direction of the highly educated population. The leader's role as a coach and facilitator is underscored. Successful leadership does not depend on the superior being an introvert or extrovert, thinking or emotion oriented, concretely or intuitively thinking. Leaders' motivation, interaction skills, goals to be achieved, the social system of the community and matters involving the operating culture affect how successful their performance as leaders is.

Leading people involves the challenge of not knowing what the other person is thinking, unless one is able to have an open and honest conversation with them. Everyone wants to be treated well, feel that what they are doing matters and be appreciated by the people they are interacting with. Openness is one of the most central factors contributing to success in leadership and a measure for excellent interaction. Coupled with listening for essential cues, one is close to the main premise of successful leadership. When trying to understand where the other person is coming from, you must respect their experiences even if they differ from your own. If you want to become a good leader of people, you have to have the desire to help others to succeed. Ethically sustainable and good leadership of people requires a desire to develop one's skills, an open attitude to seek feedback on one's actions and a capacity to bear responsibility for one's decisions and actions.

3.2 Goal-oriented interaction

Leading people – leadership – is goal-oriented interaction between a leader and individuals under their leadership. To be precise, all communication between people is goal-oriented interaction for the purpose of reaching a direct or indirect goal. A direct goal may involve, for example, winning a battle by giving orders and instructions. The goal of indirect interaction behaviour may be, for example, lightening up the atmosphere or promoting a desired goal by influencing opinions or moods.[58]

Goal-oriented interaction is a prerequisite for a well-functioning community. The objective of a group is to be committed to common goals and to have open and development-oriented dialogue between the members of the group. Goal-oriented interaction is ingrained in all situations where the objective is to contribute to the growth, to guide or otherwise impact people's behaviour and actions.[59]

Goal-oriented interaction aims at having people experience success in interaction with others. Smooth interaction situations are characterized with different kinds of means of interaction such as asking questions, showing empathy, humour and nonverbal communication. Successful interaction captures the special features of a situation adapting to it guided by the atmosphere and feelings. Smooth interaction is also affected by the social environment and the ways of acting and communicating specific to the culture concerned.[60]

Goal-oriented interaction has been modelled on the basis of interaction cultures. The model is referred to as the Defence Forces goal-oriented interaction playing field. The playing field is a model divided into four parts in which both the quality of achieving goals and interacting are the variables. At the minus ends of the axes of the figure, hardly any interaction takes place at all and communicating goals is unclear and lacking. At the plus ends of the axes, open and constructive interaction characterize human encounters: the goals set for a group are commu-
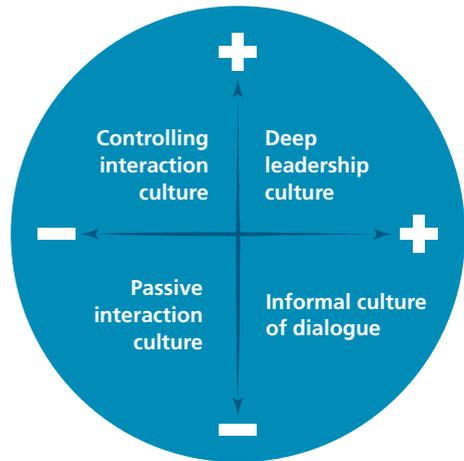
FIGURE 3. Playing field of goal-oriented interaction.[61, 62]

nicated clearly to all of its members.[63] Thus, the communication culture of the group is genuinely two-directional and development-oriented.

The interaction cultures in the different parts of the playing field have their specific characteristics. A controlling interaction culture is commanding in nature and the interaction is mainly one-directional from the leader to the subordinates. There is little or no communication involving goals and procedures. In a passive interaction culture, leaders can not be reached and no-one has clear information about the goals of activities. In this kind of operating environment people may wish to avoid meeting and communicating with others. An informal communication culture describes an operating environment in which the members of a group are in active interaction with one another, but the goals of the activities remain unclear to them. Interaction is characterized with circulating rumours and guessing and comparing various options. A community having this type of interaction culture is characterized with its members enjoying working together, but it does not really manage to get its set goals achieved. A deep leadership culture approaches the ideal state of the goal-oriented interaction culture. Interaction in this group is active, two-directional and goal driven.[64]

From the point of view of goal-oriented interaction, successful leadership activity bases clearly and unambiguously on communicated result objectives and an open, respectful and trust building interaction culture. A group that operates by the principles of deep leadership culture is capable of developing its activities by regular feedback and its analysis. Goal-oriented interaction is based on the cornerstones of deep leadership, namely enthusiasm, trust, learning and respect.[65] To be successful in developing its activities by means of feedback, a

group's feedback culture must be open, uniform and accepted by its members. The members of the group understand the importance of feedback for performing better as individuals and as a unit and are able to apply various types of feedback procedures among themselves. The culture of goal-oriented interaction is based on good communication, leadership and feedback provision practises, so that all members of the group know what is expected of them and what kind of behaviour can be realistically expected of others. Smooth cooperation is thus based on procedures consciously agreed and built together.[66]

In a good dialogue-based culture aiming at goal-oriented interaction the parties actively focus on what others are saying, letting them finish without interrupting. People are interested in each group member's views and want to understand where they come from. When it comes to matters that can be understood in more ways than one or are ambiguously communicated, the listener may repeat the message in their own words and say how they understood the message. If necessary, they may ask for specifications to make sure they understood it correctly. Goal and purpose-based interaction is emphatic and shows appreciation of others. In parallel with verbal communication, non-verbal communication encourages the speaker and shows approval and respect.[67] A group that bases its interaction on these operating principles is capable of achieving the set goals efficiently and constantly developing its procedure.

3.3 Superior's responsibility

A requirement stating that all public authority shall be based on law is laid down in the Finnish Constitution This means that anyone in a position of authority is responsible for their actions and deeds. This entry constitutes a so-called principle of legality of the exercise of public powers which means that in all public activity, the law and decrees shall be strictly observed.[68]

The matters handled in the Defence Forces have traditionally been divided into military command matters and administrative matters. In the Defence Forces, the direction and execution of military activities are effectuated by military commands and direction of administration in accordance with law (Act on the Defence Forces, Administrative Procedure Act). Leadership conducted on the basis of military commands is seen in practice mainly in military training events and exercises in peacetime, and in the commanding of wartime military units' operational activities. Military activities are executed by military commands in accordance with legislation in force[69]. Superiors' responsibilities and obligations involving wartime are also included in the Laws of Armed Conflict.

> **Leader's responsibility during war: commander or superior is personally responsible**[70]
>
> - for the war crimes personally perpetrated by them
> - for the violations of the rules of armed conflict that they order their subordinates (under their command) to carry out
> - for failing to take measures vis-à-vis the violations of the rules of armed conflict that have been brought to their attention, or of which they should be knowledgeable or aware in order to punish the parties guilty of them
> - for actions against the rules of armed conflict to which they outright incite others
> - for crimes perpetrated by their troops if the leader neglects overseeing their activities
> - for crimes perpetrated by their subordinates if the leader let them happen or approves of them
> - for crimes perpetrated by their subordinates in case they are carried out based on commands conveyed by them which are clearly illegal

In peace time, superiors' leadership and responsibilities are based mainly on administrative orders and regulations (Administrative Procedure Act)[71]. Provisions guiding superiors' responsibilities and obligations in peace time are also included in other acts (i.a. Occupational Safety and Health Act, Working Time Act) and norms and regulations guiding administrative activities. The concepts of military command matter and administrative matter are not comprehensively and unambiguously defined in legislation. This is why it is difficult to distinguish precisely between military command matters coming under the competence of the Supreme Commander and administrative matters regarding the Defence Forces.

According to the definition of the scope of application of the Administrative Procedure Act (434/2003), the Administrative Procedure Act is not applicable to military commands. The Ombudsman has defined, however, that the general principles of the Administrative Procedure Act must be abided by also in situations in which military commands are issued and in the drawing up of military commands as applicable. The majority of the activities carried out in the Defence Forces in peacetime involve, in one way or another, exercising public administration authority, that is, carrying out everyday de facto administration activity, which may also include administrative decision making.

When it comes to handling superiors' responsibilities and obligations, it is important to distinguish between leadership based on military command matters and administrative leadership. As far as superior responsibility and leadership are concerned, the peacetime leadership environment is divided into mastering both the military and administrative operating environment and competency.

The superior

- answers for the actions of their unit and subordinates according to set goals and tasks
- is responsible for giving constructive and encouraging feedback to those under their leadership in work and activities
- answers for the appropriate use, maintenance and keeping / storage of designated materiel, equipment, facilities and areas in an appropriate and instructed manner.
- answers for maintaining discipline and military order, and promotes compliance with them in every way
- monitors compliance with regulations and instructions
- monitors the realization of subordinates' rights and that they meet their responsibilities
- oversees that no harassment or inappropriate treatment takes place in the work or service community led by them and takes immediate measures to investigate and resolve any instances of such behaviour
- ensures that the treatment of the personnel led by them
- is fair and equal
- takes care of employees' occupational and in-service safety and health and prevents harm
- meets the occupational protection obligation, which means that the superior ensures that the work load is not too heavy for the employees' health (physical and psychological)
- ensures that the work and service environment is safe and healthy
- ensures their subordinates' well-being at work
- promotes cooperation and interaction at the work and service place
- fosters a good working atmosphere, employees' performance and professional development.

The Defence Forces General Service Regulation provides specifications regarding military superiors' legal position of power, responsibility involved and principles of its implementation in military leadership in particular[72].

In their activities, leaders and superiors must identify and acknowledge their responsibility in their activities for having the people under their leadership led and treated appropriately. The law protects subordinates against their superiors' misconduct, unfair treatment, verbal abuse and unfounded accusations. In their leadership activities, superiors acknowledge that everyone of their subordinates has the right to treatment that is appropriate, fair and dignified according to law and good manners. Superiors must be fair to their subordinates and treat them equally. The leader must look after their well-being, find out what their wishes are, advise and guide them and serve as a good and inspiring example for them. Those who have performed their tasks particularly well are thanked and may receive an award.[73]

Superiors must maintain discipline and military order with determination and promote compliance with them in every way. If there is a breach of discipline or efforts to try to breach or waver it, they must take the necessary measures. Separate provisions are laid down on disciplinary superiors and their competency.[74] Only a disciplinary superior who is a member of the salaried personnel and named in the Act on Military Discipline and Crime Prevention in the Finnish Defence Forces (255/2014) may use disciplinary authority.

Superiors must gain their subordinates' respect and trust. They must oversee their rights and well being, acknowledge the work done and keep up service motivation by encouragement and guidance.[75] A superior must take immediate action if a subordinate commits a breach or neglect. Reprimanding a subordinate should be done in a correct and decent manner, without disrespecting their position, human dignity and honour. Reprimanding should normally not be done in the presence of others.[76]

Expectations regarding the impartiality of persons in public administrative positions is a matter constantly brought to the fore. In their activities, authorities and those in public positions are increasingly expected to demonstrate openness, trustworthiness and credibility. From the perspective of achieving administrative objectives, it is important for the citizens to be able to trust the impartiality and appropriateness of administrative procedures. From the perspective of an outsider, handling a matter should come across as impartial. According to Section 6 of the Administrative Procedure Act, the acts of an authority shall be impartial[77]. The provision draws from the requirement of legality and independence which has been an established focus in the activities of public administration.

Impartiality presupposes that authorities and administrative personnel implement the concept of public interest formed in legislation without letting external influences or personal interests affect their activities. Administrative decision making must be based on an act that must be strictly observed in administrative activities (Section 2.3 of the Constitution of Finland)[78], and administrative activities must be independent of influences external to it.

Abuse of one's position as a superior and employing procedures that go against regulations in force and good manners and violate the principles of equality and non-discrimination are prohibited.[79] Superiors must know the limits of their authority when it comes to using power. A public official is disqualified (Administrative Procedure Act, Section 27) if confidence in their impartiality is compromised[80]. In such a case they shall not participate in the consideration of a matter or decision making involving it. A superior is shall not use their position as a superior or authority to experience personal financial gain. They shall not ask for or receive a present, loan or guarantee for a loan of a person liable for military service in service in the Defence Forces or anyone else whose direct superior they are.[81]

Superiors are guilty of abusing their position if they abuse their military authority to such an end that it causes suffering to someone under their command, or that it endangers someone's health in a way that is not necessary for the purposes of military service, or have treated someone degradingly, or as superiors with disciplinary authority, have punished or reprimanded someone that they know to be innocent. Superiors are guilty abusing their position, if they order a subordinate to do work that is not part of the service or training.[82] When obligated to take action involving a breach or incident committed by a subordinate, the superior must take measures required by the situation and matter that can be regarded as serving a purpose.[83]

3.4 Leader's responsibility promoting equality and non-discrimination

The Defence Forces values include fairness which means the equal treatment of conscripts, reservists and regular personnel without discrimination, harassment or bullying. Another important value is cooperation which manifests itself through doing things together, encouraging others, supporting and helping others and through appreciation of one's own work community and cooperation partners. Leaders and superiors are responsible for promoting equal treatment of every member of the working community. Fairness and equality require both proactive and reactive measures to become a reality. The most important proactive measure is working toward a good working atmosphere. The objective is to achieve an internally well-functioning working community where equality reigns among the personnel. Good leadership supports the well-being of the organization's employees and its success.

The Defence Forces has a goal of providing all those employed by the organization, performing their conscript service and reservists with safe and equal procedures and working conditions.

Equality and non-discrimination are promoted by equality and non-discrimination plans and measures included in them. By means of methodical procedures practices are established intended for ensuring the realization of equality and non-discrimination.

The Finnish Defence Forces is responsible for advancing equality and non-discrimination. Each and everyone of us still remains responsible for one's behaviour and respect of others. It is up to everyone to make sure that no-one gets treated inappropriately or placed in an unequal position vis-à-vis other people without justification. Everyone is always responsible for not behaving or inciting others to behave in a discriminatory or degrading manner. A service culture based on equality and non-discrimination benefits the organization and the individuals working for it. Observing equality and non-discrimination has a posi-

tive impact on the working atmosphere, service conditions, team spirit, motivation and comfort, for instance. Inappropriate behaviour has a big, negative impact on the learning of the individual targeted and the forming of team spirit.

An equal service culture where discrimination does not take place can only come about if any negative phenomena, such as bullying, sexual harassment, inappropriate use of language or other types of inappropriate behaviour and discrimination are prevented. Any kind of inappropriate behaviour is absolutely unacceptable, and if you see it, take immediate measures. A bully may be a superior or peer, or a subordinate. Bullying may occur as calling names, ridiculing, making fun of someone, excluding them from other people's activities, or some other kind of activity aimed at harming someone or hurting their feelings. Anyone in a position of authority should realize that the person being bullied is often defenceless against the bully or bullies. The status of superiority creates in itself an imbalance of power. However, efforts to resolve problems, critical, appropriate feedback and legal measures taken vis-à-vis a person do not constitute bullying.

Sexual harrassment is defined as unwanted and one-sided attention directed to an individual's gender which is repulsive to the target and evokes negative feelings. Sexual attention or, for example, flirt becomes harassment if the target experiences it as offending or repulsive. For example, harassment may manifest itself as unpleasant remarks involving someone's looks or sexuality, obscenities, images or other materiel felt to be offending, inappropriate messages or phone calls and passes.

Hazing refers to abuse of power by a superior aimed at knowingly or deliberately causing a subordinate psychological or bodily suffering that is not necessitated by the training or service. According to Section 45 of Chapter 16 of the Criminal Code, a superior is guilty of abusing their superior position

If they abuse their military authority to cause a subordinate such suffering or such a health hazard that is unnecessary for the service, or treat a subordinate in a humiliating manner. Ordering a subordinate to perform work that is not part of the service or training also constitutes abuse of superior position. Demanding or physically strenuous military training that aims to systematically develop the individual's and unit's capabilities does not constitute hazing.

Bullying, harassment and hazing can also be defined as discrimination. Discrimination takes place when a person or a group of people are placed in a less favourable position vis-à-vis the others for a reason that should not impact their treatment. Such reasons include, among others, ethnic background, language, religious persuasion, opinions, sexual orientation, gender, age or some other reason involving the person.

Discrimination may also manifest itself as the creation of hostile atmosphere or adherence to seemingly neutral regulations, justifications, practices or traditions when such activity places an individual or individuals in an unfavourable position vis-à-vis the others.

In the prevention of discrimination and inappropriate behaviour, the training of superiors and leaders, and activities of superiors constitute a central entity. In supervisor work this means that all individuals are accepted as they are, treating everybody fairly and decently. Leaders always set a good example for the people under their leadership. That is why it actually matters how they conduct themselves, how they deal with their subordinates and any conflicts there might be in the unit, and how they understand the importance of demanding, but fair training and treatment. Leaders must understand the negative impact of discrimination and inappropriate behaviour on the performance and group cohesion of their own unit. Leaders are responsible for the performance of their unit and will do their utmost to create an equal and safe operating environment where there is no place for discrimination.

Different kinds of shared events where characteristics of inappropriate behaviour are discussed and preventative rules of action are established lay a good foundation for preventing inappropriate behaviour. The subordinates must be explained what their rights and obligations are while reminding them that everybody should conduct themselves as required by their position and duties in any situation. The Defence Forces appreciates good manners and principles of respecting others.

The superior guides the personnel actively to open and interactive activity, which is bound to help create a favourable atmosphere and solidify group cohesion. The superior should set up standard practices for being able to monitor the prevailing atmosphere and respond to situations quickly. Such practices include, for instance, collection of feedback on leadership and the atmosphere, discussing the atmosphere at feedback events and having personal discussions with subordinates and own superiors.

Leadership training lays a foundation for leading people. The cornerstones of deep leadership, namely trust, enthusiasm, learning and respect are important tools of leading people, preventing inappropriate behaviour and identifying uneasiness. Training events included in the Soldier's Mind personal performance programme can be leveraged for preventing inappropriate conduct. At the very beginning of conscript service, by focusing on how well conscripts start to adapt to service and how team spirit starts to be formed, the right kind of foundation can be laid for the whole service time and forming their wartime unit. Leadership training focuses on the importance of correct behaviour by the personnel and conscript leaders and intervening in instances of inappropriate behaviour. At the same time, the trainees are also taught to understand how important it is for the building of the capability of

wartime troops. Conscript leaders keep an eye on how group cohesion is getting on and hold regular group discussions in which members of a group can tell how they are adapting to military life and comment on the atmosphere.

In case any instances of inappropriate behaviour come to the superior's attention, it is their obligation to take immediate action. Cases of inappropriate behaviour should be handled with discretion hearing all parties involved. The objective is not to find the culprit, but to work through the situation to find a resolution. After going through what happened, the matter must be discussed with all parties involved. Based on these discussions, it would be a good idea to draw up, for instance, a mutual understanding record or agree on measures for ending inappropriate behaviour. In addition, an agreement should be made on how to ensure the implementation of the measures. If it is a serious case, an investigation is carried out.

> Superiors must ensure that subordinates feel free to bring observations and information concerning issues to their attention without the fear of consequences and that the person who brought up the issue or participated in clearing up the matter, will not face action.
>
> Subordinates must also be allowed to contact a legal officer, military chaplain, social welfare officer or health care personnel directly for handling the matter and taking it forward.

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4 Values and ethical foundation of leadership

4.1 Defence Forces' values

The objective of the Defence Forces is to direct its personnel based on the FDF's common values. A leader must understand the importance of these values in several different ways from the perspective of efficient and effective, equal activity that pays regard to individuals. The leader must underscore the importance of acknowledging the existence and impact of the values, because when a subordinate's personal growth and goals align with the organization's objectives, this will result in the strengthening of the people's well being, motivation, results and, consequently, the capability of the whole organization[84]. A soldier's basic training culminates in the first and most important requirement asked of every conscript: personal commitment to the Defence Forces' values and defending them. The military oath or affirmation is the expression of this commitment. When it comes to this key promise involving the will to defend the country, the leader can support the subordinates under their leadership by being open and encouraging them to discuss how they personally understand the promise based on their situation in life and background.

It is the duty of the leader or superior to acknowledge not only their subordinates' values, but also their own and the whole organization's values. From the leadership perspective, it is important to observe how these three relate to each other and how they impact the leader's actions. In a system based on conscription, individuals have an equal right to express their values in different ways, and sometimes an individual's values may be in conflict with those of the organization. Leaders must have adequate justifications to tell their subordinates why the organization has defined certain values as a priority and worth pursuing. In peacetime, value conflicts impact how individuals are led and how efficiently units carry out the tasks assigned to them. In wartime, due to shared values, purpose can be found for actions required by a situation, which may be decisive for an individual soldier's performance ability. The Defence Forces supports this process for example by the Soldier's Mind training programme and by supervisor and interaction coaching.

The Defence Forces' Personnel Strategy[85] defines the Defence Forces common values as follows:

Military oath and affirmation events give a concrete expression
- for **patriotism**. They are built on the respect of the work and sacrifices of the past generations while calling for a strong personal commitment in the present moment. This personal commitment is a requirement for operating in wartime in particular and the most central factor in building and maintaining the will to defend our country. For a military unit it also signifies upholding traditions and, if necessary, giving them new verbal expression, so they will be better understood in the present.

- **Professionalism** is a kind of working ethic and professional pride. From a leader's perspective, professionalism is action by a subordinate that provides results. It also entails developing autonomously the competence required for a task. It is the leader's duty to support subordinates' professional competence by providing them with training and tasks which offer a sufficient level of challenge.
- **Justice** comes from appreciating the subordinates, which shows as the equal treatment of the personnel in which no-one is discriminated against. Justice is one of the most central elements in today's effective leadership. In a military community in particular, justice is underlined in the rewarding of subordinates: leaders convey to their unit what values and choices are appreciated and supported in one's organization.
- **Responsibility** is willingness to carry out the tasks assigned, so that the goals set for the unit get achieved. The example set by the leader counts the most for instilling the essence of this value in the subordinates.
- **Reliability** manifests itself as the carrying out of things according to commands, regulations and instructions. Trust between the superior and subordinate and carrying out of assigned tasks consistently in any situation also contribute to reliability.
- **Cooperation** is a basic requirement for achieving demanding tasks on all levels of activities. In the relationship between the leader and the subordinate, cooperation means that who is right does not matter; for carrying out a task, the only thing that matters is the best result achievable. Cooperation equals initiative, willingness to do things together, it manifests itself as willingness to support and help others, and appreciation of colleagues and cooperation partners.

What do the above values mean to you?

When making a decision, a leader has to consider its moral justification. Leaders can make morally justified decisions provided that they know their own values and acknowledge the binding nature of the values of the community and society. The Defence Forces is a part of a diverse society, and in its activities, it has to interact with the values of this society. But working in a military community also requires identifying and approving its special features. Many of these special features stem from experiences and lessons learned from history. They should be respected as are respected the values of Western democracy prevailing in the Finnish society.

KARJALAN PRIKAATI

SOTILASVALA JA -VAKUUTUS

Minä N N lupaan ja vakuutan

Valassa: kaikkivaltiaan ja kaikkitietävän Jumalan edessä,
Vakuutuksessa: kunniani ja omantuntoni kautta,

olevani Suomen valtakunnan luotettava ja uskollinen kansalainen.
Tahdon palvella maatani rehellisesti sekä parhaan kykyni mukaan
etsiä ja edistää sen hyötyä ja parasta.

Minä tahdon kaikkialla ja kaikissa tilanteissa, rauhan ja sodan aikana, puolustaa
isänmaani koskemattomuutta, sen laillista valtiojärjestystä sekä valtakunnan laillista
esivaltaa. Jos havaitsen tai saan tietää jotakin olevan tekeillä laillisen esivallan
kukistamiseksi tai maan valtiojärjestyksen kumoamiseksi, tahdon sen viipymättä
viranomaisille ilmoittaa.

Joukkoa, johon kuulun sekä paikkaani siinä, en jätä missään tilanteessa, vaan niin
kauan kuin minussa voimia on, suoritan saamani tehtävän loppuun.

Lupaan käyttäytyä kunnollisesti ja ryhdikkäästi, totella esimiehiäni, noudattaa lakeja
ja asetuksia sekä säilyttää minulle uskotut palvelussalaisuudet. Tahdon olla suora ja
auttavainen myös palvelustovereitani kohtaan. Milloinkaan en sukulaisuuden,
ystävyyden, kateuden, vihan tai pelon vuoksi enkä myöskään lahjojen tai muun syyn
tähden toimi vastoin palvelusvelvollisuuttani.

Jos minut asetetaan esimiesasemaan, tahdon olla alaisiani kohtaan oikeudenmukainen,
pitää huolta heidän hyvinvoinnistaan, hankkia tietoa heidän toiveistaan, olla heidän
neuvonantajanaan ja ohjaajanaan sekä omasta puolestani pyrkiä olemaan heille hyvänä
ja kannustavana esimerkkinä.

Kaiken tämän minä tahdon kunniani ja omantuntoni mukaan täyttää.

FIGURE 4. Military oath and affirmation.

The Defence Forces' values are a mixture of traditions and modern society.[86] The values of the defence administration are based on justice, honesty and tolerance. Leaders and superiors are also required to serve as examples, embody trustworthiness and oversee that their subordinates are treated correctly. In addition, responsibility in all respects and principles of equal treatment are also underscored.

The personnel's values are weighed every day as they go about their routine work, make decisions and work out solutions. Consideration of values in the working community and examination of rules set together provide support for the personnel as they endeavour to reach ethically sustainable, responsible and just decisions and solutions. The Services, branches and brigade-level units may have laid down specified values describing their activities.

The Defence Forces leaders' values are written down in the military oath and military affirmation. The military oath and affirmation and their contents have even been seen as the Defence Forces' absolute value[87]. The values enshrined in the military oath are clearly communal while manifesting themselves also in individuals' choices and actions. In society, values are increasingly shifting towards individual values. At the same time, however, common values are quite constant and, according to studies on values, those involving security, for instance, have remained important to Finns. The values inherent in the military oath – or any other values for that matter- can not be commanded to be assimilated by anyone, but discussing them may impact an individual's thinking. If thinking about them results in reflection on one's own values and choices in relation to them, one is growing as a leader and a human being. That is why it is important that also when it comes to communal values, one would concentrate on reflecting on and internalizing them instead of repeating them and trying to memorize them by heart. In this activity, the example set by the leader or superior is invaluable.

4.2 A leader's values, ethics and morals

All human activity is based on some sort of assessment of what is worth aspiring for. Leaders do not just make decisions, take care of routine business, act as instructed or commanded, but their activities always involve a goal whether they acknowledge this or not. In their activities, leaders must know their values and the values of all the soldiers in the unit under their leadership, because their actions and decisions inevitably also involve a moral dimension. Decision making that takes the moral dimension into account is possible if the leaders know their values and acknowledge that the values of the armed forces and the society are also binding on them.

An individual's values take shape in the course of a long stretch of time, and they are impacted by how one was raised, educated, by all of one's friends, fellow students, work colleagues and life experiences in general. In a unit under someone's command, individual values may vary a lot. Values may also be conflicting. In fact, leaders must be able to deal with conflicts of values between members of their unit, between individuals and the Defence Forces, and also use those conflicts for making the group more cohesive and improving their performance.

In their activities, leaders always refer back to both their own and their unit's moral values, that is, an understanding of what things are good or bad, and what ways of doing things are right or wrong. Understood broadly, leadership ethics comes down to being able to justify one's actions and choices between good and bad, and right and wrong. In many situations, finding justifications and understanding them is not as easy as one might think; a lot of times, how a leader should act is not evident at all. Uncertainty as for the right course of action might ensue, because assessments regarding what to do and what the consequences would be might be conflicting, or the situational awareness unclear. It could be that any of the available options will not lead to a good outcome. Instead, the leader might be obligated to make a decision by choosing the best of bad alternatives.[88]

In a decision-making situation, you may not always be able to rely on available norms: the leader has to trust their own choices and bear responsibility for them. This is why the leader should know their own ethical views and where they come from. Thus, they are not just a randomly accumulated collection of habitual ways of doing things or norms, but at best, they come to make up a coherent and cohesive entity relying on which one may act in situations difficult as they may be.

- **Values** are an individual's or community's understanding of what is good and worth aspiring for.
- **Moral** is an observable quality based on written or unwritten rules inherent in the activities of communities and their members. Moral is an aspect of everyday life allowing things to be called good or bad, right or wrong based on which rules are established.
- **Ethics** studies moral and the concepts used in the dialogue on moral.
- **Ethics** is conduct based on moral.

Simply understanding values, morals and ethics is not enough in itself. What is decisive is how the understanding is carried over to the leader's individual actions and their actions in the community as well. This accentuates the leader's personal take on things and the way they understand themselves. The leader's behaviour is a different thing than conduct directed from the outside. In leadership, responsibility for oneself and others comes to the fore. That is why a military leader's ethics can ultimately not be a collection of pre-formulated values and principles, nor can it be replaced by declarations or ethical codes. Ethics and morals are weighed in small everyday things.[89]

Even if a great number of traditional values and virtues, such as courage, loyalty, patriotism, resilience, justice and even chivalry are qualities attached to military leaders, all leaders must contemplate what those values mean to them personally before they claim that their actions are founded on them. Leaders have not been assigned as superiors to push their own ways of doing things. Instead, they have been selected to carry out a task assigned by the organization acting by the rules of the armed forces with a view of reaching the objective of the armed forces. To this end, the organization has placed leaders in formal positions, given them training and power.

Ethical leadership requires both a set of common values and acknowledgement of individual values. These are the conditions for reaching the ability to lead people in any situation. An old art of war classic states: "If you know the enemy and know yourself, your victory will not stand in doubt; if you know Heaven and know Earth, you may make your victory complete".[90] People and organizations are different. But by knowing yourself, you can develop yourself as a leader of people and organizations.

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5 Communication and leadership

Leadership and communication cannot be set apart from one another. Communication serves to create a common understanding for an organization and its members with regard to its activities and goals. Communication and the ability to interact are among a leader's most important skills. They are always called for when encountering a subordinate, peer, superior or cooperation partner. There can be no leadership without communication. A leader's ability to influence various target groups depends on their interaction skills and willingness and ability to use them. A leader does not need to have superb communication or interaction skills, but if they do not have any or they are extremely lacking, doing one's job as a leader will be considerably more difficult. Communication is a skill that can be improved by practising.

5.1 Communication and interaction as a leader's skills

People are social beings, so communication is characteristic of their behaviour, because social interaction with other people requires communication.[91] Communication and leadership are strongly interdependent. In other words, how one conceives leadership impacts the quality of communication is, and vice versa.

> Communication is an essential part of leadership and by means of communication, leaders get their intention across to subordinates.

Without communication and influencing there is no leadership, because leadership is communication and influencing subordinates. Communication may be verbal (spoken or written) or non-verbal (body language, nuances of voice etc.). Broadly speaking, everything a leader does or does not do means something, i.e. is communication. Communication may take place between individuals, groups or it may be an organization's internal or external communication. In this context, communication is considered two-directional interaction between people for reaching a given goal.

Communication and interaction are a leader's key skills. Cognitive skills make up the hard core of leadership competence. From the perspective of communication, cognitive skills include conveying and receiving information orally, as well as conveying information in writing and interpreting it. Anyone in a leadership position and role have to have the skills of conveying and receiving information. One needs to be able to convey information in a manner that the receiver understands and interprets it precisely as intended. A leader needs the skills to listen to and interpret information presented to them orally or in writing.[92]

5.2 Communication as a tool of leadership

Successful communication and mastering of the communication process are a leader's tools for conducting effective and goal-directed leadership. A communication process starts with the definition of the goals of the message communicated. Time management and the purpose of the message constitute the essential factors of communication. From the point of view of the leader's duties, a goal may include, for example, producing a written plan and an order for one's unit and delivering them orally. After the definition of the goal, the content must be formulated as clearly and to the point as possible in the desired form of communication. The order is transmitted on a selected communication channel depending of the case. A command device, messenger, or a telephone can serve as a communication channel, or the message can be delivered face to face. From this point onwards, communication means interpreting and carrying out of the formulated message.[93]

The final stage of the process is the feedback delivered by the receiver, which is always a part of the communication process. Feedback may be either active and guided interaction, or a receiver's indirect reaction to the message. A good communication process includes collection of guided feedback or an opportunity to provide oral feedback. In good communication, giving feedback is guided or an opportunity for giving feedback is provided. The leader must handle the feedback as required.[94]
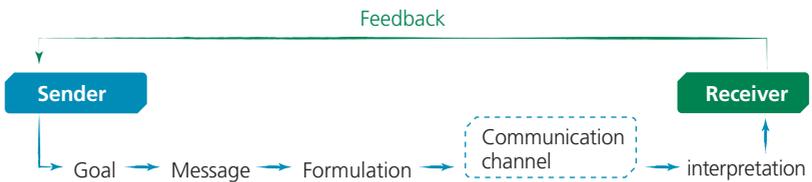
FIGURE 5. Communication process.

In all phases of the communication process, there are obstacles the leader must identify:

- **Obstacles involving the sender:** A different (contrary to what has been taught), but feasible idea involving execution, which is dismissed or not ordered.

- **Obstacles involving formulation:** Poor oral or written skills in the formulation of a matter; the content remains unclear to the receiver.

- **Obstacles involving the communication channel:** The receiver does not receive the order at all, or there is a disruption; carrying out of the task is delayed or does not take place.

- **Obstacles involving interpretation:** The receiver does not understand the order or task received, because the concepts used are unknown to them, unclear or too complicated.

- **Obstacles involving the receiver:** Because of being tired or undergoing combat stress, for example, the receiver fails to focus on receiving the order or task.

- **Obstacles involving the feedback:** The receiver feels that there is no motivation to give feedback or that it does not have any impact on the matter concerned.[95]

When operating in wartime or, for example, as part of a multinational force one must also consider the following obstacles:

- **Physical obstacles:** E.g. Distance and time zones.
- **Semantic obstacles i.e. those involving the meaning of expressions:** People with clearly different professional backgrounds, mother tongue or education interpret words in different ways.

- **Psycho-social obstacles:** People with markedly different sets of values interpret the message in different ways. If necessary, the impacts of different cultures and religions on people's ways of conducting themselves in a communication situation must be taken into account.[96]

A military leader must acknowledge the possibilities and risks of conscious and unconscious communication and understand the responsibilities involved and what it means from the operational safety point of view. All this will be all the more important in wartime.[97]

TABLE 1. Examples of conscious or unconscious communication.

	Unconscious – unofficial	Conscious – official
Internal	• Rumours about a situation or upcoming activities • Non-verbal communication (posture or gestures during order briefings	• staff work (producing plans and orders) • Order briefings and situation reports and briefings
External	• Leaking correct information to civilians (friends/family members) • Rumours circulating among civilians	• Disseminating information about the unit's activities to own media • Disseminating information to civilians in the area of operations

5.3 Effect of interaction skills on leadership

Leadership is human interaction for the purpose of reaching goals. This is why the leader's interaction skills and understanding of the organization's social structure and procedures have a big impact on leadership behaviour. The quality of leadership may be evaluated based on the results achieved and the satisfaction of the subordinates. One can say that people are led and decisions are made on matters.[98] Different kinds of requirements are set for leadership in different kinds of environments. Military leaders must have a full command of all activities in both peacetime and wartime operating environments and be able to adapt their leadership style depending on the situation. For interaction to be direct and purposeful in each situation, one should understand decision-making mechanisms and interaction styles.

Interaction in different operating environments

Based on the framework of interaction behaviour and the leadership and interaction profile, interaction skills are clearly linked to reaching results. Leadership behaviour impacts the efficiency and level of satisfaction of the subordinates towards the leader and tasks, as well as their motivation to do their best. Leadership behaviour may increase or decrease these variables. Even if the leadership framework takes the impacts on leadership of situational factors not depending on the leader into account, it still primarily underlines the leader's chance to learn and work on their leadership skills based on the feedback on interaction situations received by them.[99]

Interaction skills are social and communicative skills which include understanding one's own behaviour and regulating it in different operating environments. Identifying these phenomena in others and in the functioning of groups, and behaviour guided by an understanding of these factors speaks for a high level interaction skills.

> **In leadership behaviour, interaction skills are demonstrated by**
> - self-confidence and an ability to interpret and understand others
> - Taking others into consideration, willingness to work with and help others
> - ability to negotiate and solve problems
> - Conversation and listening skills
> - Friendliness and willingness to be there for others
> - Supporting and enhancing group cohesion
> - Listening to and accepting other people's opinions and decisions.[100]

A military organization is a hierarchy-based community in which orders are given and boundaries set. The Defence Forces operating environment and operating requirements are characterized by special features that impact leadership and leadership behaviour. In its peace time activities, the Defence Forces operating environment aims at openness, which enables taking individual differences into account and generating ideas for new ways of doing things in leadership and interaction. An open environment adapts to different situations and is development-oriented.[101] As the Defence Forces prepares for wartime conditions, its operating environment is partly restricted in peacetime as well with regard to personal freedom of action and organization structures, for example. In wartime, the operating environment is restricted and minimal during combats, which is characterized by uncertain situation awareness, rapidity of events and direct control of operations according to task. Individuals experience heavy physical and mental strain and ensuing stress reactions.[102]

Interaction styles

Assertive interaction is described as a firm style of communicating, characterized i.a. by courage and persistence.[103] One speaks directly and clearly, but listens to other people and takes their opinions into account. One's speech is precise and argumentation credible. One is able to take the initiative and bear responsibility for the decisions one makes. One deals with issues directly with the persons involved and finds solutions for them in a positive atmosphere.[104] Successful interaction is based on the leader identifying their personal needs and those of the unit under their leadership.[105]

Non-assertive interaction is characterized by difficulty in expressing one's needs and desires directly and clearly. A non-assertive person avoids conflict and wants to please others. Voicing one's opinions and defending them is difficult for a non-assertive person.[106] What is typical of persons interacting non-assertively is that they feel they come across as interacting politely and being a balancing agent. However, they do not identify the conflict situations caused by their behaviour, including avoidance of decision-making situations and inconsistent communication. Leaders who behave like this may hope that the people under their leadership could read their needs and wishes, and they might be disappointed, if this is not the case. In such a case, emotional outbursts may come across as overwhelmingly strong for such a situation.

Characteristics of **aggressive** interaction include criticizing others, speaking inappropriately, expressions of anger and fits of bad temper.[107] Someone behaving like this sees interaction situations as competition they want to win no matter what. This type of interacting is resorted to for stifling any opinion that differs from one's own, for example by raising one's voice or blaming or criticizing other people. Nonverbal communication is typically menacing and showing off power.[108] Too much aggressiveness weakens the safe atmosphere and, consequently, reduces possibilities of reaching goals, satisfaction and motivation to try. This is why this style of interacting should never consciously be opted for.

FIGURE 6. Interaction is communication between people.

When acting **passive-aggressively,** the speaker's verbal and nonverbal communication is typically conflicting. This interaction style is characterized by a sarcastic and dismissive way of speaking pretended to come across as sincere humour. Interaction styles often result in gaining an unofficial power position in a group and cause discord between its members.[109]

Individuals whose interaction style is **submissive** pull away from interaction situations. They do not wish to speak or take a stand. They typically depreciate themselves and what they do, and mince their words without getting to the point. In interaction situations, these individuals are easily interrupted and can not get their ideas across.[110]

Interaction styles have a direct impact on how successful leadership turns out to be. By identifying one's interaction style as well as the expectations of the operating environment and of the leadership and organization culture, the leader can choose how to act in different situations. A person inclined to seek the acceptance of the group behaves and acts according to the community's customs and expectations. When aiming at the assertive interaction behaviour typical of the Defence Forces leadership culture, one should keep in mind, in fact, the importance of not letting one's military role sabotage one's own persona.[111] Trying to pull off a role in a way that is not right for oneself makes interaction stiff and fake. This, in turn, may have a negative impact on the building of the unit's team spirit and keep it from reaching its common goals.

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2

Leading people – deep leadership

The deep leadership model constitutes the Defence Forces' set of shared values and a foundation for goal-oriented interaction for conscripts and salaried personnel. The deep leadership model is a collection of tried-and-tested leadership principles that focus on leading people. Deep leadership is based on the underlying idea of the leader's continuous growth and self-development as a leader. Deep leadership is founded on the transformational leadership paradigm which underlines the leader's encouraging, motivating and coaching approach.

1 Deep leadership framework

Deep leadership is based on the idea that goal-oriented interaction behaviour, that is, cornerstones of deep leadership can achieve desired effects: satisfaction, efficiency and a desire to apply oneself. The objective of deep leadership is to balance leadership qualities so as not to underscore nor overpower any of them. In the deep leadership model, leaders keep continuously developing themselves as human beings and leaders.

The horizontal number eight in Figure 7 stands for infinity which has no beginning nor end point. At the centre of the framework is behaviour which is impacted the most by the individual's own unique self. It is composed of a number of factors, but in the operating environment, the most important aspects contributing to military leaders' behaviour are their personal educational principles, conception of the human being, knowledge, personality, skills, values, attitude, experiences as well as all other things that make them unique individuals. The central embodiment of these aspects is their personal will to defend their country, attitude and commitment to shared tasks and goals.
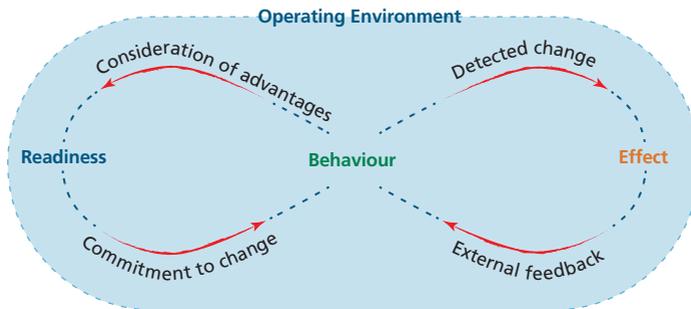
FIGURE 7. Leadership and interaction behaviour framework.[112]

The leadership behaviour framework comprises the leader's readiness to lead their subordinates, their behaviour and its impact. The deep leadership framework likewise serves as a basis for developing interaction behaviour. Interaction behaviour framework is the term applied to anyone not in a position of a superior.

The environment we operate in affects the behaviour of everyone of us. In some situations, the operating environment may have a liberating or stifling impact. In the latter case, many ideas and thoughts get dismissed one after the other. Behaviour in line with the cornerstones of deep leadership may feed resourceful and creative thinking: one is not afraid of mistakes or thinking outside the box.

The deep leadership framework provides materiel for building one's self-perception at the core of one's personality[113]. The changing of self-perception

in adults may be described as the processing and analyzing of feedback from others and self-reflection. One builds a perception of oneself very strongly through other people's opinions, so feedback from others serves as an important element for building one's leadership identity. Everyone is able to learn and improve one's skills with the aim of becoming a better leader – if one wants to. Demands and challenging situations arising from the operating environment make others perform better than others, even if two leaders compared with one another had the same level of subject-matter expertise. In such situations, the same old credo holds true: it is your attitude that counts.

The entity of leadership and interaction behaviour in the deep leadership model[114] consists of four cornerstones:
- Enthusiasm (**E**)
- Trust (**T**)
- Learning (**L**)
- Respect (**R**)

FIGURE 8. Cornerstones of deep leadership.

Enthusiasm

An inspiring and motivating leader help their subordinates find new meaning and challenges in their activities. A leader is able to put the requirements set to their subordinates' behaviour in concrete terms and make them commit to shared goals in the planning of which they have been involved. The leader sets the unit common and clear rules of game that must be complied with. The leader encourages and motivates their subordinates with their own example. The leader gives positive feedback as necessary and comes up with new ways of rewarding their subordinates for a job well done. The leader's motivating attitude towards the subordinates improves group cohesion and builds trust in the future and enhances performance ability.

Trust

A trust-building leader is able take their subordinates' wishes and individual skills and the situation into account. There is a solid ethical and moral foundation for leadership and risks are perceived as shared. Honesty, fairness and equality are the priorities that guide the leader's conduct. The leader does not use their position to pursue their own interests. The leader sets their subordinates an example by their own actions and behaviour.

Learning

The leader promotes creativity and supports their subordinates' creativity and innovativeness and efforts to improve their skills. The leader seeks new solutions for challenges and activities. Mistakes made by individuals are seen as a natural part of the activities, something one can learn from. These mistakes should not lead to a punishment so as not to weaken the individual's self confidence; corrective feedback should be given in a constructive manner. Subordinates are asked to come up with ideas and they are included in shared problem solving situations. The leader is capable of giving and receiving positive and corrective feedback. Feedback is a prerequisite for developing leadership and interaction.

Respect

A leader always encounters people as individuals. They have a positive conception of the human being and are genuinely interested in their subordinates as human beings. They detect their subordinates' individual needs to grow and develop their skills at the same time serving as their coach. Accepting individual differences in their subordinates

and behaving themselves accordingly is part of a leader's way of conducting themselves. They know their subordinates in person and treat them equally. A leader is a good listener. Subordinates are provided with support and guidance in problem situations and are taken care of.

In addition to the cornerstone, deep leadership also includes the following six dimensions:
- controlling leadership
- passive leadership
- efficiency
- satisfaction
- desire to apply oneself
- professionalism

Controlling leadership

Control is needed in leadership at a level and in a manner required by the individual, situation or operating environment. However, control must not be so strong that it weakens subordinates' performance or behaviour. For example, control may manifest itself as excessive monitoring or keeping asking questions, lack of confidence, looking down on how other people do things , withholding information and constantly looking for mistakes. Leadership behaviour which is too controlling makes the subordinates passive and weakens their motivation and initiative to take action.

Passive leadership

In their work, passive leaders mostly keep to themselves and, in practice, actually represent non-leadership. Such a leader expects the structure and routines of the organization to run the operations by itself. The leader only intervenes when a mistake or problem has already come up in the activities. A passive leader does not want take a stand on anything, be involved with people or be available. The leader does not give feedback, shuns responsibility and avoids problem situations. The leader's decision making is difficult and delayed. Expedient passiveness in leadership, on the other hand, speaks for the leader trusting their subordinates and allowing them autonomy to operate on their own.

Efficiency

Leaders impact individuals' way of doing things and, consequently, the effectiveness of the whole organization and how well it reaches its goals. An efficient team is characterized by smooth and constructive cooperation and an open learning and working atmosphere.

Operations are high-quality, which is evident in everything they do and in the individuals' attitude toward improving their skills and developing the activities. Efficiency brings a sense of success into the operations of the unit, which stands out.

Satisfaction

Satisfaction relates to the unit's and organization's efficiency and success. The leader's conduct plays a key role. The subordinates are happy with their leader and want to work under their specific leadership. The subordinates feel they were the ones who brought about success by their own actions, but as a matter of fact, it is the leader's conduct that enables the satisfaction and success.

Desire to apply oneself

Leaders boost their subordinates' desire to apply themselves. The subordinates make a commitment to the working community, leader and the goals of the activities. Committed, the individual or unit voluntarily boosts the quality of operating. The leader encourages their subordinates to even better performance by leveraging the achieved sense of success.[115]

Professional competence

Professional competence refers to the competence needed by the leader in their current position that should be maintained and developed on a continuous basis. From the leadership perspective, developing competence is built through four central areas: **readiness, leadership behaviour, effect and feedback**.

One's **readiness** is an outcome of one's personality traits and interaction between the individual and the environment. One's educational and experience background and prior experiences of leadership and authorities contribute to one's readiness to lead. Readiness refers to a comprehensive behavioural capacity in one's personality at a given moment. Readiness as a leader refers to the entity composed of the personal traits, skills, values, attitudes, motivation, education and experiences of the individual concerned.

Leadership behaviour refers to goal-oriented interaction between people in a given group. Leadership behaviour bases on the leader's individual readiness. Its efficiency is impacted by the operating environment, situational factors and the goals set for the activities concerned. Through their leadership conduct, leaders make the organization's resources available for themselves and allocates them for purposes of reaching the goals set. Leadership behaviour also involves interaction with peers, superiors and interest groups.

The **effect** of leadership refers to changes perceived inside and outside the unit in satisfaction, efficiency of operations, results and desire to apply oneself and the way of thinking of the members of the unit.

Feedback plays a central role when it comes to developing one's skills as a leader. The underlying idea of various kinds of feedback systems and the overall entity they make up is to provide leaders with tools to help them reflect. This also serves as a basis for working on one's leadership and interaction behaviour.

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2 Deep leadership model

Deep leadership means coaching people to be able to independently improve their interaction skills in any operating environment. The deep leadership model provides a measurement, that is, a feedback tool for developing one's leadership performance.

The deep leadership model combines theory and practise. Combining them requires critical thinking involving oneself and others for the purpose of developing one's leadership skills. The multifaceted nature of the operating environment makes such mental work demanding indeed.

1 **Readiness**	**4** **7** **3** **Behaviour** **2** **6** **5**	**8** **9** **Effect** **10**

1 **Professional competence**

2 **Trust**
3 **Respect**
4 **Learning**
5 **Enthusiasm**
6 **Need to be**

8 **Efficiency**
9 **Satisfaction**
10 **Desire to apply oneself**
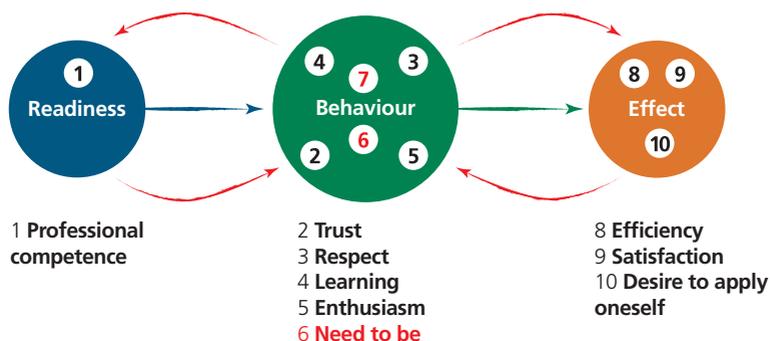
FIGURE 9. Deep leadership model.

The deep leadership model encapsulates information about best leadership and interaction practises that has been confirmed by research and obtained by shared experiences. It provides a concrete model, grounds and a clear tool for developing oneself as a leader. The model helps find and outline a direction for developing one's leadership skills. The deep leadership model as part of the Defence Forces leadership and instructor training programme is a start for growing and developing oneself as a leader on a continuous basis. Every leader should internalize their obligation for continuous self-development. The deep leadership model is a learning tool by means of which one can determine one's development needs and goals. The model presents tried and tested leadership practices in a condensed form and serves as a foundation for developing one's skills as a leader. No-one can, however, achieve perfection as a leader of people – growing as a leader is a process that takes a lifetime.

3 Dimensions of leadership and interaction behaviour

The deep leadership model encapsulates the features of excellent leadership. These questions are often asked: Who is the best superior or instructor you have ever had? Specify the areas of excellence in this person's leadership or interaction behaviour that makes you think this way. As we list features included in descriptions received, we notice that they always come down to the cornerstones of deep leadership. The same phenomenon repeats itself, even if the practical examples included represent different periods of time or operating environments. This speaks for the stability of the cornerstones of deep leadership and, consequently, their applicability to different people and operating environments.

The deep leadership model is the Defence Forces' model of leading people. It is also the foundation of the substance of the Defence Forces leadership and instructor training programme. The model only includes dimensions (readiness, behaviour and effect) that can be reliably evaluated by means of external feedback. From the perspective of learning, however, what is critical is whether the internal feedback process works, that is, can the leader learn from the feedback received by them.

Leadership and interaction behaviour refers to goal-oriented interaction between people in a given group. This is the part of the leader's behaviour that can be externally observed and evaluated. Leadership and interaction behaviour bases on the leader's readiness and behaviour as well as the effects of this behaviour. (See Figure 9).

3.1 Professional competence

A leader's readiness is an individual concept related to their persona. Hereditary features, upbringing, life experience and education contribute to it. The conception of the human being in the deep leadership model underlines positivity and aims for growth; it accepts the individual with their strengths and development needs. the leader's ability to use their learning opportunities depends on their readiness. By examining the feedback thoroughly and asking "why", one can assess one's own readiness as a leader (values, attitudes, ways of doing things). Developing oneself as a leader relies on one's readiness.

Professional competence refers to the knowledge and skills needed by a leader in their current position. Professional competence refers to other people's assessment of the knowledge and skills displayed by a leader in their duties. A leader must acknowledge the requirements for adjusting their values and attitudes according to feedback on their leadership behaviour. The series of questions involving deep leadership measures professionalism on two levels. On the first level,

the knowledge and skills needed by a person in their current position are assessed. On the second level, more general skills needed for the job are assessed. Professional competence is regarded as know-how that provides a foundation for decision making, management and performance development.

3.2 Trust

Trust is the most important one of the deep leadership cornerstones, because it lays a foundation for the other cornerstones as well. Trust in others and how to show it are important aspects of a leader's behaviour. In the military operating environment, this may get blurred, if the individual's conduct rests on strong control. If so, whether they are trusted or not may remain unclear to the others. Trust is built by deeds and substantiated by words. Trust is based on the leader's positive and growth-oriented understanding of the human being which departs from trusting other people in the first place. This is considered the strongest element of the Finnish management and leadership style.

Building trust comprises the following characteristics:
- My behaviour is clear, fair, honest, consistent, and I treat people equally.
- I implement my values in practice – I walk the talk.
- I do the things I agreed to do; I don't make empty promises.
- I make decisions according to the situation.
- As a superior, my conduct is never aimed at seeking my own best interest.
- Taking care of my subordinates' occupational and in-service safety is part of my job as a leader. Taking care of subordinates increases trust.

> Trust brings security – build trust!

3.3 Respect

Respect and trust make up an axis of security: different kinds of people and individuals' different interaction needs are taken into account. This cornerstone involving respect underlines the manner in which decision making is guided by values in problem situations.

Showing respect includes the following characteristics:
- I know how to listen and discuss and I know the people involved in the interaction.
- I am genuinely interested in other people as equal human beings.
- I accept and identify individual differences between people.
- I sense the atmosphere and can anticipate conflicts.

- I genuinely take care of my subordinates and their needs.
- I help and support others when they need it.
- I spend time with people and have time for them.
- Interaction is open and confidential.

I respect you – show respect!

3.4 Learning

Alternative ways of considering things and giving and receiving feedback are at the centre of the learning process. Changes to the operating environment keep challenging one's behaviour and activities. A leader must set an example for how to use feedback to one's advantage, for instance. This determines what kind of feedback culture prevails in the organization.

Enabling learning includes the following features:
- I actively take and give feedback.
- I encourage people to offer their own thoughts and ideas.
- I give sufficiently challenging tasks.
- I coach and guide others in their tasks.
- I encourage others to try something new.
- I do not give punishments for mistakes; I give corrective feedback.
- I include others in problem solving.
- At the preparation and planning phase, subordinates do not always agree with the superior.
- By coaching, guiding and delegating responsibility I support individuals' self leadership skills.
- I create space and autonomy in my operating environment.

We grow to be leaders of our own work – enable learning!

3.5 Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm is based on things that motivate people with reason or emotions. When it comes to motivating with reason, Finns are traditionally strong. Setting goals, planning and implementing are strengths of the Finnish culture. Motivating with emotions is not equally strong. Often, in leadership, emotional intelligence, or emotions and showing them is held or remains on the back burner in situations where they could be shown. Emotional intelligence refers to a leader's ability to recognize the importance of feelings and their impact on their own conduct and interaction behaviour.

Building enthusiasm includes the following characteristics:
- I am enthusiastic and put myself out there,
- I know how to set clear, motivating and appropriate goals.
- My actions are characterized by being goal-oriented, and I show my commitment to shared goals.
- I know how to reward and encourage in surprising and motivating ways.
- My positive approach contributes to the creation of an open learning and working atmosphere.
- I can define and agree on clear game rules which apply to everybody.
- I stick to things that have been agreed on.
- Shared goals, my own example and shared experiences make a strong team spirit happen.

Let 's make it happen – build enthusiasm!

3.6 Controlling leadership

Control is needed, but not too much of it. Control is considered to be good, if it does not exceed a certain level. Control is thus used as a means of ensuring progress towards set goals. Control becomes negative, if it increases to a level bound to make other people less motivated. Too much control restricts the self-direction capability of subordinates and impedes autonomous thinking and action. The 360* deep leadership profile can be used for showing how others see one's level of control. This produces a figure which shows if the level of control is right for guiding and supporting efforts to reach goals or if it reduces self-direction.

Excessive and negative control is described by the following characteristics:
- My behaviour is characterized by not having confidence in people's ability and desire to get their tasks done.
- My lack of trust translates into strong control and micro managing.
- My style of interacting focuses mainly on looking for mistakes and irregularities.
- The fact that my style of interacting is too controlling leads to the breakdown of motivation, weakening of commitment and atmosphere, and decrease in efficiency.

However, teaching a new thing and having the subordinates practice it require a controlling style of leadership, because correctly learned performance and procedures boost the subordinates' self-confidence and sense of security. This, in turn, will make leadership easier in the continuation, because the routines involved were practised correctly.

> Too much control means a lack of confidence!

3.7 Passive leadership

In the deep leadership model, passive leadership represents "non-leadership". A passive leader does not make decisions in time, delays things when there is no reason to and is difficult to get in touch with. A leader may be passive without noticing it and does not notice things that they could expedite and decide. Avoiding responsibility may be conscious or unconscious. This is why it is important for the leader to receive feedback on their possibly passive leadership behaviour. If the passivity level is high, the level of the other cornerstones tends to go down.

Excessive passiveness is described by the following characteristics:
- I work on my own almost always and don't interfere with things until I absolutely have to.
- I do not give feedback for performance.
- I am often unavailable when needed.
- I do not take a stance on anything; I avoid conflict situations and responsibility.
- I have difficulty in making decisions and I often make them too late.
- Things getting done rests solely on routines.
- Unofficial actors emerge in the unit, which results in cliques.

4 Effects of leadership

The leader is responsible for the operations, atmosphere and results of their entire working community. In the deep leadership model, measuring the effects of leadership come down to three dimensions: **efficiency**, **satisfaction** and **desire to apply oneself**. Efficiency stands for the level of results achieved. Satisfaction refers to the satisfaction of the subordinates with the leadership and learning environment. Desire to apply oneself refers to how a leader manages to leverage the subordinates' skills and potential.

The results and quality of the operations of a unit or organization are direct or indirect effects of leadership behaviour. Effect of leadership refers to changes to the efficiency, results and way of thinking of the members of the unit that are observable in the unit and outside it

4.1 Efficiency

Efficiency refers the efficiency of the whole unit or organization facilitated by the leader within the unit or working community. The set goals are achieved or even exceeded. The whole unit is characterized by constructive and fluent cooperation, open interaction and a culture of helping others.

Efficiency is described by the following characteristics:
- Efficiency stems from the entire organization.
- Operations are exceptionally high-quality, which is evident in everything they do and in individuals' attitude toward improving their skills and developing operations.
- Efficiency creates an atmosphere of success which shows outside.

4.2 Satisfaction

Leadership affects the subordinates' well-being in a major way, and, consequently, their ability to work and get their job done. The dimension of satisfaction in the deep leadership model shows this in a nutshell. Satisfaction[116], in short, means that the people are happy to be working specifically with the leader involved in the feedback. People are happy with the leader's conduct in the whole organization and also outside it.

Satisfaction is described by the following characteristics:
- People are happy in the community across the board.
- They want to work with me.
- My conduct is seen as enabling success, even if individuals feel they accomplished the things the satisfaction stems from.

4.3 Desire to apply oneself

Feedback regarding desire to apply oneself is collected on how the conduct of the person concerned increases other people's desire of applying themselves. One's desire to apply oneself grows in the operating environment of an excellent leader.[117] The commitment of the subordinates to the leader, community and goals of operations generates an atmosphere bound to increase the individuals' work contribution. The leader leverages the success achieved when encouraging their unit to achieve even better results.

Desire to apply oneself is described by the following characteristics:
- Individuals' commitment to their tasks, shared goals, organization and leader increases.
- As a leader, I leverage the success achieved to motivate people to achieve even better results.
- Desire to apply oneself is the dimension that shows how my conduct has affected other people's desire to apply themselves.

References

116 Nissinen (2004), p. 49.
117 Nissinen (2004), p. 49.

5 Feedback

Feedback refers to the information received by an actor involving the level of success of a specific activity. It focuses on the results and the procedures by which the results were achieved. Feedback may be positive and encouraging, corrective, or it may neutrally state the result. Feedback is a comprehensive entity which also includes specification of goals and outlines for the future. Feedback must always involve a given goal including how well it was achieved.[118]

5.1 Feedback is a precondition for development

Regardless of the subject matter being studied, development always presupposes inner motivation and own activity on the part of the learner.[119] Development is backed up by feedback on one's behaviour and its effects. Feedback reveals both successes and mistakes, and often it may contain possible alternatives for behaviour. It also conveys the expectations the feedback giver had and if and to what extent they were realized. Feedback always arouses different kinds of feelings in the receiver that affect their ability to understand and improve themselves with the help of the feedback.[120] If the feedback causes feelings of failure or shame, one's defence mechanisms try to deny it and find justifications for it to make it easier to bear. In such a situation, one may overlook the matter that should be worked on, so no learning takes place. However, encouraging and improvement-focused feedback strengthens the person's motivation, desire to apply themselves and their experience of success.[121]

Everyone of us have acquired a personal understanding of what feedback is and what it means. One's experiences, knowledge about the subject matter and what other people have told and experienced have impacted the makeup of this understanding. One's personal understanding of feedback affects the way a person takes feedback and to what extent they are able to utilize it for developing themselves.[122] From the perspective of learning, the situation is good, if the feedback is regarded as a tool for improving one's professional competence. Feedback may sometimes be felt as too controlling and critical in which case its value as support for learning diminishes. In this case, the receiver of the feedback may take it as involving their persona, which typically results in a feeling of wanting to defend oneself.[123]

Everybody needs to recognize their understanding of what feedback stands for. The way a person serving as a superior understands feedback is related to their understanding of leadership and ways of conducting leadership. Whether the leader uses feedback for developing their unit's operating or rather focuses on control and demonstrating their position of authority depends on their leadership behaviour. Provided the leader identifies their concept of feedback, motives and ways of giving feedback, they are able to improve their competence and the operations of their unit more efficiently.[124]

> Feedback should always be about activities, not about personal characteristics.

Feedback intended to be used for improving competence should be easy to understand and linked to practical examples. Feedback should be precise and honest. In addition, feedback should always be about activities, not about personal characteristics. Improvement-focused feedback motivates and encourages to try again even when the performance assessed was a failure. In case there are several aspects to the improved, the feedback giver should focus on assessing those that according to them are the most important ones and priorities. So, the changes required will not be too much considering the skills of the person receiving the feedback. Feedback should not focus only on bringing up separate details. Instead, it should serve to attach aspects to be worked on, so that they will make up a whole.[125] The receiver of the feedback is more likely to accept it, if it corresponds to their expectations and they trust the person who gave it. Repeated feedback makes it more reliable and promotes learning and improvement.[126]

In the Defence Forces, feedback is typically given and collected in connection with various types of exercises, training periods and study entities by means of different types of forms. This feedback collected on forms must be supported by continuous direct feedback. What is more, non verbal feedback (e.g. gestures and facial expressions) should also be acknowledged, because interpretations are constantly made based on it, which means that there is a great risk for misunderstandings. That is why asking questions and interacting openly by discussing ensures that the feedback has been interpreted correctly and contributes to improvement by feedback.[127, 128]

When interpreting feedback, it is important to reflect on feedback received from superiors, peers and subordinates linking it to one's own experience and operating environment. One's own understanding of things may be in conflict with the feedback received from other people which the receiver may find confusing. From the point of view of development, it is important to assess and compare one's own experience with external feedback and analyse where the differing views stemmed from and what could be done to narrow this gap. Having worked this out one can use the 360* feedback to support one's own development.[129]

> External feedback assesses visible performance only – what you say and do If the feedback received by you is in conflict with your own view, you probably did not communicate all your thoughts and goals to the feedback givers.

According to the leadership behaviour framework, feedback from subordinates, peers and superiors deals with professional competence, behaviour (interaction and leadership) and impacts of leadership. Comparing external feedback with self-evaluation enables one to increase one's self-knowledge and improve one's leadership behaviour. At this point, the leader has to assess what the feedback received means to them and decide how to change their behaviour and conduct in the future.[130]. These realizations are often based on underlying assumptions, habits and values. Those who have good reflection skills assess the reasons and consequences of their conduct, and work on their behaviour based on the conclusions drawn by them, that is, the personal development decision.[131]

Feedback always aims at increasing self-knowledge and an understanding of one's own interaction behaviour and the consequences of one's conduct. The better the leader is aware of the significance and impact of their patterns of thinking, interaction and modes of action on their leadership, the more efficiently they can reach the set goals together with their unit.[132]

> You don't have to change your personality, but you can modify your behaviour.

5.2 Giving and receiving feedback

Developing one's skills based on feedback is more likely, if interaction between the giver and receiver of the feedback is open, confidential and appreciative. Correct and correctly given feedback can increase trust. However, this trust may be broken by depreciative and critical feedback.[133] In particular, in orally delivered feedback, the significance of the openness and interaction of the feedback event comes to the fore.

In case there is little trust between the members of the unit or one wants to remove obstacles to delivering honest feedback, written feedback can be given anonymously. The person giving feedback should keep in mind the principles of truthful and appropriate feedback in order for it to serve the purpose of developing competence and not just ventilate emotions. If there is a notable difference between anonymous feedback and the content of feedback given face to face, the receiver can try of identify the reasons for this difference and improve their conduct.[134]

The place where the feedback is given and the persons present influence the quality of the interaction and, consequently, the effectiveness of the feedback. The time when the feedback is given likewise impacts its effectiveness. For deciding on a suitable time for feedback, the overall situation and the readiness of those about to receive it should

be considered. Feedback should always be direct, and it should directly involve behaviour and conduct and promote learning. If those to whom feedback should be given are particularly tired and emotional, the most appropriate solution would be to hold the event later.[135]

Those giving feedback should keep in mind the characteristics of truthful and appropriate feedback. The receivers' personal traits and readiness as well as the quality of the interaction relationship between the giver and receiver should also be taken into consideration. It is quite possible that feedback delivered at the same event is interpreted and felt in many different ways and that the impact of those who hear it may vary very much indeed.[136]

High-quality feedback meets the following characteristics:
- Was given timely
- Is honest and appreciative
- Personal and individual
- Involves behaviour
- Listens and motivates
- Builds trust
- Offers alternative ways of doing things
- Leads to concrete measures.[137]

Feedback must not be dismissive, exaggerating, threatening and detrimental to anybody's reputation Feedback must not be offending, and it must be given using a friendly or neutral way of speaking. Shouting, snapping or some other inappropriate way of speaking is never suited for giving feedback.[138] feedback should be given as soon as possible after the events intended to be assessed. After a lengthy lapse of time, corrective feedback often feels like "going back to things that happened way back", which seldom leads to improving things. If there is something you are still not quite sure of and you want to discuss it later, you should approach it through your own sentiments. You should say quite openly that you want to discuss something that still needs sorting out.[139] Bringing to mind positive experiences, on the contrary, works as a motivating, confidence building and learning promoting method of giving feedback.

Based on how one takes feedback, conclusions may be made (see Figure 10) regarding one's self-knowledge and inner balance.[140] Interaction and trust relations between the giver and receiver of feedback have a major impact on receiving feedback. In addition, one's personality traits, temperament and prior experiences as a receiver of feedback affect how the feedback is taken and how the information received is able to be used for developing behaviour. The feedback receiver might be sensitive to criticism or, in some cases, ignore it altogether. Some people

need a lot of external validation for how they think. Some of us aspire to perfection or being the first or the most hard working. Different personalities are given feedback in different ways, so that learning or progress would be as efficient as possible. Someone needs very practical examples or confirmation for having attained a sufficient level of skills, while for someone else motivation or reassurance can be enough.[141]
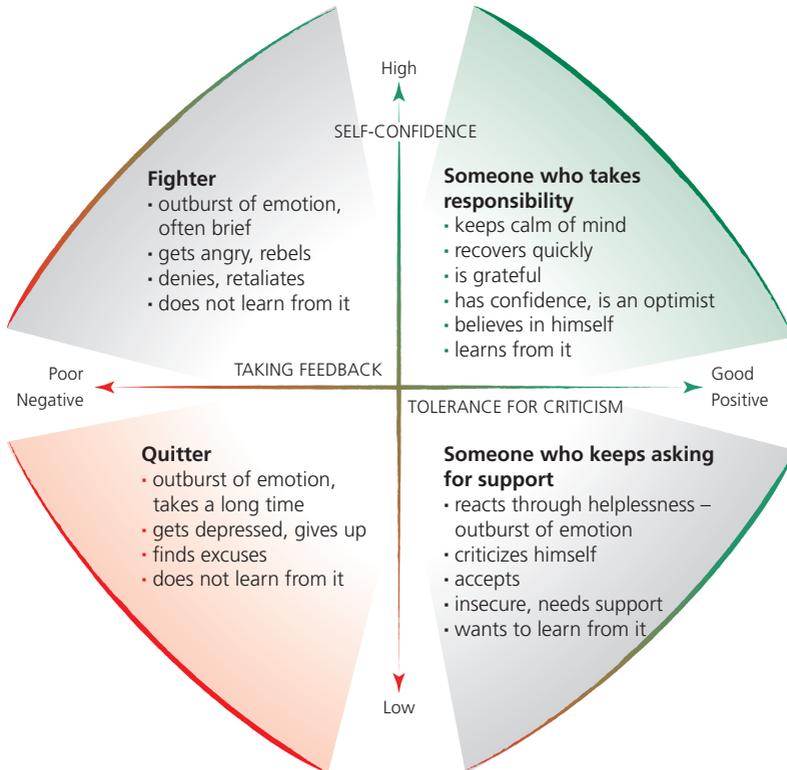
FIGURE 10. Taking feedback.

In the Defence Forces operating environment, there is no need to go into the reasons of people behaving differently, but one has to understand them. If the person giving feedback knows that there are different ways of taking it, they can adjust it according to the receiver and thus contribute to operating and achieving of goals.[142]

Enhancing one's skills in giving and processing feedback is part of improving one's leadership skills. The goal is to have the military leader acknowledge the importance of feedback for their competence and the performance of the unit under their leadership.[143] Often the amount of feedback given may be relatively small, and only focused on looking for mistakes and areas to be improved. Sometimes also receiving compliments and positive feedback may be difficult or even awkward for some. However, positive feedback strengthens one's self-confidence and makes learning more efficient, so it is something effort should be invested on. Feedback for mistakes and failures should be corrective. Even in case of failure, feedback should show respect and encourage to try again.[144]

> A matter evaluated or focused on gets better.[145]

Acting as a leader of instructor in various situations requires presentation skills; feedback could help enhance them. Presentation and interaction skills depend on the individual's persona, so feedback involving them must be discrete with focus first and foremost on behaviour and its effects.[146]

As a starting point, let's assume that the people under one's leadership are active actors themselves, so feedback should be interactive and truly 360 *. So, one can not arrive at the conclusion that the person giving the feedback is always a superior higher up in the hierarchy and the person receiving it a subordinate who has to settle for the feedback without reflecting on it themselves. Problem solving skills, self-direction and critical thinking enable developing activities based on the views of its members and ideas. If a subordinate feels that they are able to affect, besides their own conduct, also that of their unit and its leader, their motivation for achieving goals and commitment to the organization increase.[147]

When it comes to assessing how well goals have been achieved, one may note that goals have usually been achieved by the cooperation of the leader and subordinates. Therefore, both successes and failures depend on the conduct of all the members of the unit; responsibility can not be left solely on the leader or subordinate. From this perspective, the importance of the 360-degree feedback gets highlighted. Every member of the unit makes progress in their task by receiving feedback on their performance and results. Subordinates giving honest and constructive feedback to their leader results in the leader

performing better in their task leading the unit. At the same time, the subordinates become more committed to their unit, which contributes to them achieving the goals even more efficiently.[148] In order for this kind of situation to be able to be achieved, attention must be paid to the importance of the unit having an open feedback culture – paving the way for constructive feedback. This requires an understanding of what constitutes constructive feedback and how to give it. One can consciously improve one's skills in receiving feedback and developing one's competence.

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6 Interpretation of the deep leadership profile

A series of questions included in the deep leadership model serve to collect a leadership and interaction profile. An interaction profile is put together, if the person collecting feedback does not have any subordinates. It is important to remember that in itself, the profile does not provide any ready answers. Instead, it is intended for directing and activating the mental work of the person receiving feedback to support their learning. Setting the received feedback in its right context, that is, in one's specific operating environment and its characteristics makes up an essential part of the mental work. The best interpreter of the profile is the person being assessed, but in this case the interpretation process underlines the self-direction ability and commitment to learning of the person concerned.

When interpreting the deep leadership profile, one should do it in the following order:

1. Take a look at the summary of all the evaluations and form an understanding of the overall feedback.
2. Consider the strengths of the cornerstones (ETLR) and improvement needs.
   - How do they relate to one another?
   - Which ones deviate from the general impression?
3. Take a look at controlling and passive leadership.
   - How do they relate to one another?
4. Compare different respondent groups with one another.
   - Subordinates have expectations regarding the conduct of their leader that differ from those of the superiors or peers of the person involved.
   - Decide which is the most important group from your perspective from which you have received feedback.
5. Consider the dispersion shown in the sum variable table.
   - If the dispersion exceeds 0.7, the respondents' feedback is conflicting.
6. Take a look at the open feedback received by you.
   - You receive feedback from outside the contents of the question series.
7. Draw up a personal development plan (a frame is available).
   - Strengths and development needs often appear in the behaviour section, that it, the cornerstones or the sections of controlling and passive leadership
8. Set up a feedback discussion event for respondents.
   - At such events, you get valuable support or new, complementary insight for your own interpretation.
   - Openness is the most important thing at the feedback discussion event.
9. Take a repeat profile.

After producing a personal development plan, it is important to follow the realization of the personal development plan and statement. You can support this by asking yourself questions: What kind of leadership and interaction situations have there been during the past period? What orders did I give? How did I conduct myself? What feelings did I notice having been aroused in others? What feelings did the situation concerned arouse in me? Was something achieved or was something left undone and why? Did I do the right thing or should something be changed? How have I acted towards different groups I have interacted with? These questions help you improve your self-examination skills provided that you practise.

It is not sensible to compare different people's profiles to one another. The most important thing is to recognize each individual's personal strengths and areas they should work on. The repeat profile should be examined so as to see the improvement that has taken place compared to the previous profile. When it comes to self-development challenges, the profile can be analysed using the questions involving interaction behaviour presented in the deep leadership model. They provide help for reflecting on ways to implement personal development in practise. The questions helping interpretation of the profile are listed in Annex 1.

Effect of leadership

Effect of leadership refers to the changes to the efficiency, results and way of thinking of the members of the unit that can be observed by people inside or outside it.

Efficiency means that set goals are achieved better than before or even exceeded. Some of the most important factors contributing to efficiency include goal-orientation of activities, clarity of leadership and, of course, subordinates' commitment to common goals. Efficiency is best explained by enthusiasm.

Satisfaction is a mainly emotion-based understanding of how well the leader has carried out their tasks and how their leadership style corresponds to other people's needs and expectations. Satisfaction is best explained by respect.

Desire to apply oneself reflects the permanent level of commitment that the leader has managed to instil in the members of their unit. Commitment to one's task, goal and own unit manifests itself by one voluntarily increasing one's work input which contributes to the effectiveness of the work done by the whole group. Desire to apply oneself is best explained by enthusiasm and learning, and, conversely, controlling behaviour stifles it.

7 Personal development plan

7.1 Developing leadership and interaction behaviour

The deep leadership model related to the leadership and instructor programme lays a foundation for leading people. Developing oneself and growing as a leader means that one increases one's learning systematically in various types of operating environments based on experience and feedback obtained. The operating environment always impacts and guides one's leadership and interaction behaviour. A skilful leader knows how to adapt their behaviour to the operating environment and situation at hand. To understand this need to adapt one's behaviour the leader has to have knowledge-based and interaction skills.[149]

Developing oneself as a leader starts with recognizing and acknowledging one's values and personal features, and working on them with a goal in mind. Leadership behaviour is based on the leader's readiness for the development of which they are personally responsible. One's values, self-knowledge, upbringing, leadership training and, ultimately, personal experiences as a leader shape one's readiness to lead. Shaping refers here to the changes to an individual's attitudes and behaviour caused by growing and conscious personal development. How leadership behaviour relates to efficiency of operating comes down to the impact of leadership. The effects of leadership can be assessed in many ways, but hardly any progress takes place without the information obtained from feedback.

Developing one's competence as a leader and adjusting one's leadership behaviour call for persistent work. Growing as a leader is founded on knowing oneself. Personal growth derives from self-knowledge which is a reflection of a positive image of one's self, appreciating others and oneself and healthy self-confidence.[150] A clear personal development plan is needed to support one's self-development efforts if improvement is called for. Efforts to work on one's leadership behaviour should focus on one thing at a time keeping it in mind every day. In time, a new way of conducting oneself becomes a personal norm changing one's leadership behaviour; we are talking about deep learning.

One is not born a good leader; one grows and develops oneself to become one through self-knowledge, feedback and continuous learning.[151] Good leaders take their feedback with a positive attitude and want to learn from it. The deep leadership model equips leaders with fundamentals for assessing their leadership behaviour providing preconditions for developing their leadership and interaction behaviour on the basis of self-direction. Self-development means recognizing and acknowledging one's values and personal qualities, and making a conscious effort to work on them. The leader having the right attitude is the basic assumption in working on leadership and interaction behaviour and its key challenge. Without a positive attitude, it is not possible to bring about changes in one's behaviour.

Feedback on one's behaviour is a starting point for efforts to improve one's leadership and interaction behaviour. Personal development decisions call for a positive attitude toward feedback and active willingness to improve one's competence as a leader. Developing oneself requires changing one's internal thinking patterns. What is particularly important from the competence development perspective is the ability to recognize and regulate one's emotions and ways of reacting emotionally.[152] Developing one's leadership and interaction skills requires becoming more aware of one's emotions and being able to deal with them. Leaders have to be able to listen to other people and take their views and feelings into account.[153] This is called empathy.

> **Interaction skills show in leadership behaviour in the following ways:**
> - As an ability to analyse and understand human relationships
> - As an ability to negotiate and resolve conflicts
> - As self-confidence, and presentation and interaction skills
> - As friendliness and taking care of others
> - Promoting openness and group cohesion
> - Cooperation skills

7.2 Developing self-knowledge

Self-experience is the core of the personality of every individual. It refers to one's relationship with oneself. Self-experience shapes itself in interaction between an individual and the environment.[154] Self-knowledge refers to one's personal understanding of oneself, one's feelings, strengths, areas one should work on and motives guiding one's behaviour. It means you know who and what kind of a person you are. Self-knowledge guides one's thoughts, feelings and will to actualize one's potential and find a balance in life, that is, being successful.[155] Its scope largely determines how one is able to use one's potential.[156] Self-knowledge helps an individual to overcome their fears and understand and accept difference in themselves and others. Good self-knowledge increases well-being and helps build good self-confidence. A leader's self-knowledge shapes itself over time and as they get more experience of leadership.[157]

Improving one's leadership and interaction skills requires getting to know oneself better. From the perspective of developing oneself as a leader, self-knowledge can be illustrated by the Johari Window (Luft and Ingman).[158] The Johari Window (Figure 11) consists of four entities created around two axes, namely openness and processing of feedback. Openness refers to the extent to which you share information about yourself with others. Processing feedback refers to the extent to which one seeks, receives and understands feedback given by others.
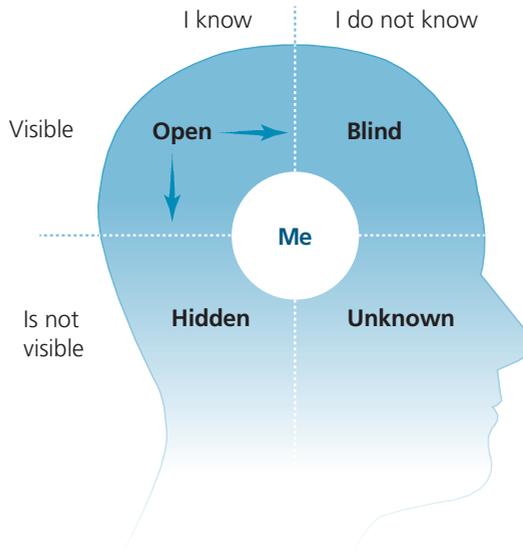
FIGURE 11. The Johari Window as a tool for improving self-knowledge.

The two squares on the left-hand side of the window, an open and a hidden area of self describe one's understanding of oneself. Those are things that one knows about oneself. They may be facts, feelings, fears, beliefs or sources of motivation. On the upper two squares, an open and a blind area of self describe other people's understanding of the individual concerned. The "unknown" square on the bottom on the right is an area that contains things about the self that the person concerned is still unaware of and others can not see, either.

You have the best conditions for successful leadership when the "open" self is the largest of the windows. Other people see the person's behaviour the way they perceive it themselves. By collecting other people's feedback on your behaviour that falls within your blind spot, you can enlarge your open area while reducing the blind spot.[159] It is important to notice that working with feedback to develop your self image does not mean you are changing your personality. Increasing awareness by analysing experiences, one's thoughts and emotions enables one to modify (fine tune) one's behaviour. An interaction survey attached to the leadership and instructor training programme helps one to work on one's self-knowledge from the interaction skills perspective.

The **open self** is the area where behaviour is expressed freely. It is the part of self one wants others to feel and see. The larger the area, the easier it is for anyone to express themselves and interact with others. The more you trust other people, the more open you dare be. The open self is the area representing good interaction and leadership behaviour.

The **blind self** is the part of behaviour seen by others, but not seen by the individual involved. Others may find someone's behaviour haughty, for example, or that they interrupt others without noticing it themselves. Habits or habitual ways of doing things often fall within the blind self area. One learns things about oneself from a new perspective, if constructive feedback is given by someone else. The blind area becomes thus smaller and the open area respectively larger. The blind self is the difference between one's self-knowledge and observations by other people.

The **hidden self** refers to different things and feelings one does not want to disclose to anyone. It is all right to keep some things to oneself, but it is important to keep a certain balance with the open self area. People do not usually want to reveal feelings they consider negative, such as nervousness, fear, anger or other personal shortcomings. If someone has a tendency of hiding one's thoughts and feelings too much, it takes up too much their energy and their behaviour comes across as fake. The hidden self hampers open interaction.

The **unknown self** is an area not known to oneself or others, either: sometimes, it is hard to understand oneself, for example, one may be scared of something without knowing why. But it is the core of behaviour many things stem from. The unknown self contains our hidden resources and potential.

7.3 Personal development plan as a tool of internal feedback

The personal development plan is one of the key tools supporting personal development. It has an objective of supporting individuals' growth and personal development as leaders, encourage them to assess their behaviour and put the information obtained from feedback into good use. Writing a personal development plan requires self-knowledge, forming a self-image as well as recognizing and acknowledging facts to make growth and development as a leader happen. Group discussions, team work sessions and feedback discussions invite people to share their experiences, improve their thinking and compare their thoughts to other people's ideas, which leads to active interaction.

Leadership and instructor training courses provided for conscripts include reflection on one's own conduct as an instructor, leadership and good interaction,
- developing one's self-knowledge using the JOHARI test
- analysis on feedback received on leadership and instruction performance
- self- and peer evaluation in line with the deep leadership model (interpretation of profile)
- personal development plans drawn up in the leadership period and reflection tasks related to one's progress.

> The personal development plan is to serve as the learner's self-development memory.

One starts writing one's personal development plan during the NCO or reserve officer course based on feedback, open peer evaluation and a possible leadership or interaction profile. The personal development plan gets supplemented by leadership experiences accrued during the leadership period, feedback, increased self-knowledge and team work. Producing and maintaining a personal development plan provide support for a learner's internal feedback and reflection on one's own behaviour.

A personal development plan achieved in the online learning environment is a learning-diary type entity in which one lists strengths of one's development and areas still needing to be worked on from the beginning of leadership training up until the end of the leadership period. The instructor can acquaint themselves and comment on the plan and thus support the learner's progress. This, however, does not replace the personal period feedback discussions between the instructor and trainee.

Period feedback discussions are intended to be held at least twice a year in the course of the leadership period after collecting a profile and analysing it. The first period feedback discussion is held right at the beginning of the leadership period and the last one at the end. The final discussion also serves as the conscript leader's final feedback. The period feedback discussion uses the profile and feedback received on leadership and instructor performance as reference. Before the discussion, the trainee has to reflect on the feedback and write their observations in the personal development plan. The period feedback discussion is a learning situation in which it is important to hear the trainee's own thoughts on the feedback first including their observations. Then, the instructor gives their justified observations. As a result of the feedback discussion, the trainees should have a clear picture of their key strengths and development needs as leaders. This provides a basis for a development decision and concrete development statement.[160]

The personal development plan includes five areas for which the trainee tries to identify contributing factors based their feedback, self-knowledge and self-evaluation.

The structure o the personal development plan:
1. **Strengths** are defined based on open peer feedback or a produced profile and open feedback.
2. Development needs are defined based on the profile and open feedback. One or two **development needs** should be specified. Often, working on one area also provides support for strengthening the other behaviour areas as well.

3. The **personal development decision** gets detailed after the identification of development needs. The trainee selects one key goal from their specified development needs to serve as a basis for their personal development decision. One dimension of the deep leadership model (enthusiasm,trust, learning, respect, need to be controlling or passivity) is often selected. Professional competence improves with training and experience. Impacts of behaviour (happiness, efficiency, desire to apply oneself) change when the learner modifies their leadership or interaction behaviour.

4. The **personal development statement** takes shape based on the selected personal development decision. The statement is short, to the point and realisable, and it shows in everyday activities.

5. To make the **personal development statement concrete**, with the help of the questions below, the trainee lists practical measures that they intend to take to modify their interaction behaviour in the future.
   - What will I not do in the future anymore?
   - What will I do less in the future?
   - What will I do more in the future?
   - What will I do differently in the future?

The personal development builds up as the result of the trainee's own work. The key content of the personal development plan involves writing down the personal development decision and statement. Through internal feedback, the personal development plan comes to reflect the clear emotional and volitional state being acquired by the learner with regard their self-development. In their personal development decision, the trainees give reasons why they want to develop as stated in their decision.

> The personal development plan provides support for growing and developing as a leader in the leadership period. The final update of the personal development plan in the leadership period lays a foundation for developing as a leader in the reserve.

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8 Making use of leadership training in the reserve

In the Defence Forces, leadership and instructor training, and leading people base on the principles of deep leadership. The principles of deep leadership correspond well with the expectations set by society for modern leadership and interaction behaviour. Added value is brought to the Defence Forces' leadership training by 360 * evaluations of interaction behaviour collected during the training, an opportunity to get practice in various leadership and instructor tasks and a comprehensive feedback system providing support for growing and improving one's competence as a leader.

8.1 Improving one's leadership and interaction behaviour in the reserve

The goal of the leadership and instructor training programme is to build a basis of attitudes, knowledge and skills for the trainees during conscript service, so that they can then lead and train their own wartime unit. The training is focused on goal-oriented interaction from the deep leadership perspective and on developing modern pedagogical skills. The objective of leadership training is that the leader masters the principles of leading their unit and developing their competence according to the deep leadership model in different situations and operating environments. The objective of **instructor training** is that the leader can train their own unit to the level stated in the unit capability requirements.

> After completing the leadership and instructor training programme the leader must be able to independently lead and train their own unit.

The leadership and instructor training programme is a 20 credit (560 hours) study module, that is completed during the Non-Commissioned Officer (NCO) and Reserve Officer Courses and the leadership period. The leadership and instructor training programme consists of leadership and training theory studies as well as practical training during the Non-Commissioned Officer (NCO) and Reserve Officer Courses and the leadership period. The training programme's feedback system supports the trainee's growth and development as a leader and an instructor, and encourages an open feedback culture. Leadership training opens up an avenue for applying for military professions.

The leadership and instructor training programme starts life-long professional development as a leader of people. The programme creates a basis and a positive attitude to developing one's own interaction behaviour also after military service. The deep leadership model provides a model, tools and a life-long learning path for growing and developing one's competence as a leader also for use in the reserve.

Those in leadership training have an opportunity to take voluntary supplementary leadership and pedagogical courses in the Defence Forces' online learning environment in their free time. These studies comprise eight credits (8 cr.) They are provided by the National Defence University. The National Defence University provides a certificate for successfully completed studies.

The Reserve Leader Courses provided by the National Defence Training Association (NDTA) provide a good basis for improving one's skills as a leader in the reserve using the deep leadership theoretical model and practise. One the course, one learns and revises what makes up an individual's functional capacity and a unit's performance. Feedback is collected, and a personal development plan is produced based on the feedback. The course covers how openness and giving and receiving feedback create a foundation for self-knowledge which constitutes a basis for learning and personal development. The course also covers challenges for leadership posed by the modern battle field, impacts of battle stress on leadership and those under one's leadership, the importance of communication, basics of military sociology, the power and responsibility of the leader as well as ethics and the rules of armed conflict. The courses also involve a range of practical exercises: the trainees take part in different kinds of civilian and military leadership check situations. They get feedback on their conduct and, thus, an opportunity to improve their skills as leaders.

8.2 Advantages of the Defence Forces leadership training in civilian life

It is often possible to have study credits for leadership training recognized by civilian educational establishments and included in their studies. Policies of transferring credits vary, however, from one study programme and educational establishment to another. One has to be active when applying for recognition of one's studies or having them accepted as a substitution for similar studies of the educational establishment concerned. The information in the electronic leadership file should be saved and introduced so that the prior learning could be recognized.

Leadership training will be useful in civilian life[161], even if the credits could not be directly transferred as part of the rest of one's studies. The Defence Forces is one of the rare places that provide young people with leadership training. According to the final feedback given by conscripts, almost 90 per cent of those having received leadership training estimated that it would be useful in civilian life. The Defence Forces' deep leadership model works extremely well for the civilian leadership environment, because it bases on the principles of transformational leadership originally developed for civilian leadership.[162] Leadership training has been perceived as an asset when applying for studies or a job.

The advantages gained from leadership training do not limit themselves to skills beneficial only for leaders. According to a study, participating in leadership training was perceived as having improved the trainees' individual skills, organizational and interaction skills. When it came to improving one's personal skills, focus was placed on an ability to set an example for others, ability to take the initiative, working under stress and assuming responsibility. Leadership training contributed to organizational skills by focusing on an ability to delegate tasks and set schedules, keep deadlines and reach goals. Interaction skills improved in particular in skills involving listening, discussing, team work, and encountering people in person.[163]

> Leadership refers to goal-oriented interaction which involves skills needed by everyone of us regardless of our position when we are working with others.

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3

Introduction to Wartime Leadership

This part looks at the various phenomena of the battlefield and of combat from the perspective of command and leadership. The character of war and battle have been described on a general level, based on modern battlefield descriptions. The character of war and battle are partially timeless or something that change slowly, even though they are in constant change.

1 Requirements Set by Wartime Operating Environment

1.1 Character of War and Character of Combat

"The overall character of war has not changed. It is still the use of extreme force and violence to achieve political or other extensive goals. What is changing is the essence or manifestation of war, in other words how and by what means are wars fought. Everything else around us is undergoing similar changes. Every factor of war is simple in principle, but the whole is not."[164]

The Finnish Defence Forces is led using the same principles during peacetime and wartime: a key concept is a hierarchical organisation. During wartime command and leadership is executed through mission command, where the superior or higher echelon gives a task to the subordinate and determines the desired end state. The subordinate can then decide on the details of how they execute the task and achieve that end state.

Operations are planned, and tasks, capabilities and support are divided so that the commanders are able to execute operations independently, while striving to achieve the objectives set by higher command. The subordinate is given sufficient resources and freedom of action, so that they are able to continue the operation without guidance from higher echelon if the situation changes. We must account for the vulnerabilities of the Finnish Defence Forces operating environment and our systems, and prepare to continue our operations even if command and control (C2) connections are disrupted.[165]

War and combat can be defined as a violent clash between two organised parties that use military force. War in itself can be seen to exist on a wide spectrum. It can be very large-scale actions between two states or actions between two smaller parties that barely exceeds the threshold of violence. There is rarely total peace or total war[166] and in the modern character of war or combat there might not even be any use of kinetic force against the other party. The opportunities for having an effect on things have expanded significantly, to include information and cyber operations.

In war, a leader comes face to face with factors that have a negative impact on achieving ones own goals or objectives. These factors are made up of the violence of war, the danger, of physical struggles, suffering and uncertainty. These are commonly referred to as friction. The friction of war is a factor that makes simple things hard.[167] The danger included in war and combat, the physical stress, the difficulty of obtaining information and the friction together make up the atmosphere of war, and it becomes a medium that hinders all activity: this can be called general friction. The concept of friction can be modelled and made more concrete by categorizing it into three different gaps it produces: a knowledge gap, alignment gap and effects gap.

A knowledge gap can be defined as a difference between what we would like to know about something and what we actually know. As a commander makes decisions and plans, they do not have all of the information available that they would want. Thus the decisions are partly based on assumption and assessments. These assumptions and assessments might later turn out to be untrue and the knowledge gap leads to friction.

The alignment gap can be defined as a difference between what we want people to do and what they actually do. The subordinates will execute the received task, either consciously or subconsciously, in a different way than how the commander intended in their own plans. In the alignment gap, the friction is created because things not advancing as the commander ordered.

The alignment gap can be defined as a difference between what we expect to happen and what actually happens. In the alignment gap the friction is created when the subordinates execute the tasks as planned and ordered but the actions still do not achieve the desired end result.[168]

It is also important to understand that the opponent (enemy) is not just an immobile or lifeless being that you operate against, but that it has its own plans and objectives that it executes while trying to prevent the other side from executing their plans. Therefore, war is dynamic, active, and something that is constantly in motion.[169]

In addition to being dynamic, war and combat can be defined to be complex. Both of the warring parties are made up of countless of small parts. Individuals form fireteams, fireteams form platoons, platoons form companies etc. All of these elements contribute to awareness. Each part is part of a larger entity and works with others to achieve the common objective. When working together with others, everyone strives to achieve their own objective while adapting to their own situation. Everyone will face friction, uncertainty and chaos and will possibly cause them to others both to friendlies and enemies.[170]

Military organizations have tried to solve the challenges of dynamic complexity for a long time. Dynamic complexity is a concept used to describe the non-linear or chaotic operating environment that military organizations face. It includes the concept of friction: friction is something that appears suddenly and slows down the organization.[171]

Despite technological advancements, war is about humans and the human dimension of war plays a key role. War is about violence and the element of danger. Danger affects both the leader and those being led. A military leader has to understand the effect of fear on themselves and on those they lead.[172] Uncertainty can also be seen as one characteristic of war. Uncertainty creates friction, but because uncertainty is such an all-encompassing characteristic of war and combat, we will look at it separately. In war you operate in constant uncertainty.

Uncertainty is those things that you are in the dark about: You do not know what the enemy is going to do; what challenges the terrain might pose, or even what the situation of friendly forces is. You can decrease uncertainty but you cannot get rid of it completely. Therefore, decision-making is partially built upon possibilities and probabilities. Also, pure chance, or a small, inconsequential detail can be the deciding factor in some chain of events[173].

The character of war and battle is thus partially non-linear or chaotic. Predicting the outcome is difficult because there are so many variables. You could compare the non-linear character of war to forecasting the weather, which follows certain patterns. Tomorrow's forecast is fairly accurate, or that it is colder in the winter than in the summer. However, due to the number of variables, it is impossible to forecast that on Tuesday seven months from now, the will be a certain kind of weather. The way how you see the essence of war, influences what kind of leadership model you will use.[174] The leadership model you use will try to tackle the problem of dynamic complexity.

From the perspective of the military leader, the character of war and battle, the leadership model derived from the character and mission command place demands on both the individual and the leader. Individuals should have initiative, be responsible and have self-confidence. From the leader's and leadership's perspective, the unit must know its tactics, techniques and procedures, its actions must be simple and fast enough and it must act decisively. The unit members must have mutual trust with one another and the subordinates must have sufficient freedom of action while assigning tasks.[175] The leader must understand how they themselves react to stressful situations and how the stressful situations impact the people they lead. You cannot remove the friction of war and combat; you have to accept that it exists and learn to act despite it. A leader can take advantage of the friction and cause friction for the opponent. The best way to do that is to be faster than your enemy and to maintain the initiative. The essential thing is to speed in terms of time but to be faster than your enemy.

The tools of a military leader include leading by example, command by orders and mission command and maintaining your ability to function. The leader will decide which of these methods they want to use and stress in each situation (Figure 12).

In command by orders, the leader will issue precise orders that include how the task is to carried out (what has to be done and how). In command by orders the speed of action is tied to the leader's powers of observation, the speed of their decision-making and the speed of task execution. Knowing how to command by orders is a requirement for applying the other leadership methods and it is suitable for command during basic training and in some time sensitive combat situations.

As trust and knowledge and skills increase the subordinates can be led using the principles of mission command. **Mission command** is the principle for dispersed leadership and command, where the leader delegates their authority by issuing a task that includes the purpose (what has to be done and why).

The freedom of action that is delegated enables the subordinate to select how they execute the task (how to complete the task) A military leader's authority is based on their position in the organization and the received task. Authority can be delegated regarding a specific area, command level or issue, and time-related conditions can be added. The actions can be steered with constraints (what at least needs to be done) and restraints (what cannot be done). The difficulty of the given task must be commensurate to the subordinate's skills and you must provide sufficient resources for executing the task.

Leading according to the principles of mission command requires trust and a good level of training and understanding of the Commander's Intent/Concept of Operations two levels above. When using mission command, the subordinate is expected to act independently, to have initiative and to be able to act as the situation requires. If the changed situation does not match the task received, it is the duty of the subordinate to fulfil the commander's intent by all means necessary, even if it means violating the task. Mission command is the recommended method for command in complex operating environments, such as in fast-paced combat situations and when giving orders regarding major or long-term issues. Mission command is best suited for leading a highly-trained unit, such as a readiness unit, a crisis management unit or experts.
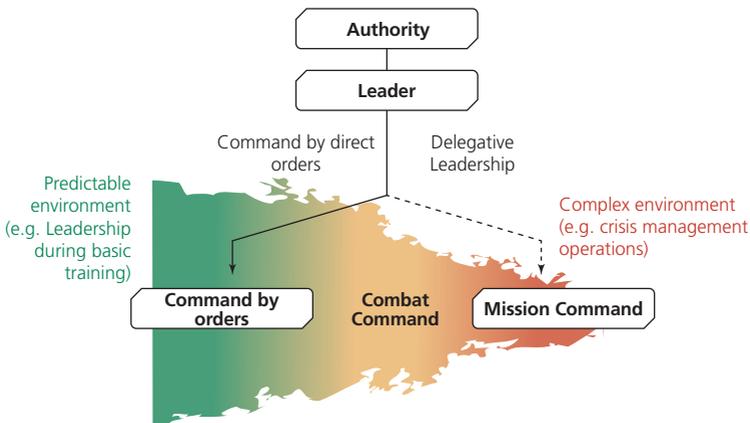
FIGURE 12. Military Leader's Tools.

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2. Planning and Decision-Making Process and Ability to Give Orders

Mission command is a key tenet of Finnish military leadership. At its simplest, according to mission command, the task received by the leader may only include the objective i.e. what the leader has to achieve with their unit. The leader defines how they execute the mission, but they must adapt their actions to fit the commander's intent and the objective of the higher echelon.

> For a leader accomplishing the mission is the purpose of all activity.[176]

Of the time allotted, the leader should use 1/3 of the reserved planning and preparation time and give 2/3 of the time for their lower echelons. If necessary, the action can be accelerated using parallel planning and execution so the lower echelon does not have to wait that the higher echelon has completed its entire process.[177]

2.1 Planning and Decision-Making Process

The planning and decision-making process offers the commander a tool that they can use to systematically and logically assess the requirements related to their assigned task. Using the process ensures that all the factors relating to task execution are considered. Additionally, the planning process helps determine the most effective means for achieving the given task.[178]

Receipt of mission starts the process for understanding the situation and mission, which in turn provides a basis for the eventual decision. The decision is a basis for how the task will be executed. The decision is used to draft an operation plan (OPLAN), which is executed. An essential part of task execution is different types of orders that delegate responsibility to subordinates. The planning and decision-making process is cyclical and its main product, the operation plan (OPLAN), is continuously assessed and updated.

There are various descriptions of the planning and decision-making process in the Finnish Defence Forces, which include the special characteristics or standing operating procedures of a unit or a headquarters. The example used here is the planning and decision-making process of an infantry company commander. This planning and decision-making process includes all the key elements that a commander has to consider while planning how they intend to execute the task.

In all phases of the planning and decision-making process (Figure 13) you must give warning orders, advance information and requirements to the subordinates in otder to accelerate the process.[179]
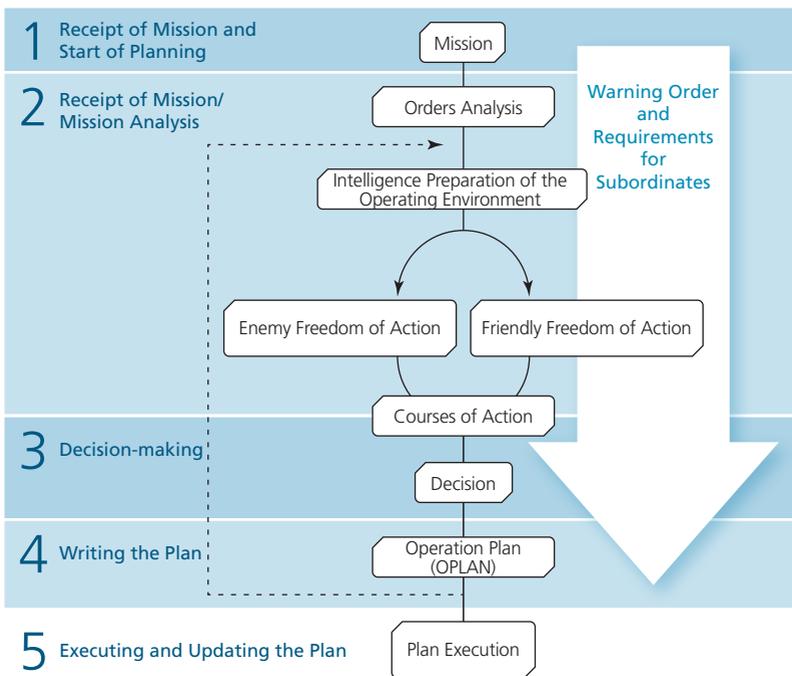
FIGURE 13. Planning and Decision-Making Process.

2.2 Mission Analysis

Understanding the situation and mission acts as a basis for the commander's decision-making. Its purpose is to find different ways to execute the assigned task. During this phase the commander will start to formulate their decision on how to execute the task. Mission analysis consists of the following:

- Orders analysis
- Assessing the operating conditions (for example the effects of the terrain, weather, season and time of day)
- Assessing enemy and friendly troops and support
- Time management.[180]

After the mission analysis is initiated, the commander will begin preparations for future actions. This is done by issuing warning orders to subordinates regarding the future task – this accelerates starting the actual task. If the situation and time permit, include terrain reconnaissance and contacting other units in the Area of Responsibility and neighbours in the analysis.

Timelines are an essential part of mission analysis. During mission analysis the commander will get a clear understanding of all of the actions that are time-sensitive. The commander has to make sure that the subordinates have enough time to carry out the assigned tasks.

Orders Analysis

The first step in mission analysis is orders analysis. During the orders analysis the commander assesses what concrete things they need to achieve and how the given task links to higher commander's intent and the desired end state. They must plan how to execute the given task in the terrain of their area of operation within the given time. This forms a timeline that includes the preparations and key actions needed to fulfil the task.[181]

Assessing the Enemy

When assessing the enemy, the company commander assesses the following:

- The strength and order of battle of the enemy in their area of operations, its type and objectives
- Use of forces; where can the enemy initiate contact and what are the decisive points
- Actions and direction after engaging in combat
- Where are the enemy's command posts?
- From where and how does the enemy support its forces
- Effect of own forces' actions on enemy action
- Effect of operating conditions on the enemy.

The estimate is supported by higher HQ's estimate on enemy course of action.

Assessing Own Troops and Support

When assessing own troops, support etc, the company commander assesses the following:
- Situation in the AOR (own troops, civilians, situation clear/unclear)
- Requirements set by the future operation type (offensive, defensive etc) and time available for preparations
- Need and phase line for friendly reconnaissance and force protection
- What defensive and offensive methods can be used and in which areas in terrain
- Key points in terrain for friendly operations and critical infrastructure to be retained
- What enemy units can we get fire on
- Friendly support possibilities (logistics situation, cover and facilitating its use, command and control, use of roads and manoeuvrability, indirect fire, counter-mobility and combined operations with other units)
- Impact of the conditions and the performance capability of the unit.

The basis for the assessments are the company's task and their readiness in light of the task.[182]

Time Management

A timeline can used for time management. A timeline is drawn from the present to the moment when the assigned task must effect the enemy. When forming the timeline, the leader will determine the priority of tasks that need to be initiated immediately and matters that will be executed later. You should place the events on the timeline starting from the end. Using a timeline helps identifying problematic points in the execution and helps reserving the necessary time for all activities.[183]
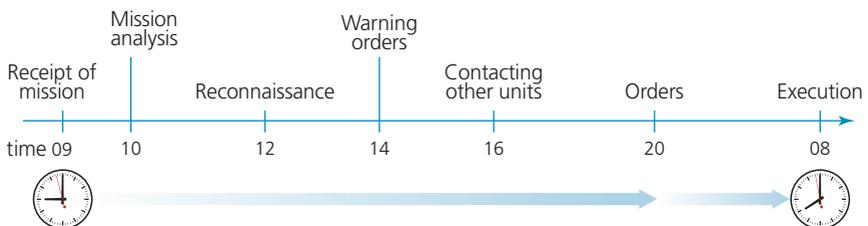
FIGURE 14. Example of a timeline.

Courses of Action

The mission analysis ends with drafting possible Courses of Action. The Courses of Action are based on the assessment of our own and the enemy's actions. When the enemy's Courses of Action are being developed one can also develop friendly Courses of Action at the same time. If they are not developed in parallel, developing friendly COAs will be started as soon as the likely enemy Course of Action is ready. When the Courses of Action are finished, they will be compared to find the most suitable one.[184]

2.3 Decision-Making

A decision is the coherent result of mission analysis. It is based on the best friendly Course of Action or as a result of combining the best sides of various Courses of Action. The decision includes commander's intent on the execution of the task, and it must correspond with the OPLAN of the higher echelon, the desired end state and estimate of the enemy's activities. The decision states how the task will be carried out. You must be able start issuing orders to subordinates based on the decision. You sometimes have to make the decision with incomplete information if time is short. It is better to initiate the right kind of actions than to prolong the decision-making and be late with the decision.[185]

2.4 Writing the Plan

The decision will be the basis of the operation plan (OPLAN) and you have to be able to initiate actions with it. Time permitting, the decision will be updated into a operation plan (OPLAN). The operation plan (OPLAN) will include tasks to lower echelons and a more carefully prepared estimate of enemy actions. The plan will also consider the enemy's potential actions and respond to them.[186] The OPLAN is constantly updated based on the commander's situation assessment. The plan is a tool for issuing orders and for preparations. By drafting the plan you make sure that all essential things are planned, ordered and prepared.[187]

2.5 Decision or Plan Execution – Issuing Orders

The ability to execute is the ability to convert the decision or plan into practical actions. Even the best decision or plan is doomed to fail, if you cannot execute it. The decision or plan execution starts with issuing orders. The order can be defined as an expression of the commander's intent.

Issuing orders is the most important phase of the planning and decision-making process and the ability to give orders is one of the fundamental skills of a soldier. The order defines what the subordinate much achieve and what they are responsible for.

So, with the order the leader delegates responsibility down the chain.[188]

> A good order is short, unambiguous, correctly timed and executable.

You must always prepare an order. The current situation dictates how much time you have to prepare. A poorly prepared or confusing order will not lead to the desired end result, because then the subordinates do not have a clear understanding of the commander's intent. The skill of giving orders is regularly rehearsed. Using standardized order templates makes it easier to prepare orders and makes them more understandable.

A preliminary (warning) order is issued before the actual order. It includes information about the general nature of the next task and about its execution timeline. It enables the subordinates' own planning and preparation for the task to come. The purpose of a warning order is to give the subordinates time to prepare themselves and their unit for the future task. The order can be given collectively to all subordinates or separately only to those that it concerns. A good warning order makes the execution of the actual task much faster.

A collective order is given to all subordinates at the same time. It requires that all the leaders can safely assemble in the same place. Orders that are given collectively are usually prepared and they concern a new task or the next combat phase. A collectively issued order saves time because the leader does not have to give an order about common matters multiple times. Likewise, the benefit of a collectively issued order is that possible problems arising during the orders briefing can be solved during the briefing and the information will be passed on to all subordinates.[189] The orders briefing also gives the subordinates the possibility to coordinate actions. The drawback of a collectively issued order can be that it does not enable direct social contact between the person giving the order and the person receiving it.

An order can also be issued as a **Fragmentary Order**. With a separately issued (fragmentary) order the subordinates will not be assembled in one place but the leader will visit the subordinates and give the order. If the orders briefing is long, such as in the case of a company commander's decision, giving separate orders will take much time. A separate order provides direct social contact between the commander and the subordinate and usually improves the commander's situational awareness as they visit their subordinates. A separate order is usually used in fast and limited situations, such as during combat. You should also use fragmentary orders if the issued orders do not apply to all subordinates.[190]

The most important thing in an order is that the subordinate under-stands the objectives of the higher, what they need to do and what they are responsible for. The order enables continuing the mission even if communications are lost. From the recipients' perspective, the order should include key elements that relate to the execution of the order.

If an order is too detailed, it does not enable following the principles of mission command. The order does not define how it is executed, but rather what the subordinate needs to achieve. The recipient of the order will decide how they execute the order within the provided boundaries. The recipient of the order needs to understand the higher commander's intent and how their task relates to the commander's intent.

During **the orders briefing** the order must be visualized by using the terrain. If it is not possible, the order is explained using a terrain model or a map. The attention of those attending the orders briefing should be directed at the most pressing issue of that moment. When giving an order, do not explain: communicate and speak clearly. An orders briefing (orders group) is carefully prepared. If the subordinates need to copy markings from the map to their own maps, this is done either before the briefing or after it, so that the briefing itself advances logically without interruptions. This also makes it easier for the subordinates to follow the orders briefing.

The person issuing the order will draw the most important markings on the subordinate's map. The orders briefing must not be ended and people must not leave before all of the attending personnel have un-derstood their task. Have the subordinates do a back brief so that the person issuing the order can be sure that the key parts of the order have been understood. At the end of the briefing, give the subordi-nates the opportunity to ask questions. During the orders briefing will coordinate their activities and agree on any necessary practical matters.

After receiving the order, the subordinate must have enough time to execute it. You can also offer assistance for the planning or ask how they are going to execute the task, Whether or not the subordinate needs support with the planning depends on their experience and their personal characteristics. Different types of formats make issuing orders easier. They are often unit or task-specific. Here you can see one format.

FIGURE 15. Example order format.

Order format	Details
Situation Key information that the order recipient needs about the enemy, friendly forces and conditions.	Include at least • Neighbouring units • friendly forces operating in the order recipients AOR, and • an estimate on the enemy's unit organisation, equipment and activity.
Mission The objective of the unit.	A leader must always keep the received task clear in their mind as they plan activities. End state of the unit's actions as set by higher echelon. The task must be written down word for word.
Execution The commander's plan about how the task is carried out.	• The **Commander's Intent** is a few sentences long (phased) description of how to execute the task.Is the most important part of the order that every subordinate must understand. • **Order of Battle** It determines the unit organisation for the task execution. • **Tasks to subordinates:** breaks down the Commander's Intent as individual tasks for each subordinate. • **Coordinating instructions:** sets requirements for subordinates about coordination between them or with attachments.
Support Requirements about branch actions and instructions about the use of roads and vehicles.	• **direct fire and anti-armour bullet point** determines the kill zones for those weapons. Key targets and focus of how ammunition is used. • **Indirect fire:** requirements for forward observer about supporting the platoon's combat. • **Air defence:** includes requirements for aerial observation, alert procedures, use of heavy machine guns against aerial targets and personal air defence at a minimum. • **Engineering:** requirements for obstacles, nuisance mine-fields, charges, EOD and construction. • **Signal:** use of signal equipment, construction of phone lines and the construction of communication lines and the location of the closest signal stations. • **Admin/Logistics:** all logistics related matters, focusing on medical, ammunition resupply and rations. • **Reconnaissance and security:** requirements about observation posts, security patrols and reconnaissance. • **Cover and concealment:** fortification, camouflage and information and document security.
Command & Signal The leader's plan about how and where they will lead operations or combat.	Should include at least • Order briefings • Command locations and signal equipment • Authority delegation • Succession of command, and • codes, passwords and codenames.
Instructions Leader's detailed instructions on how they want they above tasks to be executed.	May also include possible restrictions and Rules of Engagement.

2.6 Monitoring Execution, Operational Picture and Situational Awareness

Executing the plan and successful actions after the execution require a good and somewhat accurate operational picture. In its simplest form an **operational picture** is the number of friendly and enemy forces, their type, direction and actions at a specific moment. The operational picture must be the same on all command levels. Situation information must be constantly exchanged between different levels of the organization. Real-time and accurate operational picture enables the leader to make decisions at the right time. The leader will form their own situation picture based on self-obtained and shared information. The leader will compile their own situation picture actively in order to maintain the initiative.

Situational awareness is the leader's overall understanding of the situation, its causes and consequences. Situational awareness helps to see the entire situation and answer questions, such as how did we get here and how might the situation develop. Therefore, it is not enough that the leader understands the actions of their own troops but also the action of the enemy. Shared situational awareness is a significant benefit in rapidly changing situations where constant information exchange related to the operational picture is not always possible. Common situational awareness creates a basis for a successful mission, and enables the application of mission command. It is built around the commander's intent and thus the commander's intent is one of the key parts of an order.

When talking about the operational picture and situational awareness it is vital to understand that both are needed for achieving the end state and for effective leadership. An excellent operational picture does not in itself tell how the situation develops, i.e. it does not automatically create situational awareness, nor does momentary lack of an operational picture rob the commander of existing situational awareness. Leadership is the leader steering the actions in the right direction and setting objectives for their subordinates based on their own situational awareness.

Monitoring the execution of the orders is one of the leader's ways of building and maintaining their own operational picture. Supervision consists of the leader's active measures to obtain information about their subordinates' activities and the phase of the activities. The supervision is done by assisting and guiding the subordinates, by reviewing the subordinates' decisions, by listening to their briefings and by conducting inspections of various kinds.[191]

2.7 Pre-Emptive Command

Pre-emptive command refers to the actions that the leader uses to manage their time and to prepare for possible changes. The objective of pre-emptive command is that the leader does not have to react to possible problems or changes in the situation, but they can pre-empt them in advance. In order to achieve this, the leader needs to be able to make simple and clear decisions. The time between receiving the task and executing it must be as short as possible.

Means for pre-emptive command include:
- Acquiring information about the situation
- Mission analysis with subordinates
- Planning for alternative solutions and wargaming
- Sorting problematic areas
- Standardized instructions and operating procedures
- Use of warning orders and communicating
- Planning and preparing the on-order task simultaneously with the actual task execution
- Making proposals for the higher command's Concept of Operations.[192]

2.8 Biases and Heuristics Affecting Decision-Making

Decision-making is choosing from given options or from options you have created. A decision solves a problem and the decision-making requires processing the information so that you get potential solutions. Decision-making in uncertain situations is based on beliefs about probabilities. Calculating and discerning probabilities is laborious, but with heuristics the mind creates simplifications that decrease strain on the brain. Heuristics may cause systematic distortions in thinking. They do not automatically lead to a wrong decision but people should be aware of them.[193]

The decision can be made as a result of rational thinking where the decision-maker considers the input-output ratio, maximises the output and makes their decision logically, based on facts. A decision can also be made intuitively. Intuition can be defined as instinctive understanding. If the decision-maker is trained and experienced in their job, intuition adds more weight to the decision along with the facts. A professional's intuition is based on observations and comparing those observations with previous experiences. Therefore, an experienced individual is able to identify the clues provided by the situation better than someone with less experience. A professional's experience-based choice can be called intuition, whereas an inexperienced person's correct choice can be put down on luck.[194]

Over 150 different cognitive bias' and distortions have been identified. They can be categorized into different distortions and errors. Biases belonging to different categories can appear in all stages of decision-making.

- Observation
  - Are we missing something? Are we ignoring something important?
- Analyzing the observation
  - Are we putting enough weight on the observation? Is the observation extensive enough?
- Making the decision
  - What are the forces behind the decision? What will we do?[195]

Next, we will look at the for key bias' and heuristics' that affect decision making. They can be divided into association and assessment errors.

Availability bias is where the individual compares a new or unforeseen event to something they have experienced before because the memories are easily available. It is thought that the previous events reflect the future and increase the likelihood of an event. Personal experience about some event may increase a tendency for availability bias. Therefore, availability bias can decrease situation analysis and lead to a situation where you believe things will happen in a certain way because that is the way things have happened before.

Confirmation bias is one where you focus only on information that supports something you already believe. A confirmation bias is often highlighted in situations where emotions or strong established beliefs affect the assessment of the situation. Then, important information that is contrary to your beliefs may be completely overlooked.

Anchoring bias is one where you stick to the original information even when the situation changes. Another characteristic of this bias is that the piece of information received first heavily impacts how later information is interpreted. The plans made are usually based on positive developments an if you anchor yourself on that, you will not be able to adapt the decision to changing situations.

The **Representativeness** heuristic is related to stereotypes. If some event or person has characteristics that represent pieces of a larger entity, you easily connect them with each other. This can lead to the wrong conclusion during decision-making.[196]

You cannot completely remove biases or heuristics but you can decrease their impact by identifying them. A decision is always made based on some piece of information and conclusions drawn from that information. Usually, there is less information available for decision-making than is desired. Then you will more or less have to rely on intuition in decision-making. It is good to identify the biases affecting decision-making. You should also monitor your own decision-making. Nevertheless, the biases cannot prevent decision-making or to paralyse the action.

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3 Good Leader in Combat

The main task of the Finnish Defence Forces is the military defence of Finland, which includes securing the country's territorial integrity. Most of the leaders trained by the Defence Forces will be on the battlefield Operating Environment during wartime, regardless of what their Service is. Each leader has their own kind of unit, situation, task and operating environment. Still, all of the wartime leaders of the Finnish Defence Forces have the same goal: to be a good leader in combat. This requires successful command of troops.

In combat, the purpose of successful command in combat is to execute the given task by working together as a unit, while minimizing friendly casualties and maintaining performance. With good leadership you will achieve an end result that is better the combined effort of individual detachments or individuals.

We can look at the principles of good combat leadership via the Finnish experiences in the wars of the 20th Century and via historical manuals. They can then be compared with the general principles and means of combat leadership in the modern combat environment. The principles of good leadership on the battlefield answer the question: "What makes a good leader in combat?" The principles of good combat leadership can generally be applied in other leadership situations as well, because leadership in combat is still goal-oriented interaction, albeit in a fast-paced, multidimensional and dangerous environment.

3.1 Good Combat Leader Based on Wartime Experiences

"You have to attend a hell of a lot of schools so that you dare to make simple decisions. Otherwise you'll start to come up with all kinds of complex things. – – the only thing that helps in manage in war is a very simple order. You have to issue orders that even the private in the forward foxhole understands." (Lieutenant General A.F. Airo 1978)[197]

Military Publications and Literature Between the World Wars

Military manuals and military literature published before the Winter War (1939–1940) created a foundation for the Finnish art of war and Finnish military leadership during World War II. These publications mainly showed the personal observations and experiences gained by the Finnish Jaegers during World War I.[198]

Johtajan käsikirja (the Leader's Handbook) by Jaeger Major (later Lieutenant General) Unio Sarlin was published in 1920. The book included the following advice for military leaders: "A leader [sic] must never have a war council with subordinates, but act independently. -- Never act in haste. -- only the person who can control himself can control their

subordinates. -- An order must be: clear, decisive and short. -- do not meddle with the details, but give your subordinate leaders the freedom to choose how to carry out the task.[199]

Later publications highlighted more themes related to leadership. "A superior must be an instructor and educator for the subordinates. In order to act as an instructor they must fully master their subject."[200] A superior also had to win the trust of the subordinates. This was done by taking care of the subordinates and acting fairly towards them. The effect of the leader's personal example was vital, as was the importance of creating esprit de corps. Particularly important were the actions of the section leader as the immediate superior of their subordinates.[201]

FIGURE 16. Situation Report. Colonel Heiskanen giving a situation report to Marshal Manner-heim in September 1941. Major General Airo is on the left. Photo: SA-Kuva.

The manuals of the late 1920s and early 1930s stated more demands for leaders and gave them more advice: "A leader needs to be strong-willed, have a straightforward character, be uncompromisingly fair, have vast military knowledge and professional skills, as well as physical endurance."[202] a leader also had to be responsible and confident. They demand extreme effort from their subordinates when necessary, but they demand even more from themself.[203] Additionally, it was seen that "a leader must have special leader qualities, which are the strength of character, willingness to take responsibility, independence, clear judge-ment and intellect, bing calm and having imagination and skills."[204]

Colonel Niilo Hersalo perfectly summarized the pre-war views on combat leadership in 1935. To quote Col. Hersalo: "Frontline officers – even the most junior ones – must be men of action first and foremost. This requires that all military training must focus on developing character, spirit and will. They must be able to lead their troops in a way that is well-planned, sure and confident. It requires energetic performance, an eye for practical things and personal courage, a kind of set of specific characteristics, but additionally you also need a large helping of military sense."[205]

Wartime Experiences

"Our wartime experiences clearly demonstrate how large of a meaning it has that, based on their experiences, the soldiers can trust their leaders and their comrades in arms."[206] Within the wartime experiences, the experiences regarding leadership represent a wider perspective in a way: one that is not tied to a specific era.[207]

Collecting wartime experiences from World War II started in the spring of 1944 in Finland, in accordance with the instructions issued by the Defence Staff of the Finnish Defence Forces. It was estimated that the gained experiences could also be utilized in the post-war decades. According to the experiences, particularly the leader's will and the importance of morale were highlighted in combat. During the war years it was seen as particularly important that the leader was seen at the front, among their troops by the front line.[208]

" Experiences in the war taught us that a unit will fight as it is led, either well or poorly."[209] Officers with wartime experience highlighted multiple important factors about combat leadership in their interviews and writings. For example Lieutenant General (later General of the Infantry) Adolf Ehrnrooth highlighted the importance of trust between superior and subordinates, of esprit de corps and of leading by example from the front. At the same time he emphasized that the leader had to be himself, with their good and bad characteristics.[210]

Also other examples underlined the importance of leading from the from and being an example.[211] Likewise, mutual trust and the leader's responsibility were underlined.[212] Nor could the leader forget the overall picture that they were responsible for. "The leader's place is where ever they can best lead and command the entire situation from."[213] Other characteristics about combat leadership highlighted by experiences were the emotional resilience of both the unit and the leaders.[214]

Research literature can provide a more accurate picture. A research published in 1963 looked at company and battery commanders from the Winter War. A few key leadership characteristics were identified: The most important ones were the ability to act independently, having initiative and being a champion of sorts for the unit. Also the importance of the subordinates' trust, the importance of personality and humane treatment were emphasized as part of being a leader.

Creating and maintaining morale were also important factors when operating against a numerically superior enemy. During the Winter War even small units were given very demanding tasks. In these situations, the leaders often had to make decisions independently without support from their superiors.[215]

By the late 1970s views on leadership derived from wartime experiences had mostly remained the same. A final paper written in 1977 during War College looked at the leadership methods of distinguished front-line commanders. The most important highlighted factor was managing gear. The second factor, almost equally as important was professional skills. Other highlighted characteristics included determination and strength of character, fairness and physical and emotional resilience. The most important form of personal leadership was seen to be leading from the front, leading by example.[216]

Therefore, based on war experiences, the most important factors of command in combat are professionalism, being one's self, emotional and physical resilience, managing fear, humane treatment and looking after your subordinates, leading from the front by personal example, ability to act independently, initiative, mutual trust between the unit and the leader, fairness, determination and creating and maintaining morale.

Post-War Military Publications and Literature

Leadership experiences gained during the war were passed on in military publications and literature published after the war. Infantry manuals emphasized the importance of creating and maintaining morale as part of combat effectiveness[217]. The trust between the commander and the troops was the basis of that morale, and it was created by the commander's example. A leader/commander had to act unselfishly and responsibly and to demonstrate their professionalism and bravery, present themselves in a calm and determined manner and to shoulder the responsibility even in difficult situations.[218] "During war, command and leadership require absolute trust between the leader and the troops."[219]

In the 1950s they said the following about platoon leaders: "An absolute requirement for his actions is the unreserved trust and respect of his subordinates and that they respect him as a soldier and as a person. Especially important for a platoon leader is that he has a fair and manly manner, is mentally and physically resilient, sure-handed and has a good psychological eye for treating his subordinates in a just and positive way."[220] Tactics, techniques and procedures were highlighted in leading the platoon so that the assigned task was completed. In combat the leader had to act as an example, be resourceful, act fast and issue short and clear orders.[221] "Only simple plans lead to success."[222]

The key front-line leaders for the outcome of a battle were the section and platoon leaders, but also company commanders. The leaders had to have good judgement, initiative, ability to make and execute decisions, strength of character and will, appropriate behaviour, fairness and behavioural knowledge.[223] "A Section Commander is the closest role model for the men in his section. In combat, in addition to being a leader, he is also the champion of his section."[224] During combat every leader had to be in a place where they could lead and command the actions personally and by their own example.[225]

"Knowing yourself is vital for trying to understand and lead your subordinates."[226] By the end of the 1990s new characteristics emerged. The leader had to have even more self-knowledge and be aware of the importance of two-way interaction. A leader had to know their own personality and behaviour. The importance of the leader's behaviour and understanding it were heightened, because interaction is always two-way, even when leading. Subordinates expected their leader to show personal courage and to make decisions that were seen as correct. A leader had to be as fair and just as possible. Additionally they had to be a skilful and capable leader who also took responsibility for their subordinates.[227]

When you compare the wartime leadership experiences on the one hand and views on combat leadership presented in Finnish military manuals and journals, you can see that the same things are highlighted time and time again. The ideas about leadership that had been presented before the Winter War, withstood well the ordeal of fire that was war. The fact that the same themes from before the war were relayed to the military publications and literature after the war shows that these themes are rather timeless.

What Did We Learn From 20th Century Experiences?

In conclusion, it can be said that a few key aspects and operating procedures were highlighted in combat leadership from the early 20th Century until the turn of the millennium. They cannot be ranked precisely by importance because applying the before-mentioned factors was impacted considerably by the current situation, for example, or if the unit being led was a section or a regiment or something in between.

Success Factors for Command in Combat
- Professionalism, simple solutions and clear orders
- Being yourself, self-knowledge, confidence and understanding two-way interaction
- Emotional and physical endurance, controlling fear, bravery
- Humanity and taking care of your subordinates
- Leading from the front by personal example
- Ability to act independently, initiative
- Mutual trust between the unit and the leader
- Justice, fairness, unselfishness
- Calmness, determination and fortitude
- Creating and maintaining morale.

3.2 Means for Modern Combat Leadership and Command

The purpose of leadership is to achieve the desired end results by everyone in the unit working together. A good unit can combine its effort with good leadership and use the skills of the individuals to achieve the common goal. Good leadership has a key role in a successful end result and achieving the goal.

"Effective leaders lead successful teams that accomplish their mission and win. Ineffective leaders do not."[228]

In all their actions a leader must be able to maintain a balance in carrying out the principles of leadership.[229] A leader can give their subordinates too much responsibility or be too controlling. A leader may lead their troops too far out in front, putting their own life at risk and forgetting their responsibility in managing the bigger picture. On the other hand, a front-line leader can stay too far behind in the rear and lead their unit only with a radio and a map. A good leader chooses their command location and means of communication so that it suits the situation. Finding a balance is key in interaction that has an objective, especially combat.

Time-wise you can divide looking at command and leadership into three:
1. Preparing for combat
2. Command during combat
3. Post-combat actions.

Preparing for Combat

Successful leadership principles include preparation[230]. In order to survive combat, it is the duty of the organization, the commander and the individual soldier to carefully prepare for combat already before actual contact is made. If preparations and rehearsal is lacking, the unit will not be able to execute its task effectively.

The modern battlefield is a complex and demanding operating environment.[231] Combined arms operations with multiple units in a fast-paced environment makes command and control challenging. Although the development of weapon technology and C2 equipment has had an indirect impact on modern C2, the principles of command and control remain unchanged. Modern command and control in combat can be trained and rehearsed during peacetime for example with simulator-assisted exercises and in live exercises. Additionally, crisis management operations provide valuable experience on leadership and its impact when in different operating environments.

A commander's preparation for combat starts with leading yourself. After you know the task and the resources, you need to find out the time you have available and the options you have for action. Warning orders to subordinates start preparations and prepare the unit for a task to come.[232] Reserve enough time for the planning and decision-making. A typical leadership mistake for an inexperienced leader is that they prepare their orders too long and cause delays through that.

Training develops the unit's capability and readiness.[233] Military training develops physical, psychological, social and ethical performance to respond to the challenges of the battlefield or other crisis' operating environment.[234] In order to be able to train effectively, a leader must assess the level of their unit, the time and resources available and the main task of the unit. After that the training must be implemented as effectively as possible. The training should be tied to the unit's task and gradually simulate an operating environment that is as realistic as possible and that might even be more challenging than in reality. The unit must still get to experience successes during the training. If the unit is already received basic training, rehearsing the lower level leaders in command contributes to improving understanding, taking responsibility, and enables that the unit is able to fulfil its task even if the actual commander is incapacitated. Training also includes maintaining and restoring the unit's ability to function.

> Train as you fight!

An essential part of a military force's preparation and training for combat is covering possible casualties and how to deal with fear. This should be covered in all areas related to human performance (physical, psychological, ethical and social). A unit and its leader must identify and accept the manifestation of fear, particularly before battle. A unit can prevent stress and improve their technical performance after an orders briefing by having a task preparation discussion in sections. Open discussion and appropriate humour that brings the unit together are factors that help to significantly prevent stress. A leader should have initiative, be an example and give their unit an opportunity to openly address their fears.[235]

> **Pre-Combat Conversation to Prepare for Battle**
> The pre-combat conversation goes over events that are likely and possible during combat, incl. casualties and casualty evacuation. The conversation is done using a timeline of the task.
>
> Another objective is to go over emotions one is likely to face during combat.

By using mental imaging (mental wargaming) a leader is able to better prepare for potential situations that the unit might face in combat.[236] Mental imaging can be done for example by considering possible friendly and enemy courses of action with the help of a timeline. By going over the most typical and the most dangerous scenarios the leader is able to anticipate and make faster decisions during combat, and to maintain the ability to focus on essential things. In addition to combat troops, mental imaging is a useful tool also for personnel in staff duties and for the commander.

Combat rehearsals and processing feedback help to lead units and to develop operating procedures for units. Exercises are not able to perfectly simulate the surroundings of the future battlefield. Even the best assumption on the enemy's actions or the challenges caused by the operating environment will somehow change during the first contacts with the enemy. The readiness to constantly analyze your own command and control activities and the unit's choices in battle is absolutely necessary for successful C2 in the long run. By analyzing the operating environment and the taken decisions, and by changing procedures when necessary, the commander maintains their unit's capability from one battle to the next.

FIGURE 17. Command and leadership support. By evaluating the effects of your own actions, the operating environment and the effect of the enemy's actions, a commander is able to respond to constant change on the battlefield.

After a unit has survived challenging exercises and situations, it will in time develop an esprit de corps. A unit with deep trust between its members and with its leader is able to succeed in combat.[237] The importance of the first battle, or baptism of fire, to the creation of a unit's esprit de corps is significant. A successful baptism of fire gives the participants a taste of the phenomenon of combat, after which the unit and its individuals have more confidence in their own actions and the trust with the other members of the unit deepens. This grows the self-confidence of the individuals and the unit, creating safety for future situations.[238] An unsuccessful baptism of fire can, in a worst case scenario, crush the morale of a unit and have a significant impact on the unit's capability. It is because of this that the leader must be particular attentive when the unit prepares for its first battle.

Before the battle, the leader will increase the trust in their unit by listening to their subordinates and by being open. If the leader puts on an act and does not interact with their unit as themselves, building trust is challenging. An incomplete or even failed relationship of trust between the unit and its leader on the battlefield is a considerable threat to the unit. During combat and after it, the trust in the leader is built based on the decisions and actions of the leader.[239]

During wartime planning task execution is often challenging. Available resources might seem insufficient, the situation picture is incomplete and it feels like there are only bad options to choose from. Despite this, you have to decide and give your subordinates the order and monitor the execution of the order. In such situations it is important that the

unit understands the situation and believes in the task execution. If the leader does not themselves believe in the method of task execution, it is almost certainly reflected in the unit as reluctance to execute the task. After the leader knows the situation and the task that need to be executed, they must first find out for themself what the execution of this task achieves. If necessary, the leader will find out the grounds for the task from the issuer. If the task seems unfeasible despite the given grounds, the leader will present an optional solution to achieve the desired end state. In conflicting situations, the leader should avoid judging their superior or the task in front of the subordinates, because unnecessary criticism will not help in achieving the task.

In combat-related actions an order is short, unambiguous, executable and correctly timed.[240] One typical trait of an inexperienced leader is writing a complicated and large plan, with all possible factors and options for combat included. This makes task execution too complex. Additionally, the order is difficult to understand. With a simple plan and a simple order, a unit is dedicated to the actions planned by the leader. It is also easy to adjust a simple plan when needed, also during combat. The principle of simplicity facilitates understandability and enhances command and control in all phases of combat.

The subordinates' freedom of action enables independent actions by smaller units in combat. In combat, mission command ensures the subordinate's independent action and sufficient freedom of action.[241] You give the subordinate a clear task and/or an end state, available resources and constraints, but do not give detailed orders on how to execute the task.[242] Focusing on details that are unnecessary for the task or constant direct managing of the subordinates' actions will mainly create unnecessary friction and conflicts in interaction. The lack of freedom of action will lead to subordinates becoming passive. The importance of mission command is emphasized, particularly when units are operating separated from each other, and in the freedom of action of units larger than a platoon when engaged in combat.

In order to understand the meaning of their own actions as part of the larger whole, it is important that a unit understands both their own objective and the objective of the higher level action. With a larger freedom of action both the leaders and the unit have more responsibility of how the task is executed and they are more committed to execute a plan they created themselves. Thorough understanding of the end state and committing the subordinates to the planning enables continuing the mission more effectively in a situation where the actual leader of the unit is incapacitated.

> A well-led unit is able to execute its task independently even if communications are lost or the unit commander becomes incapacitated.

Command During Combat

Particularly during the commander's professional skills and performance are key to a successful end result. Based on previous knowledge and skills the commander is able to make the necessary decisions in order to achieve the objectives set for the unit, while maintaining the performance of their unit. The skills and knowledge for command in combat are achieved via thorough training and rehearsal and previous experiences.

A commander must be proficient not only in how to use the different units but also have the necessary interaction skills. A commander can order their subordinates to do tasks as regulations require but due the commander's poor interaction skills the subordinates may be extremely reluctant to execute the task. Based on experience, the subordinates will follow a commander/leader who is professional and has good interaction skills also in duties and tasks where a risk of death exists.

The number of subordinates matters when looking at effective leadership. The number of subordinates must always be correctly proportioned for the task, the operating environment and battle rhythm. You can adjust the number of subordinates, for example with the right kind of order of battle. As a rule of thumb it can be said that a person can lead a maximum of six to ten immediate subordinates during fast-paced combat operations.[243]

For example in infantry combat the infantry section leader is commanding a section of over 10 people, mainly via their fireteam leaders (3 pcs) and via the vehicle commander, instead of trying to issue commands to each individual soldier.

The development of command and signal equipment has created new opportunities for command and control. For example, sharing position information of friendly troops quickly and in real-time enables command in dispersed combat while avoiding friendly casualties. On the other hand, a faster pace in communications can focus the leader's attention on issues that are irrelevant for the outcome of the battle. A commander must use the available equipment and information as tools for command, not as an end in itself. The use of the available C2 tools and commanding with them has been rehearsed.

The improvements in communication and a faster battle rhythm place demands on the leader. They have to have the ability to conceptualize and control the battlespace in a new way, particularly to avoid own casualties. The position of friendly forces and situational information about changes in the battlespace is crucial in directing movement and fires. A good example of this is the use of Joint Terminal Attack Controllers (JTAC) in combat to enable the use of air-to-ground fires. If the fires of the weapons systems in the battlespace is not coordinated, in a worse case scenario you will cause casualties to friendly fighters with

your own air defence and be unable to concentrate fire where you want it.[244] Combined arms operations in combat requires effective use of C2 tools and deep knowledge of standard operating procedures (SOPs).

Standardized tactics, techniques and procedures (TTPs) enable rapid actions by a unit, especially in situations where there is not time for planning or issuing orders[245]. TTPs are used to quickly execute rehearsed tactics or drills. If the situation demands it, you have to able to adapt and adjust the TTPs to the situation.

A leader leads from the "front". By their example, a leader is able to elevate the morale of their troops and to concretely show what they want to be done and how. By positioning themselves correctly a leader can create a situation picture for themself. However, a leader will not needlessly expose themself to danger by always being the foremost point soldier or by travelling with the first unit. Losing the leader in combat makes task execution increasingly more difficult.

In combat units the leaders and the unit must be able to effectively pass important information back and forth in a way that is short and clear. Short and concise orders and concise situation reports to superiors make actions and future decision-making easier. Passing on important situational information to your troops increases situational awareness and removes uncertainty. Situation reports given to superiors and operation centres include only the key information that help higher form a situation picture. If the commander has sufficient situational awareness, they will also usually maintain the freedom of action to continue their task. A good leader/commander understands The end state of the higher, constraints and restraints, and effectively communicates their own plan to achieve the end result.

> **Example of a situation report in combat:**
> 1. Location (using codewords)
> 2. Enemy situation
>   - Combat contact / reconnaissance contact / no contact
>   - Number, type and activity
> 3. Friendly situation
>   - Friendly activities (deployed / moving / attacking / disengaging etc.)
>   - Friendly casualties and ammunition status
>   - Estimate of own capability for executing the task
> 4. Possible support needs (resupply requests etc.).

Remaining calm is key also during command in combat.[246] The battlefield awakens a human's natural fight or flight response, for example by secreting adrenalin and by activating the body's hyperactive state. Panic in combat can manifest for example as a broken voice or appearance, as hasty decisions or as shouting over the radio. A panicking leader will have an immediate effect on the morale of a unit in

combat. An individual can learn to control their mind and body through systematic training. One practical way of controlling the body's stress is to consciously calm down your breathing.[247] By staying calm in all phases of combat the leader will most likely achieve a better result with their unit, even faster than by rash and careless actions. You also have to remember that there may be situations during combat, where an aggressive and forceful approach is useful at times (for example giving direct orders to a subordinate in a situation where the ability to function has temporarily been lost).

A front-line leader must have the ability to make quick, but considered decisions. A leader has to be able to assess the overall situation based on situation reports, observations and their own understanding so that they can execute a quick decision. Based on continuous situation assessment, the leader has to be able to change the drafted plan if necessary in order to achieve the objective within the constraints of the task.[248]

On the battlefield problems multiply quickly. For example, in the midst of the chaos the details of the situation reports can easily distract attention away from task execution to secondary issues. For example, a sudden counter attack by the enemy and the first wounded will easily give the commander a feeling of losing control. In combat you take control of the situation by defining the key issue for action that has to be resolved first. When the most important issue has been resolved or the unit is taking action to resolve the situation you define the next key issue and continue the execution in a similar way. Prioritization and execution with clear orders makes a unit focus on the essential, also in challenging and complex situations.[249]

> "Prioritize and execute!"

In combat, the situation picture is often incomplete and even misleading because the situations present in combat are almost always multi-dimensional. Generally, an incomplete and unclear situation picture in combat is called the "fog of war" in international military sources. A leader must use their previous experience and knowledge to create an extensive situation picture and to evaluate future events to support their decision-making. A good leader can tolerate the constant uncertainty of the battlefield and make sensible decisions in the current situation. One way to tolerate the uncertainty is the leader's conscious decision to not trying to achieve perfect order.[250] What this means is that the leader is ready to accept chaos as part of the normal operating environment in combat.

At its simplest, a **situation picture** is the known number of friendly and enemy forces, their type and direction in the operating environment in a given time. Additionally, the situation of other branches, functions and authorities, and the situation of other forces in the Area of Operations can be added into the situation picture.[251]
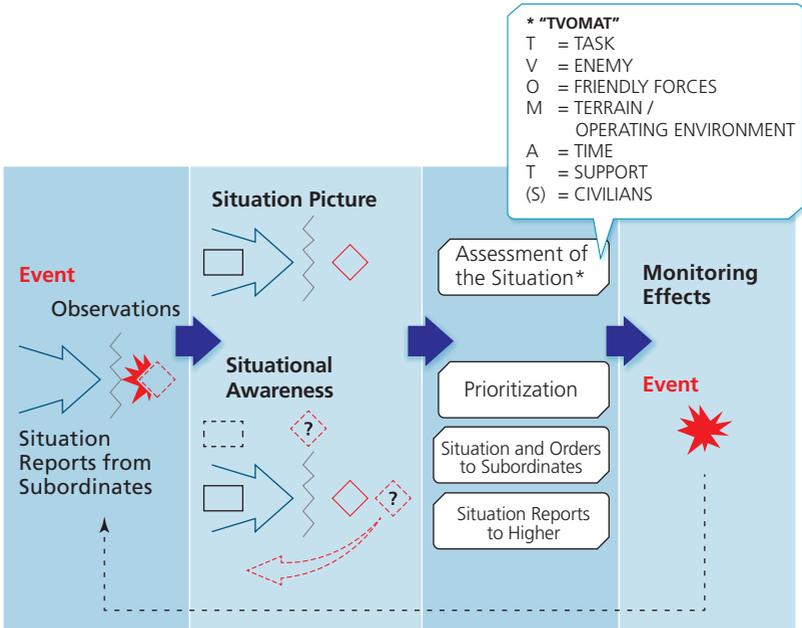
FIGURE 18. Command During Combat and Situation Assessment. During combat the leader will take advantage of the situation reports, observations and an extensive situation assessment to determine their priorities.

Situational Awareness refers to the leader's overall understanding of the current situation, its causes and effects. Awareness includes not only understanding the actions of friendly forces but that of the enemy as well.[252]

A **situation assessment** refers to a comprehensive assessment of the validity of your own plan. When forming a situation assessment during combat one must evaluate the most likely and dangerous (likely) chain of events in the future. You have to be able to change your own plan in order to achieve the assigned task if necessary.

The skill of situational leadership can be developed for example by simulating and repeating fast-paced and challenging scenarios, so that the situation that arises during the actual mission is already identifiable and the impact of available solutions is known. The use of basic tactics, techniques and procedures (TTPs) allows for rapid situational command and control. Leaders, who are immediately committed to combat or monitoring it and to maintaining a situation picture, usually need more situational leadership skills than the leaders who work in planning duties, not engaged in immediate combat.

Leaders must be able to assess the large-scale impacts of decisions or options carefully before making the decision, particularly when moving from the tactical level to the operational or strategic level. Situational awareness and judgement are key when the decisions influence large bodies of troops or at least the achievement of operational level objectives. A leader needs both skills. For example aerial combat typically requires decision-making in seconds, while simultaneously being able to optimize the use of resources in the long tern and based on threats.[253]

A unit does not fight alone. A leader must know the strengths and weaknesses of their unit and to use the capabilities of other units and branches operating in the battlespace. For example the support of engineers to the mobility of an infantry platoon may be a decisive factor in a successful attack. A commander will decrease the courses of action for their own unit if they are unwilling to work together with other units and underestimates their capability. A unit that is able to take advantage of other friendly units in the battlespace as a part of their own combat will be more effective in completing their task. However, do not forget about internal cooperation within the unit.[254]

Post-Combat Actions

A leader's role is central to post-combat actions. A leader is responsible for restoring the combat effectiveness of their unit with immediate post-combat actions. These include necessary first aid and evacuation arrangements, ammunition resupply and maintenance of weapon systems, maintenance activities of materiel and vehicles / vessels / aerial vehicles and the immediate personal hygiene, food and rest of the soldiers. Therefore, restoring combat effectiveness includes all areas of personal performance (psychological, physical, social and ethical).

In the case of a baptism of fire it is particularly likely that the combined psychological and physical strain of combat will put significant stress on the unit that was in combat. This will manifest itself, especially if the unit suffered casualties. As an integral part of the post-combat actions the leader, together with their unit, should be able to analyze the events of the battle, both from a social, ethical and psychological perspective and from the perspective of developing operating models based on performance. Performance-based debriefing (going over the events and the cause-and-effect relationships) and the defusing should be a standard procedure for both the combat troops and for the staff and commander after a battle. Performance-based debriefing is different from a regular defusing since the content of a defusing is usually more individual-based and emotional. After a defusing it is possibly easier to see the unit 's development needs and strengths more neutrally. With a post-combat routine, both the leader and the unit will maintain their performance are ready for the next battle.[255]

The leader must know the combat stress debriefing tools like a routine and understand the effect of stress of the performance of their unit members. Defusing in your own unit and debriefing with a professional when necessary are basic methods for a skilful military unit for maintaining their performance. By using these methods, the leader will improve the performance of their unit and possibly also prevents psychological performance disorders in their unit, such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) or a moral injury. The symptoms of PTSD include continuous and distressing memories of the event, strong flashbacks and nightmares, while moral injury includes crushing guilt of a shocking event that the person cannot justify for themselves.[256] The leader's example of being open about their emotions will encourage the unit to do the same.

For the unit's cohesion and learning it is important that the leader takes responsibility of the actions of the unit and its individuals, even in difficult situations and constantly evaluates the unit's operating procedures. When evaluating, one has to remember that things will inevitably happen in combat that you cannot affect with your actions. The enemy will do its utmost so that a unit fails its task.

Even if people have deviated from the leader's order or from Standard Operating Procedures, after the mistake has happened, instead of looking for someone to blame, the leader should ask:

- What was the reason for the possible mistake or failure?
- Could I have led the situation in a different way?
- Could I have trained and rehearsed my unit better?
- How can I get my unit (and the individuals) to understand the impact of what happened?
- How can we avoid repeating the mistakes as a unit?
- How do I lead the next time in order to avoid the same mistake?
- Where did we succeed and what SOPs do we want to keep?

A unit must understand the correlations of the end result, both in relation to the leader's activities and the unit's interoperability. The leader carrying the ultimate responsibility and telling that to their troops almost always has an effect boosting esprit de corps. Fact-based and self-critical interaction will also lower the possible natural defence mechanisms of both subordinate and superior. After that it is easier for the unit to determine the truly impactful factors for developing your own activities instead of relying only on a more emotions-based analysis New operating procedures and improved actions developed based on previous mistakes made by the unit and the leader will help the survival of the unit in the next battle.

After the Battle:
- Make sure that the unit and the individuals are able to perform their duties.
- Take care of your own performance recovery.
- Evaluate and improve TTPs.
- Prepare for the next task.

3.3 What Makes a Good Leader in Combat?

A modern battlefield is a demanding and multi-dimensional operating environment where successful command and control is challenging for both experienced and inexperienced leaders. Compared to World War II, based on experiences, the principles of leadership are still very similar. It is difficult to find an unequivocal answer answer to the question of what makes a good leader in combat because leadership is always situation-dependent. Generally, however, you can still find important means and characteristics that makes leadership in combat easier if people strive to develop them in a balanced way. They allow the leader's professional skills to develop, regardless of branch.

Command and control in combat can be divided into three main elements:
- Leading yourself
- Management
- Leadership.

Below you have a concise presentation of command and control tools in combat, which experience has shown to help the leader to command successfully in combat. Many of the principles will work at any time during combat, but are possibly emphasized at a certain moment. The timeline and the perspectives are meant to visualize the usefulness of the tools for example in evaluation.

In combat the extensive performance and professional skills of the leader and unit are key for the survival and success of the unit. A leader must be able to first control themself in order to be able to lead their subordinates. A successful leader will prepare themself and their unit for combat in good time mentally, physically, socially and ethically by training before the unit starts actual combat.

By knowing the operating environment, the capabilities of the enemy and their own unit the leader is able to make the correct decision in combat. During combat, using simple solutions and bravely leading by example makes subordinates actions easier. Delegating responsibility gives the leader freedom of action and the opportunity to focus on the essential things.

Leading yourself	Managing issues	Leading people
Preparation		
– Effective time management – Maintaining your performance – Knowing yourself – Open attitude	– Analysing and understanding the task – On-order tasks to subordinates – Rehearsing – Clear and understandable orders – Delegating responsibility	– Creating morale – Building trust and unit cohesion – Taking care of your subordinates – The ability to lead as yourself – Stage confidence, interaction
Actions during combat		
– Controlling fear and remaining calm – Determination and bravery – Ability to tolerate uncertainty – Focusing on essential things – Maintaining ability to function	– Taking advantage of the operational picture – Taking advantage of mission command – Initiative – Simplicity – Use of basic tactics, techniques and procedures (TTPs) – Short, clear orders – Situation reports to superior and to subordinates – Rapid situational leadership – Careful consideration of decisions – Professionalism	– Leading by example – Credible communication – Trust in subordinates
After-Action Activities		
– Collecting feedback – Analyzing your own actions – Development – Restoring performance and ability to function – Improving professionalism	– Situation reports – Logistics and supply – Developing standard operating procedures – Preparing for a new task	– Defusing. Debriefing when necessary – Learning from what happened – Appreciating subordinates – Humanity – Ability to deal with casualties – Assuming responsibility

FIGURE 19. Means for effective command and leadership in combat.

Interaction skills in leading people are a linchpin in building trust. Interaction skills are key when you look at the subordinates' willingness to follow the leader and to execute the assigned task even when the threat of death is present. Openly handling any possible fears and emotions and taking care of your subordinates is important, particularly before and after a battle.

A well-led and well-trained military unit will smoothly and effectively use their TTPs and is able to adjust them if the situation calls for it. The subordinates are able to anticipate actions according to the unit 's task, independently share important situation reports and are able to act independently. The subordinates are able to complete the task even if the leader becomes incapacitated. This is the result of systematic rehearsals and training.

> A good leader is proficient in the combat command process:
> - Before Combat, the leader uses warning orders and clear orders to preparing the unit for combat.
> - During combat the leader constantly assesses the situation in order to give clear orders on the things to be done.
> - After combat the leader will lead the post-combat actions, that strive to recover and improve combat-effectiveness.
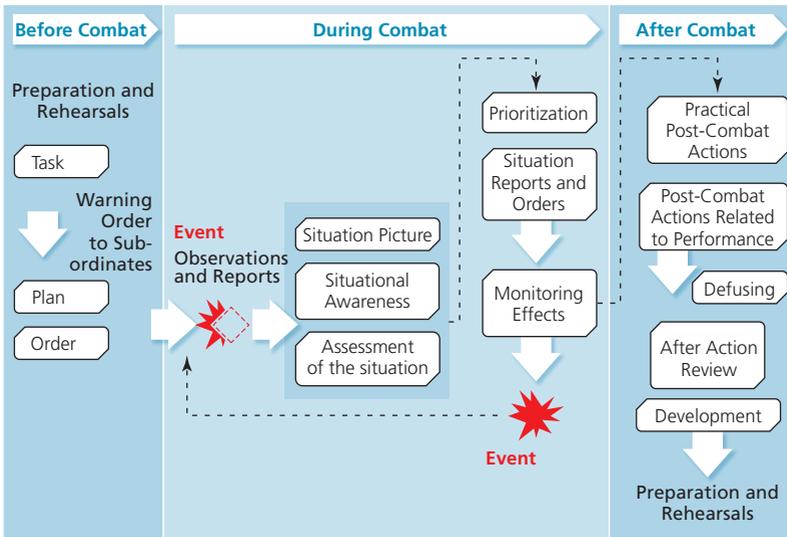

FIGURE 20. A leader in combat – An example of C2 in combat.

Based on studies it can be said that striving for efficient interaction and determined use of the tools in the leadership process help to lead successfully in combat. A good leader is able to communicate openly, identifies the performance of their unit and is able to find their own strengths and areas of improvement. A leader must improve themself and their unit from one battle to the next. Balance must be remembered when striving for the principles of leadership, because purposeful interaction (command and leadership) is always situation dependent.

The principles of combat leadership can be applied to other activities as well, because command in combat is goal-oriented interaction but in a fast-paced and dangerous operating environment.

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4 Observations on Command and Control in Demanding Crisis Management Operations

This chapter looks at the demands for command and control in a crisis management operating environment. This chapter looks at C2 from the perspective of the commander of the crisis management contingent, based on the observations and experiences from the operations in Afghanistan and Iraq. The observations have been collected from multiple sources, and the most important of them are listed in the references.

Military crisis management refers to crisis management operations by military means. The actions mainly aim for restoring stability and security and maintaining it in a conflict zone, and its objective is to create prerequisites for starting the other functions of society.[257]

The strong security political dimension of Crisis management operations underlines the commander's overall responsibility in a situation where a single mission or actions by an individual soldier may have a significant impact on the performance of the unit, the acceptability of the operation or on operational security.[258]

PICTURE 21. Camp Mira in Afghanistan. The conditions in the area of operations are often austere. Photo: Petri Horto.

Usually, the following special characteristics describe the operating environment of the Area of Operations:[259]
- The area is multi-ethnic, multicultural and has multiple languages.
- There are multiple governmental and non-governmental organizations in the area.
- The regional government is corrupted and divided into multiple competing factions.
- There are criminal groups with reciprocal conflicts of interest operating in the area.
- The humanitarian situation in the area is disrupted.
- The regional infrastructure is damaged or destroyed.
- The forces of the operation are multinational. Different armed forces have different operating cultures.
- The opponent is a non-governmental actor that uses asymmetrical means.
- The opponent's actions are difficult to predict.
- The actions of the crisis management contingent are followed by the media and on social media. The actions of an individual soldier may have strategic impacts.

Usually, the following special characteristics are emphasized in the tasks of a crisis management contingent:[260]
- The importance of avoiding own casualties is highlighted.
- The Areas of Responsibility are large and the distances are long.
- Particular attention is paid to the force protection and medical care of the crisis management contingent.
- Acquiring intelligence and surveillance data for operational planning is emphasized.
- There are much more support troops than operational troops.
- The size of the operational unit is a company at most.
- Troop movements, evacuations and other support is done using air assets.
- Use of military force is limited and the authority to use force may be delegated to multiple levels.
- The command structure is different from the national one. National caveats set by the participating countries affect how the command structure is determined.
- Use of mission command is emphasized in task execution. After receipt of mission, the executing unit plans its individual actions based on the end state provided by higher.
- Cooperation with the local authorities and non-governmental organizations is more important than normally.
- The attitude of the local population toward the crisis management force varies.
- Task are short in duration.
- The main bases of the crisis management force are in built-up areas. Forward operating bases may have to be established in order to support the force executing the task.
- Rotating personnel affects organization culture.

4.1 Commander of the Crisis Management Contingent

The job of the commander of the crisis management contingent and that of the other leaders is command and control in emergency conditions[261]. The Commander and the other leaders are in that role 24/7. All decisions must be made so that they are immediate and are professionally and ethically sound. The closest national superiors and national support is thousands of kilometres away.

Professional skills, good language and communications skills and good physical condition create the foundations of a successful commander. The commander's personal characteristics are emphasized in crisis management operations: the ability to withstand your own fear and the fear of your subordinates, emotional intelligence, self-control, unselfishness, being an example, being just and incorruptible, and a sense of humour.[262] By participating in operational activities with their troops, the commander will share the risks with their subordinates. At the same time, the commander shows themself to the local population and other actors.[263]

When the force suffers casualties, it is the commander's responsibility to get it quickly operational again. This is achieved when you focus on task completion instead of focusing on the losses. The commander's role as a leader of people is central[264]. When the commander acts exemplarily, it creates respect. The actions of the crisis management contingent is often controlled with directives that determine the everyday activities of the soldiers in theatre. The rules also apply to the commander. When the commander follows the rules set in the directives just like the others, they have the moral right to make decisions that affect the unit and individuals. The decisions may be judicial in nature or their consequences may include threat to life.[265]

The Commander of the Crisis Management Contingent is the administrative superior of all Finnish soldiers serving in that operation. Personnel administration, occupational and in-service safety, unit morale and military discipline and military justice area major part of the administrative duties.[266] As the senior national representative, it is the commander's responsibility to monitor that the national forces and resources are led according to previously agreed treaties and restrictions. If that is not the case, the commander must intervene immediately.[267]

The duties of a Commander of a Crisis Management Contingent can be one of the following:

- The Commander is the administrative superior of the Finnish soldiers, i.e. the senior national representative, without operational command responsibility.

- The Commander has a duty position in the operation, such as an Assistant Chief of Staff. Additionally, they are the administrative superior of the Finnish soldiers serving in the operation.

- The Commander is both the administrative and operational superior of the Finnish soldiers. Typically, the Battalion Commander position is such a position.

4.2 Operational Planning and Task Execution

Operational planning related to crisis management operations is done in three time-dimensions and on three command levels. Long-term planning is done on the strategic and operational level, with the timeline stretching from multiple months to years. Mid-term planning is done on the tactical level, when the planned duration of the operation may be from days to months. Short-term planning (0–3 days) is done during the operation. Its objective is to produce more detailed orders or regulations for the unit executing the operation. A Finnish crisis management contingent always operates on the tactical level of an operation.[268]

The following characteristics are highlighted in tactical level planning:[269]
- The tasks are executed by small detachments in comparison to the command level issuing the task. For example a brigade or a corps-level headquarters may issue a task to a platoon or company-size element. This requires very detailed planning.
- The higher command will provide the executing unit with strong support. For example, a company may be assigned air support assets, reconnaissance drones, helicopter, or mobility or EOD assets.
- Parallel planning between the command levels is emphasized during mission planning and preparation. If necessary, the task or a phase of the task will be rehearsed in detail. The rehearsal can be done, for example as an orders exercise, or by using a terrain model.
- Units on the tactical level usually rehearse the practical actions inside the base or in separately built training areas.
- Mission command is highlighted in execution.
- The importance of detailed intelligence information is emphasized in mission planning and execution.
- The most important document of the planning is the Concept of Operations that defines the objectives of the operation, its execution, timetables, available units and resources. The more detailed Operation Plan (OPLAN) is then written based on the Concept of Operations.
- The OPLAN is refined with short-tem Fragmentary Orders when necessary.

Typical tasks during crisis management operations are:[270]
- Patrolling and security tasks to maintain security and situational awareness
- Convoy escort and force protection
- Gaining hold of an area or areas to stabilize the security situation
- Support to the international organizations or local authorities, for example humanitarian missions, evacuation missions or military support missions
- Training and advisory missions.

The way to execute tasks is done mainly using the same principles as nationally. If there are forces from multiple commands operating in the area a specific Battlespace Owner(BSO) is named. They are responsible for coordinating the movement and fires of forces in their area. The commander of the unit executing a task may also be given a separate Area of Operations, and the commander is also the BSO of that AO.[271]

The task is usually led from a mobile command post or from the unit's on tactical operations centre. The commander ensure that all of the units participating in the task execution have understand the plans and orders they have received. The commanders in the field are given sufficient authority to execute the task in the field.[272]

The first moments are often decisive in combat. A unit must have TTPs for different situations that can be executed automatically if necessary, for example if the leaders are unable to lead. The unit must master the TTPs and drills so that with correct and fast actions they can seize the initiative even in unclear situations. The TTPs provide the foundations for surviving the first chaotic moments of battle. After that the unit can begin the necessary counteractions under their leaders' command.[273]

TRAIN AS YOU FIGHT – FIGHT AS YOU TRAIN

PICTURE 22. Force protection section at work. Photo: Petri Horto.

Based on experiences from Afghanistan and Iraq, when the unit was engaged in combat the largest stress factors were an unclear situation and a real fear of death. The leader must proportion the task and selected execution with the seriousness of the risks. A leader will pass on information to their subordinates in order to create a shared situational awareness. In combat, you should give one order at a time in order to avoid unclear situations.[274]

The commanders must identify that the subordinate leaders identify with their unit and move the difficult issues and problems up the chain of command. The commander monitors the situation and demands that everyone execute their own task. Subordinate commanders will solve their own problems and make requests on the support they need.[275] The next chapter of the book talks more about combat stress and managing it.

The complex operating environment of crisis management challenges leaders on all levels. There are often conflicting expectations and pressure from many directions directed at the leaders of a crisis management contingent: from the commanders of the operation, from international superiors, the local population, partners, from home and from your own unit. In operational duties, however, the commanders of a unit are ultimately alone responsible for executing the assigned task, as required by the leadership of the operation. The unit commanders are responsible for the readiness of the unit and its ability to execute both unpleasant and high-risk tasks in a disciplined manner.

The skills and professionalism needed in crisis management operations are created in national defence duties. Extensive and versatile training, participating in national and international exercises create the pre-requisites for successful, impactful and safe actions in crisis management operations.

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5 Human Performance and Military Leadership

The conditions of war and the battlefield are extreme circumstances for people and they require that the soldiers' human performance is good. The soldiers' performance is improved, maintained and restores with performance training and support. In order to guarantee the performance of their unit, a leader has a grave responsibility in maintaining and restoring the unit's performance on the battlefield. This chapter goes over the key facets of human performance in soldiers and gives the military leader concrete advice for improving maintaining and restoring both personal and the unit's performance.

Human performance is the individual's ability to operate in different operating environments as required by their duties. Human performance consists of physical, psychological, ethical and social performance. (Figure 23) The different areas of capability are closely related and affect all of soldier's actions. Performance is affected for example by nutrition, hydration, sleep, rest, recovery, health and requirements set by the operating environment. The requirements set by the soldier's operating environment direct the improvement of a soldier's performance, as well as maintaining it and recovery.

During military training, psychological performance focuses on the concepts of self-confidence, motivation, morale and combat stress. Social performance focuses on strengthening group cohesion. In ethical performance, the focus is on justification of war (jus ad bellum), task commitment and moral stress In physical performance the key factors are strength, endurance, speed, muscle maintenance and mobility. Various expert fields help support soldier performance.

A military leader is responsible for the performance of their unit as well as their own human performance. A good leader is typically diligent and does their job well and looks after their soldiers. The challenge is that sometimes you own human performance can take a back seat to your diligence and looking after others. Then there is the risk that the entire unit's effectiveness decreases and possibly suffers more casualties and accidents.

The objective of soldiers' human performance training is to improve their performance with different exercises and their performance is monitored, measured and evaluated as part of their training. A leader must understand the methods for measuring performance and be able to interpret the results as part of successful training. Additionally, the leader must understand the factors impacting a soldier's human performance and its development. When moving from training to a military operating environment and to military duties, maintaining and restoring performance become more important than improving performance. In that environment a good leader understands the methods for maintaining human performance and for recovery.
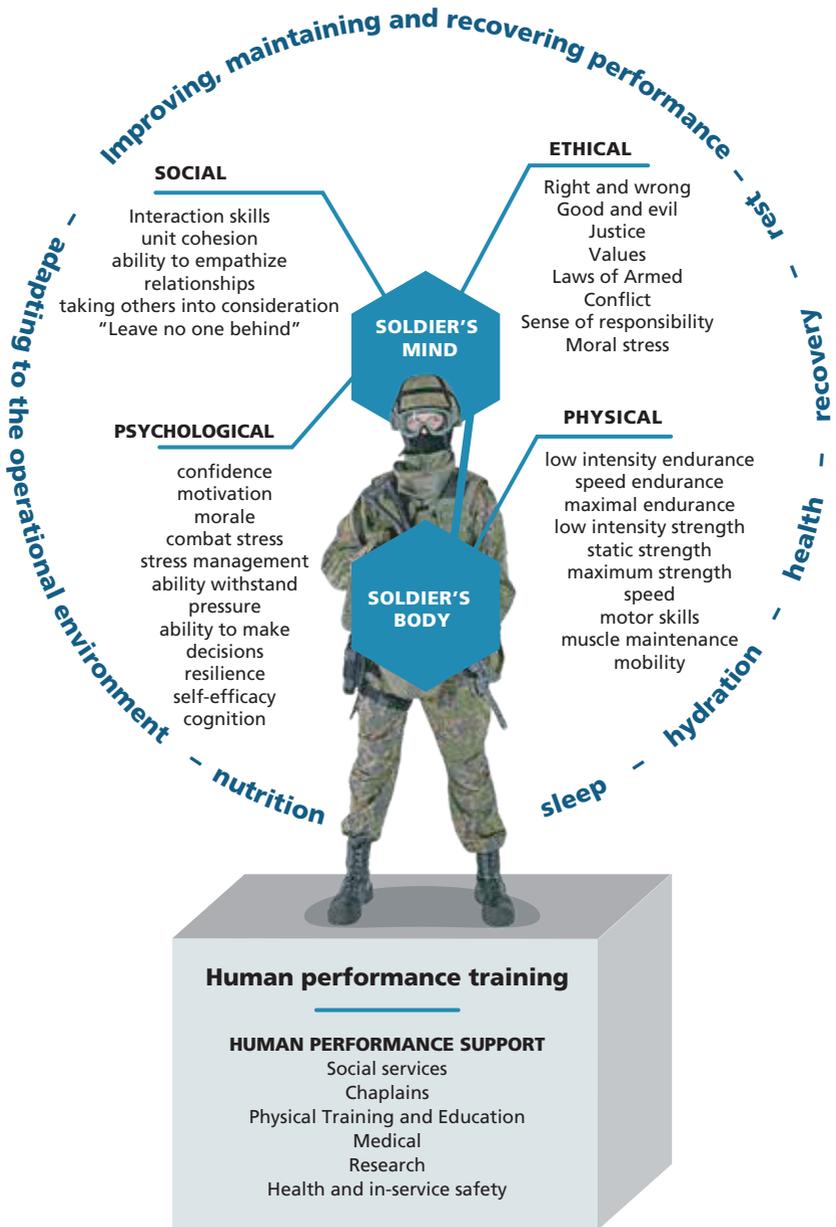
FIGURE 23. Comprehensive Soldier Performance. Almost all factors that affect an individual's actions are related to the individual's performance. This Figure highlights some of the most important ones.

Improving human performance requires an adequate balance between stress and recovery. Significant parts in restoring human performance and in recovery and sufficient and good-quality nutrition, enough liquids, rest, active recovery and sleep. These are all things that the leader must care of. After stressful and demanding tasks, talking about things and experiences is also something that maintains performance and helps with recovery. Human performance support services are available when the unit no longer has enough capability to do it itself or when you need support from professionals trained to provide it.

Maintaining a military leader's performance requires sufficient physical, psychological, ethical and social resources that the leader can use to survive the challenges set by the operating environment. The first resource is the role fitness requirements, i.e. what the situation requires and what are the challenges set by the operating environment. The second resource is the soldier's human performance requirements, i.e. what requirements must the soldier meet to defeat the requirements and challenges set by the operating environment.[276] Maintaining you performance is a requirement for leading a unit. If the challenges set the operating environment are difficult and the leader does not have the required individual resources or resources from the surroundings to conquer the challenges, they may lose their own ability to function. If then the requirements set by the environment and the resources of the individual and offered by the environment are balanced, even with extremely high challenges at times, the military leader has the pre-requisites to maintaining their performance.

5.1 Soldier's Mind and Soldier's Body in Human Performance Training in the Finnish Defence Forces

The human performance training for conscripts is conducted according to the comprehensive human performance programme. The comprehensive human performance programme consists of the Soldier's Mind and Soldier's Body programmes and individual goal setting.[278] The Soldier's Mind and Soldier's Body programmes are also used for human performance training for reservists and regular personnel. Human performance training is a part of leadership training, from the conscripts to the basic education of regular officers and non-commissioned officers. Improving, maintaining and recovery of performance is a key part of the entire career and is included in the training of every refresher training exercise.

The Soldier's Mind programme is intended to strengthen the mind, and it consists of exercises intended to develop the psychological, social and ethical areas of human performance. It rehearses and trains the skills, knowledge and abilities needed in the soldiers' wartime duties. Additionally, the reinforces the individual's important everyday life management skills, knowledge and abilities.[279]

The objective of the Soldier's Body programme is to develop the physical performance of military leaders and to offer information and knowledge about how physical performance can be improved and maintained also in the reserve to meet the requirement levels of wartime duties. By paying attention on physical performance, the military leader is able to improve also their own health and quality of life and to decrease the risk of burnout and the emergence of various illnesses later in life.

The online learning platform workspaces Soldier's Mind and Soldier's Body have the exercises used in leadership training and the teaching materials for them. Additionally, the Instructor's Handbook describes the basics of planning and implementing human performance training, so we focus in looking at performance from a leader's perspective.

5.2 Psychological Performance as Military Leader's Ability

A soldier's psychological performance refers to the ability to be able to act as the duties require in challenging and stressful situations, and the ability to recover from those duties. A psychologically capable soldier is resilient, confident, brave and determined. They face challenges with optimism and commit to their task in every situation. The key phenomena and concepts of a soldier's psychological performance in military leadership training are self-confidence, motivation, morale, will to win and combat stress.[280]

Self-confidence means good and realistic faith in oneself and one's abilities. Self-confidence is linked to optimism and the tendency to believe success is possible. This correlates strongly with success in demanding situations. Success and a successful performance are not only regulated by what one can really do and what the environmental factors are, but it is also strongly regulated by how you see yourself and how much do you trust yourself. Self-confidence is a skill that can be developed.

Self-confidence is also linked to self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the person's own view of how well they are able to handle tasks.[281] Strong self-efficacy creates trust and confidence in the soldier's own actions. Positive views may contribute positively to success because a positive assessment decreases stress and thus releases resources for example for processing information and decision-making. A weak view on self-efficacy can lead to fear and inability to carry out a task, when success seems uncertain. Negative assessments often lead to weaker performance. The performance will not improve by the individual seeing something as important, but at the same time as something that they should not even try to do. Improving and developing performance therefore needs experiences that provide confidence in the meaningfulness and success of one's own actions.[282]

It is very different to start any performance believing in oneself than doubting one's abilities and success. If a leader's thoughts of themself are very negative or pessimistic, they can create feelings of uncertainty, stress and tension, which have the effect that you will not do particularly well in your duties. Therefore, the thoughts become a self-fulfilling prophecy. On the other hand, if you believe in yourself and have a positive view and confidence in your success, it creates a feeling of certainty and positivity, which contributes positively to the performance. Additionally, it is infectious and your subordinates will feel it too. If you have a positive attitude to your performance and believe in success, it is more likely that you will perform well.

Typical modes of thinking for a victorious and successful leader include:

- Positive and optimistic approach to the future
  - I meet all the requirements for success!
  - Everything is going be okay!
- The thought that you can make a difference
  - Success is up to me!
- A failure or mistake is seen as an opportunity to learn
  - I will train more and next time I will succeed!
  - I'm not afraid to fail!

Good leadership will significantly support a soldier's psychological performance, since it is a key factor from the perspective of the unit's actions and its success.[283] With their own example the leader can support the soldiers' resilience and process of constructing meaning, and thus protect the soldiers from the effects of combat stress.[284] Leaders can do this, for example in the way how they speak of future or past tasks, and have an impact on how meaningful the subordinates see the importance of the events. Although, this requires resilience of the leader as well, so that they are able to help the subordinates see the stressful situations and experiences as opportunities for learning and improvement.[285]

Leader's actions for strengthening the confidence of their unit members:

- Be a confident example.
- Think positively and optimistically.
- Turn negative thoughts into optimistic ones.
- Encourage others to try their best without fear of failure
  – do things even if you are scared.
- Share responsibility and tasks evenly in the section, even if that puts the members out of their comfort zone.
- Always give encouraging and constructive feedback.

Motivation is a person's commitment to their tasks and actions. It has an effect on the amount of effort, perseverance and resilience, and the tasks the person chooses to take upon themselves. Eventually, motivation is also linked to success in the task. Motivation is divided into internal and external motivation. An internally motivated person feels that completing a task is interesting and rewarding in itself. External motivation means that actions are steered by external pressure, such as the will to succeed because it is important to someone else. Internal and external motivation are not mutually exclusive but both of them may affect an individual's actions.

Morale is the ability to keep faith in reaching the goal, pride of one's task and section, will to succeed in the task and defeat the enemy (will to win) and will to give one's all. Commitment together with tenacity is realized in combat as strong will to fight, which can manifest as tenacity or the willpower to continue fighting even in situations where success is uncertain. It is a strong will not to give up. The will to fight is born when the task or matter is felt to be important and just (right). The will to fight is born out of strong skills and the will to defend the country. These things require trust in yourself and in your unit.

The following factors can decrease morale:
- Own task is not seen as meaningful
- The justification for actions disappears or is missing
- There is a lack of trust inside the unit, which decreases unit cohesion
- Poor situational awareness.

The leader's means for strengthening unit morale:
- Remind the unit members that their task is important and that it is an important part of the whole.
- Remind them of the consequences if they are unable to fulfil their task.
- If there is thoughts among the unit about the justification of the actions, talk about it.
- Treat everyone fairly, do not be afraid to praise or cheer.
- Make sure your unit has good unit cohesion.
- Put your own skills and energy on the line and require that your subordinates do the same.
- Reinforce the unit members' trust in themselves, trust in the other members of the unit, trust in their leader and their equipment.
- Make sure that the unit and its equipment is always maintained and ready for the next task.
- Make sure your OPLAN is up-to-date and that everyone knows how to execute it.
- Share information, control disinformation and minimize its impact with friendly forces and maximize it with the enemy.
- Lead the conversation when preparing for combat.

Stress is a common phenomenon that everyone knows. Stress is often seen as abnormal, although it is also a very beneficial reaction. If it is assessed that the situation will be controlled, the stress can be seen to be a positive challenge. In a state of positive stress, the challenge will activate the mind and body toward better performance. If someone feels they have few tools to control or manage their situation, that situation becomes stressful.[286] A key requirement for a military unit's combat effectiveness is its members ability to manage stress and to act while stressed.

It can be said that stress is a professional risk factor for soldiers and managing stress is part of a soldier's professional skills. When talking about a soldier's stress you often separate combat stress and operating environment caused stress. Combat stress is stress experienced by a soldier on the battlefield. Operating environment stress is seen to be stress caused by situations other than direct combat, such as training activities, base duty or pre-combat preparations or transport.[287] The primary task of stress is to prepare a person for either fight or flight. Stress heightens awareness and prepares one for exceptional situations such as war, and can be a key factor for survival.[288]

Stress management methods are concrete ways that people use to control or decrease stress. Sometimes it may be impossible to exclude stress entirely and that is why it is important to learn to manage it. When learning military skills, repetition training is significant also from the point of view of stress management. Overlearning helps reacting quickly and instinctively. For example, repetitive training is used in arms drill to achieve the so-called level of muscle memory. Therefore, training the basics during service provides a foundation for actions during war and combat. However, training alone is not enough but the training must be as realistic as possible and enable a safe exposure to stress.

Identifying the stress factors of the operating environment is essential. The stress factors in the operating environment will act as a cumulative load even before combat. Also, a large number of the troops are not in direct contact with the enemy, but in combat support duties. For example, those in logistics may have to repeatedly handle the bodies of friendlies killed in action, which may be very stressful and potentially traumatic.

FIGURE 24. Typical stress factors in a soldier's operating environment.

Stress reactions can appear immediately during the situation or shortly after it has ended. Strong stress reactions affect your situational awareness, decision-making and actions in critical situations. Directing your attention to danger will cause so called tunnel vision and hearing. Stress reactions affect your fine motor functions and rational thinking and actions become more difficult. Your memory does not work normally and your sense of time is distorted like you were in a slow-motion film.[289]. It is important to take notes since your memory will be affected. When you do that, you do not have to remember everything and you will save your energy for remembering the basics.

FIGURE 25. Symptoms and forms of combat stress.

Changes in behaviour caused by combat stress include
- Observing superiors and the situation in a heightened manner
- Speculating and spreading rumours
- Arguing and complaining about small things
- Not following orders
- Seeking health care services more than normal
- Increasingly moving away from one's own unit.

Leader! Only by maintaining their own ability to function can the leader support their subordinates in improving and maintaining performance and in recovery.

A leader's tools for managing personal stress and stress in their unit have been presented in Figure 26.

- deep breathing, relaxation, breathing techniques, muscle relaxation and meditation (incl. mindfulness)
- diet
- activities / physical training
- downtime / idleness
- time management

- trying to avoid negative thoughts and turning your attention away from negative thoughts
- positive mental training, positive approach to problems
- techniques for talking to oneself, self-motivation
- constructive evaluation of your own emotions
- understanding that setbacks can be learning experiences

Physical and lifestyle-related tools

Cognitive tools

Tools related to emotional life

Tools related to philosophy of life

- social support and a sense of belonging
- recreational activities
- determination
- talking about your emotions
- sense of humour and laughing

- positive view of life
- working on your own values
- spirituality and religiosity
- consistent goals

FIGURE 26. Stress management techniques.

Tools for pre-empting combat stress:
- mental imaging
- relaxation techniques
- thinking positively
- advancing unit cohesion
- talks preparing for battle
- ensuring proper rest, sleep, hydration and nutrition for yourself and your unit
- managing your own workload

Methods for decreasing stress after a mission:
- defusing
- tools for restoring your own and your unit's performance: enough rest and nutrition, personal hygiene, increasing sense of security with mental imaging training, contacting loved ones if possible, cooperation with the larger unit, finding meaningfulness and a sense of justice for your actions
- directing people to support services if needed

Tactical breathing technique, 4-4

– Inhale slowly through the nose and count to four
– Hold your breath and count to four
– Exhale slowly through the mouth and count to four
– Hold your breath and count to four – Repeat a few times (or until you feel that your breath has calmed)

You can practise this standing up or sitting down, but put your left hand on your chest and right hand on your diaphragm/stomach.

Focus on the diaphragm rising first when breathing in.

Holding your breath may be difficult at first, and you do not have to able to count to four immediately. It is more important that the flow of air stops for a moment.

With practise, you can try to lengthen the exhalation.

FIGURE 27. Tactical breathing.

Talks before combat and defusing after combat

After a superior's order each section will have a pre-combat conversation to prepare for battle. Its aim is the prevent stress and to improve the technical performance. In it you will go over the phases of the task in chronological order, while the leader will go over the techniques performed in these phases and also how you will feel in the different phases. This "mental coaching" is done in order to prepare for different situations that may arise so that when they happen, they will not be as stressful.

After the combat has ended and the situation allows, the section commander will have a defusing conversation with their section, i.e. the group that lived through the same experience. Its objective is to learn from possible mistakes so as to be better the next time, and to defuse any combat stress that was accumulated. First you go over the different phases of the task chronologically and how the section did, after that the leader may share their own feelings and give everyone the opportunity to talk about their feelings. No one must be blamed, for example for showing fear, "freezing", or something like that, but rather to accept human emotions in combat. The conversation ends with the leader giving new instructions, such as equipment maintenance or personal hygiene or preparing for the next task. The preparation and defusing conversations can and should be applied on different levels and thus defuse the combat stress and moral stress caused by both good and bad decisions.

The following table has more information about stress factors that exist in a soldier's operating environment, and about the leader's possibilities to influence their own and their unit's stress management.

In conclusion it can be stated that some of these factors – view of self, commitment, motivation, survival – have been tightly linked with the entity commonly referred to as psychological resilience. Psychological resilience or resilience refers to the individual's ability to withstand pressure or how flexible they are, and that is an indication about the individual's ability to act in stressful or even traumatic situations and how to recover from them.[290]

The key factors of resilience include strong self-efficacy, positive thinking and positive emotions (optimistic attitude), realistic understanding of own capabilities, good self control, good psychological coping mechanisms, good group cohesion, leader support and sense of togetherness.[291] Resilience also includes good social support from the perspective of unit cohesion and good leadership.

TABLE 2. Stressful factors in a soldier's operating environment and leader's potential tools to influence them.

Situation	Description	Things to think about as a leader
Baptism of fire	First combat contact is particularly stressful and the stress manifests already before combat. Uncertainty about one's own skills and restlessness before contact decrease soldiers' preparation.	A leader creates and maintains their subordinates trust in their own skills, capabilities and weapons. Trust is best built and maintained with realistic and sufficient training.
Situational Awareness	Situational awareness and especially a lack of it have a significant impact on performance and motivation. Uncertainty decreases motivation and creates worry and stress, which as a worst case can be blown out of proportion and cause dangerous rumours.	It is not enough that the leader has a good understanding of the surrounding situation. The leader must make ensure that the subordinates have situational awareness by keeping them up-to-date on the situation. It is also good to tell them that there are is no new information.
Rest and personal hygiene	Sufficient rest and personal hygiene plays a large role in how soldiers manage emotionally and physically. Physical stress and strain significantly increase the risk of psychological stress and combat stress reactions.	A leader's key task is to support the recovery of their subordinates at every possible opportunity. Therefore, the leader has to balance between task requirements, training and rest.
New guy	Integrating a new person into tight-knit group is challenging, both for the individual and for the unit. The situation becomes even more challenging when the new person replaces a fallen comrade. It is vital for unit cohesion and performance that the new person adapts and becomes a part of the unit.	A leader creates and atmosphere where the newcomer feels welcome and supports the integration of the new person into the unit. Brief the newcomer on the unit operating procedures and required level, personally introduce them to all members of the section and make sure they get enough training as part of the unit before the next task. Name a mentor for the newcomer who will brief and train them in their duties.
Facing those killed in action	Coming face to face those killed in action, particularly friendly KIAs, and handling them is always stressful and easily leads to combat stress symptoms and decreased human performance.	Points to think about as a leader: Treating and evacuating the wounded and the dead is included in the training. A leader must talk openly about the possibility of own casualties as well. Treat the fallen with respect.
New weapons or weapons that feel unbeatable	While operating under threat from new, surprising or weapons that feel overwhelming, such as chemical, biological, radiological or nuclear weapons or high-tech weapons (incl autonomous weapon systems), there is a high risk of feeling like you've lost control of things.	The overwhelming numbers of the enemy might not be true, but it can be a faulty interpretation caused by a faulty situation picture or wrong or incomplete information. You have to actively provide fact-based information on the modes of operating and power of new weapons. Additionally, you have to teach concrete measures to take cover from their effect and how to effect the weapons themselves.

5.3 Social Performance as Military Leader's Ability

Social performance/capability is the ability to understand oneself and one's readiness to act as a part of a group.[292] Social capability is closely linked to communication skills and relationships, cooperation, consideration for others and "Leave no one behind" spirit (peer support). The prerequisites for social capability are, among others, good self-knowledge and the ability to empathise with another person's experience. Social capability is supported by meaningful relationships with family and friends. Group cohesion is at the heart of social capability. In building social capability and group cohesion, the leader has an important role. They act as an example of how to work together in a way that supports the success of the group and its success in combat.

Group cohesion is a unit's characteristic that makes it superior to other sections. It is the foundation of a unit's performance, so it can be considered to be the unit's centre of gravity. Group cohesion can be divided into social cohesion and task cohesion. Social cohesion means how well the members of a group are welded together and how much they like each other and how much they value their group because of friend relationships. Task cohesion means how committed the members are to the same goal. The importance of group cohesion grows as combat stress increases: good group coherence buffers the effects of combat stress and helps the unit to succeed in its task.[293] A leader can strengthen task cohesion with their own actions but their means for changing social cohesion are very limited. Group cohesion improves a unit's performance, especially in situations where the unit is committed to achieving the group's goals. Ultimately, the soldiers fight for their own section and thus withstand the stress and strain caused by combat better than persons with a poorer group cohesion.

The leader's actions and group cohesion are closely linked and they both impact a unit's performance in combat. Simplified, a military leader's ability is judged based on two things: First of all, it is the leader's job to support the social relationships of the subordinates so that the people in the group support each other and work effectively. Assigning partners for work duties and combat, assigning tasks that require cooperation and increasing time spent together and creating shared experiences supports social cohesion. The objective is to create a section spirit and confidential relationships so that the fireteam and section provide support and comfort for the individual. Then the unit will remain functional in the extreme conditions of war.

Second, it is the job of the leader to create meaning not only for the work but also for the daily lives of their subordinates, and to connect the organization's goals with those of the individual and the group. Then the hard work of the individuals is a part of the wider organization and institution. It should be noted, however that too much emotional (affective) cohesion in a group may lead to a situation where the section no longer works effectively as part of a platoon, but starts to protect itself, for example against taking risks.

In the Finnish Defence Forces leaders and instructors can reinforce group cohesion. The following support the formation of strong group cohesion:
- Exemplary, task-committed and fair leaders,
- Clear objectives for the section and concrete intermediate goals,
- Demanding and challenging training,
- Close service with your own unit,
- Immediately intervening in social problems within the group,
- Working information flow in the unit, and
- Pride in the activities of the company-level unit.

A demonstration of group cohesion on the practical level, is how well do the members of the group help each other in service, do tasks independently to fulfil the task of the section (mission command), spend time together off-duty and how they value their leader as a member of the group and representative of the organization

As a leader, when you want to increase group cohesion
- Highlight the unit's task and the importance of the unit for achieving the objectives
- Present your own company-level unit's importance for the whole; use unit traditions and achievements to provide a concrete meaning
- Set challenging, but achievable goals for the section
- Chop the goals into intermediate goals, e.g. For daily training or the week's duties
- Reward achieving the goals with a thank you, a break, off-duty time or other rewarding methods available for the superior
- Require that the subordinates outdo themselves in training, for example in learning, speed and confidence of task completion, improving physical performance
- Challenge the section increasingly more demanding tasks or training situations
- Demand that everyone knows the fireteam task and can on some level act as a superior – this prepares them for acting in combat
- Train group working skills about how the section works in tight situations: that way the unit members learn to trust in each other and get experiences of success
- Encourage your unit members to support and help each other whenever possible
- Give your all in every task – be an example
- Value and help others, be considerate of others and ask for help if you need it
- Help your unit identify its own strengths as as a unit and as an individual
- Solve socially challenging situations fairly in a way that is respectful of all the parties
- Share information openly.

TABLE 3. Phases of forming a group.

1. Forming

In the beginning a group is undergoing a so-called forming phase. This begins when a new group starts work. It is typical that as the social relationships are only forming, the members of the group might even test each other. The members of the group are also quite dependent on each other, on the leader of the group and on the task of the group. At this point there might be tension, caution and strong conventionality, i.e. A desire to act for everyone's benefit so that no one is offended. If that were to happen, at this stage the group expects strong support from the leader to solve any possible conflicts.

2. Storming

This phase is known as storming, because things are stormy in the group because the team spirit and the strong sense of "we" is seen to be lost at the moment. There may be conflicts between the members of the group and it is possible that the group starts to divide into different sub-groups. In this phase the members will highlight their individuality and many differing points of view will be presented in conversations. On the one hand this is already one indication that people have spent enough time together as a group to have the courage to do this, but on the other hand this could be explained with a desire to stand out from the mass and be noticed also as an individual, not only as one of the members of the group. Arguing against something may also be directed at the leader of the group (at least when the leader is not there), and for the purpose of leading a group this is a particularly important phase.

3. Norming

When creating common rules, at the norming phase, the arguments destabilizing the group from the inside have been solved. As interaction improves, the members of the group will again feel a sense of togetherness, maybe stronger than before. Arguments and conflicts no longer hamper doing things together, which allows both for the group and the leader to focus on the common goal and task. It is typical that the goal is refined and clarified at this point. Additionally, the group will set its own rules for activities seeking to achieve the goal. This will often liberate the atmosphere when the "rules" have been set and discussed.

4. Performing

When in the phase of performing, at best the group can concentrate on doing the things that is the reason for the group being together. This does not mean that everything will automatically happen without problems, but the members of the group have learned to solve arising conflicts constructively by themselves. Mutual relationships that support achieving the goal have already been formed inside the group. The members are also responsible about their roles and responsibilities. This is the nicest phase both for the members of the group and the leader.

5. Dismantling

Dismantling the group or the ending phase is a natural part of a group's actions. At the end of service, a group will go over certain things that relate to the group ending its operations or at least that the activities are suspended for a while. There might be some sadness as the members say goodbye to each other and sometimes it may be very difficult for the members to give up the group. It is good to actively process the ending by going over things you went through and also how you achieved the goal.

5.4 Ethical Performance as Military Leader's Ability

A soldier's ethical performance is not only a separate perspective to leadership but a permanent and integral part of the activities. Here ethics refers to the values and moral norms that define good and evil, and right and wrong. Being ethical refers to the actions based on those values and norms. The values and moral norms that affect the actions of a group are not completely straightforward, because they consist of many sets of values and norms: that of the entire unit and those of its individual members; that of the Armed Forces; of the values and norms of the society and those of the international community.

Evaluating the ethicality of ethical leadership and also the ethical nature of the units actions is emphasized with military leaders, because it has been shown that unethical activities have detrimental effects on unit morale and on its ability to manage challenging tasks. As a result of unethical activities there may be more pressure against a unit from the armed forces, from society and from international actors. Unethical activities can easily be used as a source of propaganda. Unethical actions by a unit or its members may also result in legal consequences for the leader, as the leader is always ultimately responsible for their unit's actions.

Emphasizing the jus ad bellum and task commitment are tightly linked to the opportunities that the leader has for maintaining the ethical performance of their unit. This includes the ability to justify your actions to yourself and to other and the awareness of your own values, the understanding of right and wrong and the ability to tell the two apart. Most people primarily think that war is wrong and there may be doubts against the sense and purpose of the actions. If necessary, the leader needs to be able to justify the task, the combat and the use of violence. You can and you should see war as wrong, but it can also be considered just. War can be seen as just if it is waged by the legal government and not a single group or interest group. Second, war also needs to have a just reason. In the case of Finland, it is national defence against an armed attack. Third, a war needs to have a justified objective or goal, i.e. Restoring peace and law and order.[294]

In war, a unit and an individual soldier will unavoidably have to use violence. In practice this means operating contrary to what society expects from people in everyday life. Although, there are also circumstances in everyday life where the use of violence is seen as morally acceptable. Such situations include, for example the right to self-defence and the moral duty of defending innocent bystanders who have been attacked. In normal conditions certain groups – usually the police – also have a special duty to put themselves in harm's way in order to protect others, and for that purpose they have the right to use even lethal force if necessary. During war, all of the before-mentioned morally acceptable uses of violence are linked to the soldier. They can and may use violence for self-defence, to protect others and on the grounds of the duty they have because of their task and position.[295]

A leader has to be able to justify the use of violence that is required by the task, but they must not and cannot give a carte blanche to commit violence. The leader also has the responsibility to supervise that their unit refrains from causing unnecessary suffering, and to prevent the use of excessive and unnecessary force. Based on research and experiences, looking the other way even slightly, when it comes to ethical actions, use of force or the laws of Armed Conflict will lead to growing problems, both for the unit and for individual soldiers.[296]

In order to prevent moral stress, it is important to identify, not just the symptoms of combat stress, but also the symptoms and contemplation about moral stress and the ability of the victims to face casualties, the threat of violence and the emotional reactions caused by the use of violence. A leader can prepare their unit for future challenges by remaining calm and being present as much as possible, by listening and by being honest. If the unit has gotten casualties, you can add accepting emotions of the members as they are to the list and by preventing looking for someone to blame or by preventing blaming someone. You just have to accept that there is no good solution to all situations.

The impossibility of a "good solution" is the greatest cause of moral stress. You will inevitably face such situations in war, either so that you have to choose from only bad options, or that you have to "betray" one value that is important to you or to your unit in order to be able to carry out/respect another important value/values to yourself or to the unit. Additionally, it has been discovered that an idealized image of yourself or of your unit as a soldier/military unit and an illusion about the character of war exposes you to moral stress. They have also separately mentioned a situation where the soldier feels like that they cannot trust their superiors or the justification of the given task, and/or the ability of the superiors to understand the current situation.[297]

Accumulated moral stress, just like any stress will have a negative effect on a person's psychological and physical welfare. Furthermore, prolonged moral stress may cause a so-called moral trauma, where a person's overriding emotions are guilt and shame. The individual feels like they have done something wrong, even when they have not done anything legally or morally wrong. Moral trauma has been said to be different from post-traumatic stress disorder, because with moral trauma the person has failed their own values or betrayed the values of something important to them (society, family, Armed Forces, superior or their unit.[298] research has show that the feeling of a meaningful task or justification is a particularly important factor for preventing moral stress.[299] Therefore, if possible, the leader has to explain the importance of the task, the individual soldier's contribution to it, and the moral challenges related to the task, and how to face and accept those challenges.

The leader's tools for supporting ethical performance:
- Know what your own values are.
- Clearly separate right and wrong activities.
- Do not give an inch when it is about doing what is right, even in little things.
- Emphasize the importance of the unit's task and the individual soldier's task.
- Emphasize that what we are doing is just.
- Accept different points of view and emotions, do not trivialize them, but remind the unit that they have a task to do.
- Be honest, be an example.

5.5 Physical Performance and Capability as Military Leader's Ability

Physical capability is the readiness to survive physically demanding tasks in all situation and conditions. As the operations and fighting begins there is likely not enough time to improve physical performance or performance recovery. During demanding operations, the physical performance of soldiers will also decrease rapidly. This is why the physical capability of the forces must be at a high level even before the start of the action.[300]

A military leader has to understand the factors that affect physical performance and improving it (Figure 28). You must consider these factors when preparing for operational duties.

FIGURE 28. Factors affecting the improvement of physical performance.[301]

A military leader needs to understand the following parts of the whole relating to maintaining and improving your physical performance.[302]

- The importance of good physical condition in relation to other military training
- The definition of physical performance and influencing factors
- Different areas of physical fitness and improving them
- The role of hydration, nutrition and conditions in physical performance
- The role of rest and recovery in physical performance
- Physical performance in combat and influencing attitudes to exercising
- Introduction and methods to maintaining physical fitness
- The impact of physical training on unit performance.

A military leader's own physical performance must be better than average. As a soldier who looks after their physical performance, the leader is an example and a model to their own unit. The leader's example may inspire the subordinates to work out and to improve their physical capability. The military leader also has to be able to improve the performance and capability of their unit to the level required by the task before operational duties begin.[303]

The physical strain of military tasks is generally high and often the leader has to work in a state of physical strain. The load carried by soldiers has increased and there is increasingly less time for recovery. One of the physical challenges to a soldier's performance is the decreased physical performance due to sleep deprivation and insufficient recovery of the body. This is why the physical performance of military leaders has to be better than average in any kind of weather or tasks. All military duties do not have the same physical requirements. Still, typical military tasks include continuous lifting, carrying, dragging or pushing loads; foot marches wearing a fighting load, weighing approximately 25–30 kg.[304] The physical strain of a soldier in the field varies depending on task, but it can still be said that good physical condition provides performance reserve for sudden high strain situations; it strengthens the body's adaptation mechanisms and speeds up the body's recovery from strain.

> Good physical condition and performance not only enables success in physically demanding duties but it also supports psychological performance. When a soldier is in good physical condition, they will not be stressed as quickly, which supports maintaining your psychological performance longer.

Resources related to physical surroundings include leadership and strain management, logistics, nutrition and liquids, medical care (incl. Medications and vaccinations) and training opportunities. It is the leader's responsibility to adjust the physical stress and strain, for example by each time considering the use of vehicles for movement, in order to "conserve" the physical capacity of the soldiers. A leader has to evaluate the different stress and strain factors of a physically demanding task so that the task is executed in an optimal way. What is tactically the best option may not always be sensible in the big picture when you consider the limitations in physical performance. If you move to execute the task on foot, you have to account for the duration of the task, the distance, route and kit, and assess what effects they have on maintaining performance.[305] This is an example for other military duties as well, where you have to do similar planning from the perspective of physical performance.

> A soldier in good physical condition cannot maintain their ability to function if they do not get enough nutrition, hydration or sleep. A leader must know their subordinates and the limits of their physical performance in order to maintain the performance in physically demanding tasks.

Improving physical performance requires regular training and you cannot store it, at least for too long.[306] The leader must support and encourage their subordinates to improve their physical fitness independently and to be physically active. The goals and starting points for independent training must be planned individually to account for any limitations that the subordinate's physical performance might have. The crucial thing is that the subordinate understand the importance of improving physical performance. A leader must educate the subordinate and maintain the subordinate's internal motivation for improving their own performance in the long term. You can support internal motivation, for example by including the subordinate in planning their own training programme. This way the subordinate can have a say in how they train. The leader sets the goals, but it is also important that the subordinate feels like the set goals are achievable. Include goals related to being successful in military duties in the training (compare sports /task analysis). Doing things together and good spirit within the section will help cultivate the individual's internal motivation.[307]

> A leader must enable opportunities for the subordinate to improve their physical performance. The leader must encourage them to independently improve their physical fitness in the long-term.

Physical strain and stress are requirements for improving fitness, but one must also recover. A situation where one cannot recover sufficiently from physical stress and strain is called overreaching. It is a state of imbalance between strain and recovery.[308] This imbalance can lead to overreaching and if it continues for a prolonged time, it can become chronic. Recovering from chronic overreaching can take several months of even years. As a result of the overreaching, the psychological characteristics that the important for a leader, such as cognitive competence, potentially decrease.[309]

The leader must be aware of how strained the unit is, and to monitor for signs of overreaching both in themself and in the unit. Additionally, the leader will regulate their subordinates' strain and will order the subordinates to rest or to do active recovery exercises if necessary.

Symptoms of overreaching include.[310]
- Decreased performance, tiredness and weakness
- Sleeplessness, sleep disorders, lack of appetite or increased appetite
- Frequent infections
- Heart palpitations, chest pain,
- Shortness of breath, particularly under physical stress
- Lack of muscle strength, lack of muscle control, muscle pains, involuntary muscle spasms
- Decreased reaction time and coordination
- Mood with increasingly more negative and less positive feelings
- Inability to concentrate, frequent headaches
- Audio and visual disturbances
- Changes in bodyweight and gastrointestinal symptoms or nausea.

Sufficient exercise stimuli enable improving physical performance and maintaining it without the unit physical performance collapsing or C2 being disrupted. Sufficient rest, nutrition and sleep are prerequisites for achieving sufficient improvement through exercises. If the exercise stimuli are not sufficient, physical performance will decrease in the long term. On the other hand, if the exercise stimuli are too strong it will lead to under-recovery, where the unit's physical performance will momentarily decrease and C2 is possibly disrupted. Strong exercise stimuli will be effective for improving performance when there is enough of recovery time and there are no strain-inducing factors at the same time. If there are other stress factors present with the physical strain, such as psychological strain and poor sleep, the result often is a state of overreaching. Then, the positive exercise effect is not achieved and the unit's performance is significantly decreased. Command and control is also disrupted, for example because of the decrease in psychological characteristics. In order to recover from overstrain, one has to rest at first and after that continue light training until the body has recovered.

Depending on the organs and the nature of the strain, recovery of physical performance can take from minutes to even weeks. A leader must understand that heart rate and body temperature will recover from strain in minutes. Oxygen intake and cognitive functions will take hours to recover. The energy stores of muscles and muscle tenderness will recover in days, but the recovery of the neuromuscular system can take up to a week or more. If necessary, the leader will assign different activities to their subordinates that will support the recovery. Recovery methods include exercises that help the nervous system recover, such as low intensity, long-lasting endurance exercises

Low-intensity sports are not a good recovery method for low-intensity stess, such as military training in the field. Rest and acquiring carbohydrates and nutrition are good methods for the recovery of the nervous system and muscles. All kinds of other activities such as going to the sauna and doing Soldier's Mind exercises are also good methods for psychological recovery.

Legend:
- **Improvement** (green)
- **Slow improvement** (orange)
- **No improvement** (red)

PHYSICAL STRESS

- **SUITABLE**
- **TOO HIGH**
- **INSUFFICIENT**

Repeated physical stress Lack of sleep, rest and nutrition, illnesses, psychological stress etc.

UNDERRECOVERY

- REST
- NUTRITION
- SLEEP
- ACTIVE RECOVERY EXERCISES

Optimal recovery

Improving physical condition

Capable soldier

OVERREACHING

Cognitive skills weaken, concentrating is harder, lower mood and motivation, lower quality sleep, poorer physical performance

– risk for musculoskeletal injury increases
– performance and individual military readiness decreases
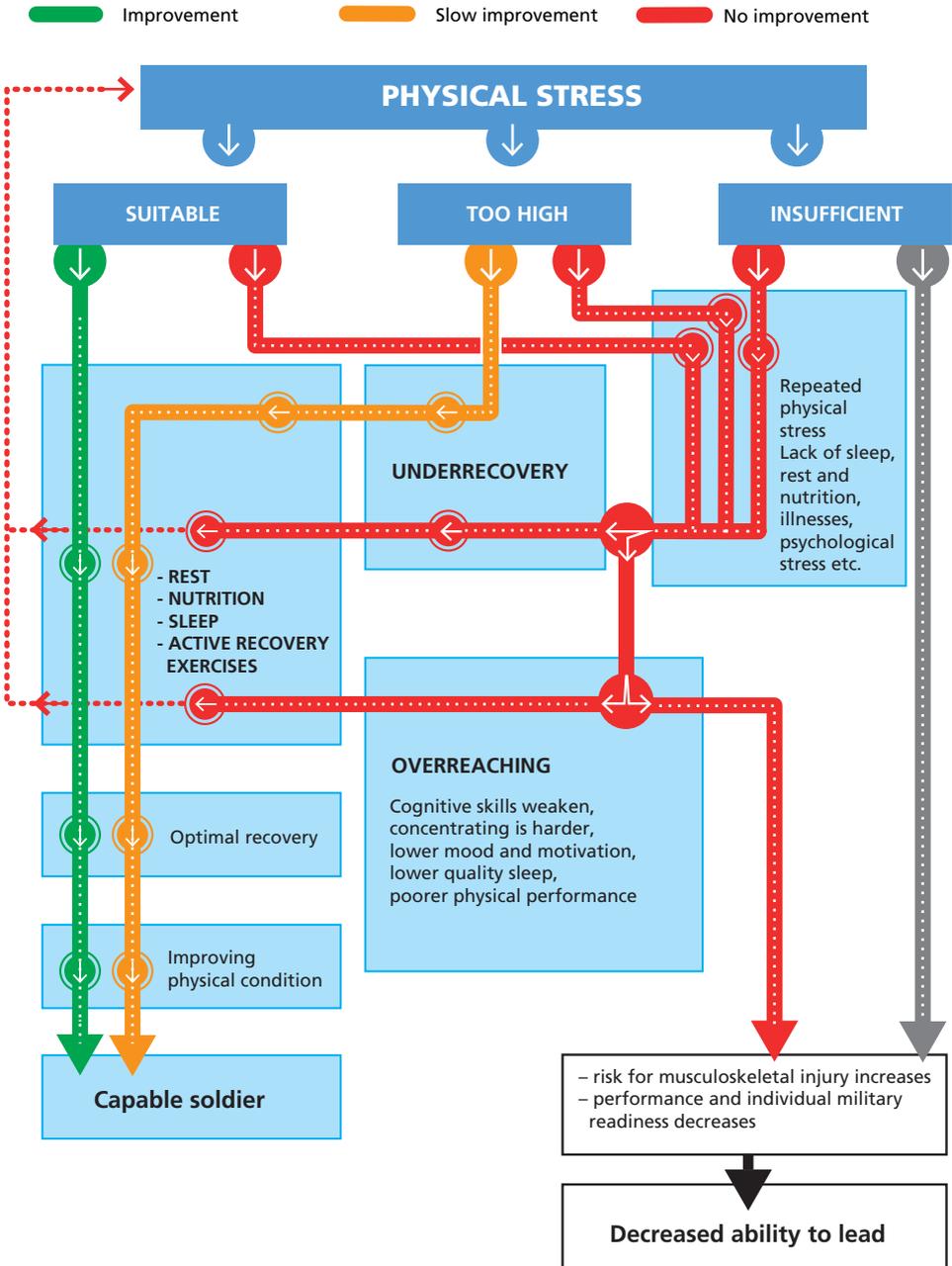
Decreased ability to lead

FIGURE 29. Improvement of physical performance, strain, stress and overreaching and its effect on leadership activities.

As a leader you can influence the maintenance, improvement and recovery of physical performance in the following ways:

- Be an example of how to take care of your physical performance.
- Train your unit physically, if there is otherwise little physical load.
- Have recovery exercises after physically taxiing exercises.
- Direct your soldiers to do muscle maintenance, such as stretching, cold treatments or self-massage, after physically straining activities.
- Be prepared to provide first aid for injuries by making sure you have first aid kits and care available and prepare with preventive measures, such as taping feet before foot marches.
- Make sure that the unit gets enough nutrition, hydration and sleep.
- Account for differences in individual fitness when assigning demanding duties.
- Watch for signs of overreaching and direct the unit to rest or to do lighter exercises if necessary.

5.6 Leading Performance Development, Maintenance and Recovery

Performance is affected for example by nutrition, hydration, sleep, recovery, health and requirements set by the operating environment. With their actions the leader can have an effect on their own and on the unit performance by noting relevant factors in their command and control.

Nutrition and liquids enable the maintaining your performance during long tasks and they are necessary for the maintenance of good physical performance. The first signs of energy deficiency are tiredness, irritability and a feeling of weakness. The first signs of dehydration are headaches, mood swings and decreased physical performance. In cold and hot weather, and during physical activities the importance of drinking is heightened. You must always take advantage of available food and drink and to grab the excess to eat later. Before demanding and long physical strain you should eat much carbohydrates and liquids. A leader must make sure that the soldiers eat and drink and to make sure that there is enough of it available. In addition to nutrition, you need about 2 litres of clean water every day.

Do not let your performance drop by skipping meals or not drinking because you are not hungry or thirsty! ► Regularity (breakfast, luch, dinner, evening snack, and necessary/possible snacks).

Sleep is absolutely necessary for health and performance. Sufficient, good quality sleep helps you recover from the day and gives strength and vitality. The recommendation for sufficient amount of sleep is 6–8 hour a day. It has an impact on both physical (endurance, strength and speed) and psychological performance (learning, deductive skills, observation skills and mood), and thus on social and ethical performance. The need for sleep increases and becomes more important during physically demanding days. The leader must ensure that the entire unit gets some sleep. This can be done for example by distributing sentry duties so that everyone has the opportunity to get uninterrupted sleep.

How to identify sleep-deprivation?
- You can no longer operate in physically and mentally demanding duties as well as when you are refreshed.
- Your power of observation decreases, which affects your situational awareness.
- Your motor functions decrease, which affects your weapon handling skills.
- You feel disoriented and you ability to make decisions decreases.
- Your mood drops and you feel sad.
- You become more irritated and lose your temper faster than when feeling refreshed.

Recovery is a requirement for improving and maintaining physical performance. Continuous and too high of a strain without sufficient recovery will lead to a state of overtraining and decreased performance. A leader must account for previous stress and enable recovery before giving new stressful and straining tasks. The leader must assess the condition of every subordinate, so that they can delegate tasks in a way that is good for recovery.

Health is a state of physical, psychological and social well-being. A leader can promote their own health and that of their subordinates by making sure that clothes and kit are dried. For example, keeping your feet wet and cold often leads to catching a cold, when your immunity is weakened as is. The leader also looks after hygiene, which can protect the unit against various diseases: wash yourself whenever possible. The leader can support psychological and social well-being for example with discussions. You must have medical materiel and, if necessary, medication always available, and the leader make sure that the contents of the medical kit is up-to-date and always with the unit.

The operating environment may cause physical and psychological strain. A leader must identify what performance weakening factors the operating environment has. Maintaining your performance is affected by, for example the weather, the terrain, the unit spirit and the current enemy situation. A leader must react to changes in the operating

environment and, if necessary, change the task execution method in order to ensure performance, for example by changing the route to an easier one in hot temperatures.

As a leader take care of the following:
- Getting enough sleep and rest regularly
- That meals are provided regularly and that they provide enough energy
- That there is enough hydration available and that people drink regularly
- That people dress for the weather
- That people dry their clothes and kit: for example, keeping your feet wet and cold often leads to catching a cold, when your immunity is weakened as is.
- Personal hygiene: to protect your unit against different diseases, wash whenever possible
- Regulating the overall load and stress, and organizing straining or recovery exercises as necessary
- The stress and strain of your unit. If necessary, delegate the monitoring responsibility to your fireteam leaders, this gives you some time for personal recovery.

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4

Leading a Work Community – Pedagogical Leadership

This section focuses on the work community and the role and activity of superiors in the community. In the Finnish Defence Forces, leadership is based on the framework of deep leadership. The concept of pedagogical leadership provides guidelines for superiors' activity in the work community. Leadership in the work community and enhancement of interpersonal skills of the Defence Forces' personnel is supported by Superior and Interaction Skills course.

1 Work community as an operating environment

A functional work community requires a common goal and clearly communicated objectives and responsibilities. In such circumstances, everyone knows what is expected from them in their personal tasks and what is the common goal and how it can be achieved. Working methods, responsibilities and feedback practices are all agreed with the superior.[311] Decision-making and access to information is open, and collegial trust is evident.[312]

Work communities today are more varied and complex than ever, characterized by expertise and activity that is not limited to people's immediate work communities. At the same time, working methods and ways to work have changed as a result of constant technological advancement and changes in the operating environment. All these developments make continuous learning and a pro-learning attitude in the work community extremely important. Due to these changes, leaders, too, need new skills. Instead of knowing everything about everything, leaders today are enablers, facilitators, coaches and problems-solvers, requiring skills needed in those roles. This means that leadership is becoming more of a shared effort.

The collective experiences and competences in the work community can support superiors in preparing for various matters. An example of this is provided by participative decision-making, in which employees can influence the decisions made in the work community either directly or via their representatives.[313, 314] All individuals in the work community are responsible for promoting team-spirit and working atmosphere and for developing its practices.

This is supported by work culture which is open to dialogue and feedback, allowing employees to voice any concerns they may have. Trust, respect, the sense of togetherness, innovativeness and opportunities for self-development as well as for developing own work create a positive attitude to work and improve work engagement. The significance of collegial relations within the work community must not be undervalued; colleagues may well be the key contributor to work engagement and the sense of work meaningfulness. Relationships between individuals within the work community have a great influence on general atmosphere and well-being at work. With functional relationships, the flow of information is undisturbed, and asking colleagues or superiors for help is easy. Being of assistance to others is just as easy. The sense of belonging to a community is a basic human need, and being a part of a community has a clear positive effect on a person's self-esteem and self-acceptance. In a work community, people experience the sense of belonging. To strengthen the sense of togetherness, we must pay attention to people's individual qualities, needs and wishes. Reciprocity, mutual respect, supporting others and learning from others build a solid ground to all activity in the work community. Cooperation is meaningful, connecting people, making the common goal more concrete and providing an opportunity to gain shared experiences.[315]

We often talk about the leader's responsibility, but employees bear responsibility for their organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) themselves. OCB benefits superiors' management activities and the overall work culture in the community. We should emphasize the role of the whole work community in bearing the responsibility for maintaining well-being at work, enhancing work capability and keeping up a good atmosphere at the workplace. A pleasant working atmosphere can be created by open, fair, polite and respectful behaviour towards colleagues in the community.

Superiors can support their subordinates by:
- providing opportunities for professional and personal growth
- communicating the goals and duties of each employee clearly
- giving credit, encouraging and giving feedback
- Making sure that a person's competence is sufficient for job requirements
- Building a leadership, interaction and feedback culture that is open and invites to participate
- Acknowledging each employees' role and importance and building the sense of togetherness
- Monitoring the workloads and supporting employees' efforts to enhance their capabilities

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2 The Role and Position of a Superior in the Work Community

The past approaches to leadership and the role of superiors have placed emphasis on monitoring and mechanistic leadership. Nowadays, employees are viewed as self-managing, goal-oriented and creative members of the work community, willing to enhance their knowledge and skills. A superior who is open and genuine in their interactions with people creates an atmosphere where members of the work community are likely to be motivated and creative, achieving their goals and learning continuously. In such a scenario, leadership is realised through interaction between the superior and their subordinates.[316] The superior's ways to lead are not always the same, nor should they be, since different situations and operating environments require different approaches.

Employees typically have some image of a superior and their role, with a multitude of wishes, requirements, and expectations for them, some of which are perhaps unrealistic. The position of a superior requires healthy self-esteem, strong interpersonal skills, empathy and the ability and courage to put oneself on the line. A superior must be present and available and give time to their subordinates. It is also important to listen to the subordinates and involve them in the development of the work community.

A superior's activity must be transparent, consistent and foreseeable. Their key task is to lead by example, set an example. In practice, this means the right attitude, honesty, trustworthiness, fair and equal treatment of people and orderly appearance. A superior treats their subordinates equally and fairly, not favouring anyone. They must also possess the ability and skill to make decisions and take responsibility even in difficult situations. A superior also has to be genuine. Genuine people are valued and respected and they are considered to be brave actors.[317]

A superior's role is multifaceted. They must be prepared to give advice and supervise, organise, solve problems and provide resources for the work community. One of the core skills of a superior is the ability to affect positively on employees' motivation, commitment, work attitude and job satisfaction. A superior must be people-oriented, sensitive to their subordinates' feelings and ideas. On the other hand, they must also be task-oriented and take initiative to improve and maintain organizational structures.[318] By creating a work culture that encourages open feedback and honest dialogue, a superior can enhance productivity, job satisfaction, well-being at work and the team-spirit. In a functional work community, each member of the community and their competence are valued.[319]

The values of the Finnish Defence Forces as well as its personnel strategy provide a framework for organizational and leadership culture, supporting superiors in building their ways of leadership. However, it is difficult to become a better leader without feedback from others. The Deep Leadership model and the Finnish Defence Forces' Superior and Interaction Skills Course provide a solid ground and tools for growing as a leader. Collecting feedback on a regular basis (360° profile) and acting on it is one way of improving leadership and interpersonal skills.

> When we acknowledge that we are not infallible as superiors, we acknowledge how important it is to continuously strive for better leadership.

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3 Leading a work community at the Defence Forces

Acting as a superior is a multifaceted, complex task, with many different aspects relating to the leading of people and management of work. The nature of the task is shaped, for example, by duties of the subordinates in the work community, and its structure, personnel and age distribution.

A good, functional work community is usually characterized by the following qualities: Equality, atmosphere that is open to communication and dialogue, open feedback culture, security and safety, clearly communicated duties and roles, tasks that correspond to employees' competence and job descriptions, commitment to common goals and rules, employees' willingness to improve their performance, and motivating, top-quality leadership.

At the Finnish Defence Forces, leadership is built on three components (see Figure 30 below):
- Pedagogical leadership
- Leading people
- Management of competency, training and development, and developing operating culture

FIGURE 30. Leading a work community at the Defence Forces.

In addition to the above, leaders and superiors must naturally act according to the Finnish legislation as well as the obligations imposed on them by The Finnish Defence Forces' orders, regulations and instructions.

3.1 Pedagogical leadership

Leadership is a complex concept, understood and interpreted in various ways. Usually, leadership refers to the formal position of a leader or a superior in an organization, or to some specific personal qualities or competences. Leadership is based on self-knowledge, upon which leaders and superiors can build their personal views, ways of behaviour and leader identity, and internalize and develop them further. Another relevant dimension affecting leadership is the operating environment. Leaders need to appreciate its effect on their behaviour and interaction. Pedagogical leadership is a multifaceted concept, with emphasis on skills required to lead people. Pedagogical leadership prioritizes a leader's or a superior's own attitude, exemplary behaviour, open communication, equal treatment of people and skills to motivate members of the work community to continuous learning and adaptation to changes. Pedagogical leadership requires, for example, skills of self-leadership and the ability to share leadership. In practical leadership, open communication and collaboration are of utmost importance.

3.1.1 Self-leadership

Acquisition of leadership skills starts from self-leadership. Self-leadership, in turn, requires self-knowledge, which refers to a person's knowledge about themselves, their views, personality and factors impacting their behaviour, such as values and attitudes.[320] Self-leadership also covers a person's ability to manage their behaviour and actions. Self-knowledge is a prerequisite for emotional intelligence, which is an essential self-leadership skill. Emotional intelligence refers to a leader's ability to recognise the role of emotions and their impact on all leadership and communication behaviour and actions. It also refers to the ability to identify emotions of others and the impact these may have on their actions and behaviour. The basic components of self-leadership are, among others:

- Ability to plan, organise, develop and reflect on one's work
- Ability to keep up and improve one's performance and skills
- Ability to set clear, realistic goals
- Time management skills, prioritizing
- Independent thinking and action
- Ability to adapt to changes, change management skills
- Ability to be content with the level of one's performance
- Ability to listen to others and learn from them
- Ability to give and receive feedback
- Ability to practice shared leadership

Maintaining own performance and healthy lifestyle as well as taking time for sufficient mental and physical rest are vital self-leadership skills. The first step in the acquisition of better self-leadership skills is the recognition and acknowledgement of one's resources and their limits as well as one's strengths and points of development.

Self-leadership is a skill that can be practised – and it is worthwhile.

3.1.2 Shared leadership

Pedagogical leadership is closely interlinked with shared leadership, thanks to which the whole work community can commit to shared goals and to development of work culture in the community. Shared leadership is put into practice by distributing and delegating tasks, duties and resources to different people and teams. Shared leadership is a superior's tool to involve the whole personnel in various planning, preparing and development processes, thus enhancing their commitment. This provides opportunities for collaboration, distribution of best practices and enhancement of team-spirit, group cohesion and work culture. Shared leadership promotes leadership and work culture that is based on trust, open communication and shared objectives. It also requires that members and teams in the work community are autonomous and independent and have sufficient work community skills.[321]

Leading is interaction between the leader and their subordinates.

3.2 Leading people – deep leadership

The principles of deep leadership provide a framework for leading people and for goal-oriented interaction and its development (see Section 2). If a superior shows appreciation, builds trust and is genuinely interested in others, members of the work community are more likely to be motivated and committed to their work and shared goals. Open and just leadership that supports learning and development promotes employees' job satisfaction, occupational welfare and the overall functioning of the work community. The development of superiors' and subordinates' interpersonal skills can be supported by the feedback process integrated in the deep leadership model. In leading people, open communication and genuine presence are of vital importance. From the leadership point of view, it is also important that each employee knows their tasks and duties and considers their work as a meaningful contribution to the work community's efforts. Should any issues or challenges emerge in the work community, they should not be belittled nor pushed aside but brought up and dealt with immediately. It is the superior's responsibility to handle any issues that come to their attention as soon as possible.

Listen, talk, be genuine and available and build trust.

Leading people often requires on-the-spot solutions and decision-making, which makes it, in some respects, similar to situational leadership. Situational leadership requires, above all, the ability to respond to sudden changes in circumstances. It also requires flexibility, the ability to revise and change plans and decisions that have been made.

Leading people as a whole involves features specific to work ability leadership, occupational welfare management, change leadership, age management and leadership in remote work. Superiors and leaders should be familiar with the tenets and foundations of these leadership theories and models. This knowledge helps to conceptualize one's own role when leading people. It also provides a solid ground on which to build leadership that is sensitive to the needs of the work community and the people in it.

3.2.1 Work ability leadership

FIGURE 31. Components of work ability.[322]

Work ability leadership supports the well-being, coping and performance of personnel throughout their entire career. Work ability leadership is the foundation of occupational welfare, providing tools for early support measures. Its building blocks are, on one hand, the triangle of the employee, their tasks and duties and the work community, and on the other hand, interaction and communication between the superior and the employee. Work ability leadership is based on knowledge about specific, measurable variables, preplanned monitoring and recognized risks. Responsibility for employees' work ability lays with the upper or medium level management in particular, but each superior must keep it in mind in their daily routines.

Work ability has various components, as shown in Figure 31. It can be illustrated as a house with four floors. The three bottom floors illustrate personal resources and the top floor illustrates work, working conditions and leadership. The bottom floor is built of a person's health, lifestyle and performance. The second floor comprises a person's professional and pedagogical knowledge and skills. The third floor consists of a person's values and attitudes as well as their approach and commitment to work. The top floor is made up of the working environment and atmosphere, tasks and duties, work arrangements and workload.[323] The Finnish Defence Forces' operating environment and the leading and working culture provide a framework for individuals' work ability and its maintenance and enhancement. All components of work ability can be impacted positively by superiors' active measures.

Occupational health care works alongside superiors, preventing work-related illnesses and accidents, ensuring safety and security of working environments and promoting employees' health and work ability throughout their career.[324] Health checks and workplace assessment carried out regularly help maintain the work ability of each employee and the whole working community.

According to the early support model, superiors should monitor their subordinates' work ability and be proactive, diminishing risks and if need be, respond to perceived problems or shortcomings. Warning signs of declining work ability or well-being include negative turns in the job satisfaction surveys, increase in the number of sick leaves, forming of cliques within the community and loss of open communication.[325]

When a subordinate's work ability is in decline, Occupational health care is there to help them and superiors to deal with the situation.

Superiors should be aware of all the factors that may have an impact on people's work ability and performance. It is their duty to monitor the employees for possible changes in work ability. Usually, the closest superior knows the situation best. Any changes must be responded to

as soon as possible. Superiors also play an important role in preventing damage caused by the use of alcohol or drugs.[326] If something seems to be wrong in the work community, or a person appears to be struggling with their work or is frequently on sick leave, a superior must interfere and initiate a work ability discussion. The goal of the discussion is to evaluate the person's ability to cope in their job, considering their tasks and duties, mental reserves and competences. If needed, the discussion is followed by work ability negotiation and work ability assessment, which are organized in cooperation with the occupational health care.[327]

Measures that superiors can take to promote their subordinates' work ability include, for example, encouraging open communication, early interference, involvement of all members in the work community, clearly communicated organisation of work and resources as well as adjustment of workload.

3.2.2 Occupational welfare management

Occupational welfare is dependent on various factors in an organization. As shown in Figure 32, these factors are associated with the organization, work community, work itself and each person as an individual.[328] Occupational welfare – or a person's well-being at work – is each individual's personal experience on how healthy, safe and well-managed their work is. It is also each individual's experience on how changes in the work community are managed, what kind of support is provided by the work community to its members and how meaningful and rewarding individuals find their work.[329]

Organization
· functional and clear
· consistent
· sufficient resources

Work community
· Open communication and feedback culture
· Goal-orientedness
· Collaboration
· Positive attitude towards development
· Group cohesion

Leadership
· Open communication
· Shared leadership
· Atmosphere Working conditions and arrangements
· Monitoring workload and stress factors

Work
· safe, meaningful and rewarding
· corresponding to competence
· opportunity to influence one's work
· opportunity for learning

Individual
· work ability
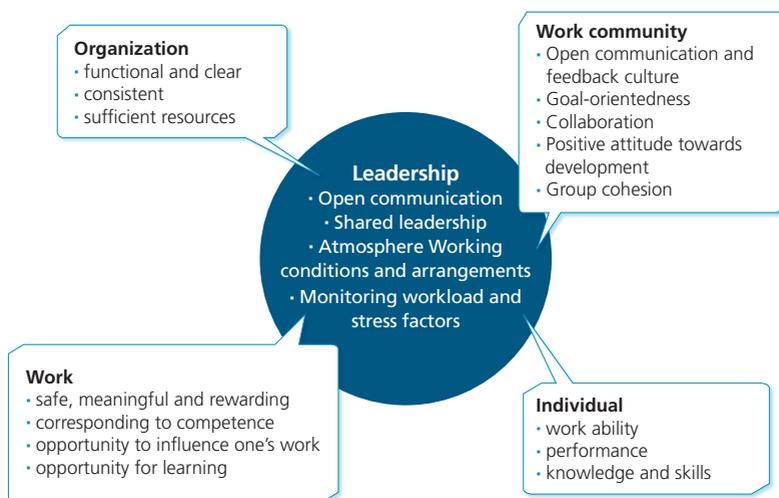· performance
· knowledge and skills

FIGURE 32. Factors affecting occupational welfare.[330]

Well-being at work can be achieved only if a person's work ability, performance and competence correspond to job requirements. All work and work-related arrangements are performed within the framework set by the organization and work community. A functional work community is characterized by clear goals and objectives, shared operating culture and open communication and feedback culture. The distribution of tasks and duties are clearly communicated so that everyone knows what is expected from them as a member of the work community. From the perspective of occupational welfare, it is of vital importance that work is safe, productive, meaningful and rewarding, supporting individuals' life management. The state of occupational welfare in a work community can be evaluated on the basis of feedback and results of job satisfaction surveys as well as by monitoring absences due to illness.[331] Well-being at work also has a positive effect on work engagement, which refers to high motivation and positive emotions towards work.

Good and fair leadership that accounts for individual needs and differences is a prerequisite for occupational welfare. Being able to plan and focus on one's tasks and duties benefits people's well-being at work. Having to take over tasks and duties that are not part of one's job description is a stress factor, especially it happens unexpectedly and frequently.

A superior can promote their subordinates' well-being at work by open communication and equal treatment of people; by practising shared leadership and involvement; by considering individual needs; by fostering team spirit; by organizing work effectively; by guiding their subordinates to various welfare-support measures; and by adjusting workloads and stress factors. Working and learning atmosphere that is open to feedback and further development also contributes to people's well-being at work. Although occupational welfare and its promotion are leaders' duties, all members of the work community should be involved in the task and do their share. All members of the work community should get together and brainstorm a list of means to promote well-being at work.

> All members of the work community should foster and work to improve well-being at work.

3.2.3 Change leadership

Leadership in times of changes is challenging. Change is usually a complex, dynamic process involving learning new procedures and practices and unlearning old ones. In times of organizational changes, a superior must understand the extent and dimensions of the change: is it major or minor, swift or slow; does it affect individuals, work practices or the operating culture. For example, a new superior is usually a major

change, and potentially a stress factor to subordinates due to a new leading style and changing operating culture. Individuals face changes in different ways, but the process usually involves

1. Denial and resistance
2. Letting go and acceptance
3. Exploration and learning
4. Integration of new practices and operating culture

Changes are often met with individual or collective resistance, which may stem from lack of information, uncertainty, perceived threat, mis-understandings, anxiety about having to learn new things or satisfaction with the present state of affairs. Resistance is a strong emotion, the significance of which should not be downplayed in times of organizational change. Each of us possesses a different set of skills to deal with changes, and we respond to them, handle them and move on accordingly. Change leadership is easier if a superior know their subordinates and their individual abilities to deal with emotions and change.

The changing process and its phases are not necessarily straightforward. Each phase requires proactive measures that suit that specific situation. For a change to be successful, new practices and procedures must be embraced by and integrated into the leadership and operating culture in the work community. Superiors' personal attitude, the example they set, their openness, presence, listening skills and communication skills are particularly important in times of change. Efforts to commit all members of the work community to new practices, involving them in the process and working together contribute to the acceptance of change and moving on.[332]

A check-list for superiors for times of change:
- Communicate, be proactive, schedule and prioritize.
- Build trust, involve, motivate, listen and talk.
- Be available, advise, instruct and make sure that people know what they need to know.
- Make new practices and procedures an established part of the operating culture in the work community.

3.2.4 Age management

Age management is not a distinct sub-field of leadership, but refers to leading people of different age groups in general. A person lives through various phases in their personal life during their professional career, and each of them may have an impact on their work and work ability. Their work ability may change at any point of their career. In age management, attention is paid especially to the work ability, educational background, work experience, expectations and needs of people of different age groups.[333]

A professional career can be divided into the following stages, all of which call for different measures from the superior and the work community[334]:

1. Early stage
   - orientation and tutoring
   - Supervision and support to further development of skills
   - Support to on-the-job learning
2. Middle stage
   - Maintaining and updating knowledge and skills
   - Enabling job rotation
   - Making use of knowledge, skills and experience
3. Late stage
   - Share of tacit knowledge
   - Checking on work engagement and knowledge and skills
   - Support measures related to the end of professional career

A. Work-life balance (on all career stages)
   - Flexible arrangements at work
B. Changes in work ability (on all career stages)
   - Work ability support measures in cooperation with occupational health care
   - Flexible arrangements at work

Leadership practices must be adapted to subordinates' career stages. Age management helps to organise work and make suitable arrangements. The foundation of age management is superiors' personal view of age and different age groups as well as their concern for subordinates' work ability and performance. Age management is consideration of a person's age, phase of life, mental and physical resources, possible changes in performance as well as consequences of work-related stress. In age management, too, open communication between superiors and subordinates as well as consideration of people's personal needs are of utmost importance.[335]

3.2.5 Leadership in remote work

Leadership in remote work refers to any situation in which a superior and their subordinate are not in the same physical space. Benefits of remote work include better work-life balance, fewer distractions and improved efficiency. Disadvantages, in turn, are related to technology, ergonomics, lack of community and working without breaks. In addition, remote work is likely to disintegrate the work community to some extent.[336] The sense of exclusion can have a clear negative effect on productivity in remote work and on the overall sense of belonging to a work community. Remote work requires self-leadership skills: ability to work independently and solve problems autonomously.

Remote work may be occasional or long-term, which both require different leadership strategies.[337] From the leadership point of view, one of the key concerns in remote work is the employees' work ability and performance as well as well-being at work and how they can be monitored. Trust between a superior and a subordinate is extremely important in remote work, as are the means of daily and weekly communication. Communication relies on various virtual communication tools. A superior must make sure that a subordinate working remotely knows exactly what they have to do and what is expected from them. The parties should agree on ground rules for reporting on work-related matters and feedback practices. In addition to meetings with the whole work community and smaller teams, open and confidential communication with a superior is equally important to people in remote work.

3.3 Pedagogical Leadership in a work community

Pedagogical leadership is management of teaching, training and learning, including planning, implementation, assessment and development of education and training. This involves measures that facilitate, support and promote learning and build a learning culture that enables achievement of learning aims. Broadly speaking, pedagogical leadership is the leader's and the work community's common tool, used to support and develop daily practices in the work community. Pedagogical leadership creates a setting for continuous professional and pedagogical development of the personnel. At the same time, it serves to secure high-quality education and training and to enable continuous development of pro-learning operating culture, following the principles of a learning organization.[338]

It is not only leaders' or superiors' duty to develop practices in a work community, but all members of the community, regardless of their position and job, are obliged to contribute, through pedagogical leadership in particular.[339] Pedagogical leadership is a continuous process, which should be regarded as an integral part of a work community's annual operation plan. Surveys and feedback forms are used regularly to form an overall picture of pedagogical leadership practices, and tools such as competency mapping, personal development plans and performance appraisals are utilised in leadership practices and in developing the operating culture of the work community.

3.3.1 Competency management

As a result of both internal and external pressures for change and changing needs in job market, skills and knowledge requirements in a work community are constantly increasing. Providing personnel with opportunities to maintain and update their skills and making sure they have sufficient skills to carry out their tasks are the key duties of a superior.

Competency management creates a foundation for work community operations, high-quality implementation of tasks and training events as well as their development. Needs for personnel's further education and training can, to a large extent, be deduced from the duties and tasks assigned to the work community. At best, competency management is clear, goal- and future-oriented practice which aims at ensuring, maintaining or improving each employee's personal competence so that it best supports the work community and achievement of organization goals. Competency management involves identifying, ensuring and developing personnel's skills, using the tools available for competence development.[340]

To take competency management measures, a superior needs to be well aware of the personnel's competencies and have an ability to foresee changes in future skills requirements in various jobs of the work community. Competency mapping and defining areas of competence are useful tools in identifying personnel's personal needs. When defining areas of competence, a superior needs to consider the core competencies in the work community, other job- and role-specific competencies and the competency-levels required. Competency mapping helps in comparing the existing competency level with the required one. The mapping is a tool for identifying competence gaps and provides a basis for both personal and work community development plans.[341]

Competency management requires the ability to supervise, facilitate and support personnel's competence development. Competency management is about inspiration, promotion of open communication culture and creation of encouraging learning atmosphere. Managing the personnel's professional and pedagogical development must be viewed as continuous interaction between a superior and their subordinate. The range of means to acquire new competencies is vast, including education and training organised within or outside of the organisation, self-studies, collegial collaboration, sharing of knowledge in the work community as well as on-the-job learning.[342]

Although the responsibility for the overall competence development in the work community rests with a superior, each individual is responsible for updating and improving their skills and for promoting pro-learning atmosphere in the community. To be able to bear this responsibility and to maintain their performance, all members of the work community need self-leadership skills.

3.3.2 Management of training and development

Training management is a sub-field of pedagogical leadership, and it is particularly important in work communities that organise training. Training management refers to measures related to planning, implementation, assessment and development of training events as well as organisation and allocation of resources in the most appropriate

manner. At the Finnish Defence Forces, the contents, implementation and assessment of training is largely guided by directives. From the perspective of pedagogical leadership, the key points are high quality and topicality of training in terms of its contents, pedagogical implementation and learning environment. A competent personnel in the work community is a prerequisite for ensuring these in practice. Ensuring occupational and in-service safety as well as availability of services that support training are both training management measures.

The dimensions of pedagogical quality include instructors' professional qualifications, effective use of diverse teaching methods and tools , and use of learning environments that suit the purpose. Although the responsibility for training events rests with the leader, each member in the work community has a duty – through their role or job – to ensure that training is always topical and of high pedagogical quality.[343]

Virtual and mobile learning environments can be utilised to support training activities in various ways. If training is implemented in a virtual learning environment, special attention needs to be paid to the instructor's technological and pedagogical competence, principles of on-line pedagogy, learner engagement and the contents and topicality of teaching material.

> Training management is supported by open communication within the work community, collaboration, sharing of good practices, and personnel's ability to self-assessment and development.

3.3.3 Developing operating culture

Measures taken to develop operating culture at work contribute to people leadership and all other areas of pedagogical leadership. Operating culture refers to all workplace practices which have an impact on daily operations in the work community and people's work. Operating culture is composed of values, attitudes, operating models and practices and work and learning atmosphere, and it is shaped by the people in the work community and their tasks and duties as well as the prevailing organisation, leading and education cultures. All this builds the foundation for the community's and its members' operation.[344]

Operating culture can be enhanced by a safe, functional work community in which tasks and duties are distributed clearly and fairly, and which embraces changes and learning. Open, positive atmosphere, collaboration, operational reviews and commitment to common goals can also enhance operating culture. If people have a say in planning processes and in decisions that impact their own work, they are likely to be more motivated at work and more willing to participate in development.

All measures taken to enhance operating culture are also efforts to support and improve personnel's work community skills. These include interpersonal skills, organizational citizenship behaviour, readiness for change and cooperation and group work skills. Effective leadership is particularly important when operating culture is going through a change or is being developed. From a superior, development of operating culture requires a positive attitude towards innovation, openness to new ideas and solutions, and ability to take feedback from both inside and outside the work community. Operating cultures are often implicit, and people adhere to its practices subconsciously, so it might be difficult for a superior to observe them or establish any cause and effect relationships. In any efforts to enhance operating culture, it is very important that a superior sets an example and inspires others towards the set goals. Adopting new operating culture is usually a slow process. Development measures include constant review of workplace practices.

> Operating culture will not change without changes in the behaviour of people in the work community.

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4 The Finnish Defence Forces' Superior and Interaction Skills Course

The Superior and Interaction Skills Course is a continuing education course for the Finnish Defence Forces' personnel. Its aim is to strengthen the personnel's interpersonal and teamwork skills and to foster superiors' growth as a leader. The course is open to all personnel groups, and it is led by Defence Forces' personnel members who have received appropriate training. The Superior and Interaction Skills Course is based on the Deep Leadership model, which provides the values and framework for goal-oriented interaction and its enhancement in Defence Forces' personnel training. Some of the training material also used by Deep Lead Oy Ltd.

4.1 Training process

Each administrative unit has appropriately trained course leaders who, along with their other duties, organize courses in their units. Their work is supported by heads of personnel training on Service and Agency levels. The Defence Forces' superior and interaction training is coordinated by the head of training, together with the coordination group.
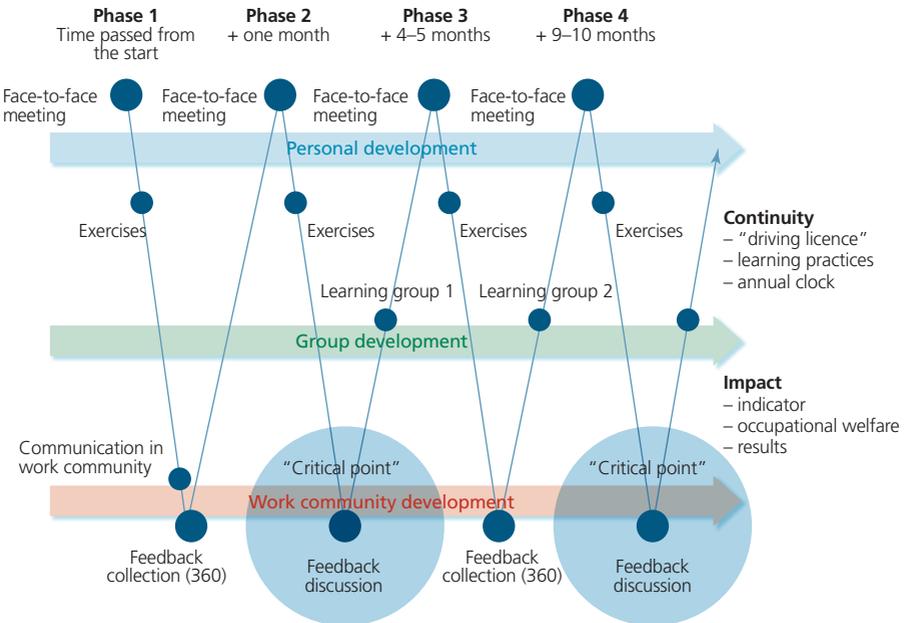

FIGURE 33. The training process.

The course aims at providing trainees with tools for critical self-assessment and development of interpersonal skills. As shown in Figure 33, the course is composed of four face-to-face meetings and individual and group exercises. The total duration of the course is one year, with the four meetings at certain intervals, but if need be, it can also be organized with just two face-to-face sessions. The course is designed to support individual growth in particular, but it also fosters development on group, unit and organizational levels.

4.2 Contents of the training

On the first day, the objective is to learn the foundations: after the first day, trainees are familiar with the concept of goal-oriented interaction and understand the principles and purpose of the Deep Leading model. After the first day, trainees will start compiling their personal interaction profiles, following the principles of deep leading. The profile should include self-assessment and feedback from subordinates, colleagues and superiors (360° feedback).

On the second day, the focus is on the significance of self-knowledge and feedback to personal growth and development. Trainees' interaction profiles will be discussed on the second day. The goal is to provide trainees with the ability to critical self-assessment and guidelines for compiling their personal development plans. Each trainee discusses their profile privately with the course leader. The purpose of the discussion is to help trainees identify their strengths and points of development on the basis of the feedback they have received.

The third day focuses on values. On the "value day", trainees are encouraged to reflect on their (and the work community's) values and their impact on behaviour. Pondering one's values and choices is an important part of personal growth and development of interpersonal and superior's skills. After the third day, about six months after the first round, trainees will start compiling a new profile.

The fourth day focuses on reflection and key take-aways from the course. After new profiles have been discussed, trainees revise their personal development plans, making them more precise. The main objective of the final day is to encourage trainees to keep reviewing their own behaviour, collecting feedback from others and acting upon it also in the future, and thus fostering their self-development.

4.3 Work community training course

All members of the work community contribute to the workplace practices and development through their own behaviour. In a work community training course, the focus is on communication and interpersonal skills, that is, general work community skills which are not task-specific. The goal is to provide all members of the work community with tools for self-development. The course provides tools specifically for critical evaluation of the workplace practices, giving and receiving feedback and enhancing operating culture. The work community training course takes two days at a minimum. Some parts of the contents can be tailored to meet the needs of the work community. Participants come to this course as members of the same work community; their positions and roles within the community play a minor role.

APPENDIX 1:
Questions that can guide in compiling a profile:

Trust
- Am I able to trust people? Have I shown trust?
- Am I fit to set an example to other people in the work community?
- Have I made it clear how important mutual trust is as a prerequisite for effective operation?
- Do I give the impression that I do things mainly for my own benefit?
- Do I keep my promises or do I sometimes promise too much?
- Do I give credit where credit's due?
- Am I fair? Am I honest?
- Are my decisions timely and realistic?
- Do people think that my actions are fair?
- Is my behaviour consistent and predictable?
- Do I always have sufficient information and situation picture when I make decisions?
- Can I admit if I am wrong?

Inspiration
- Do I always make our goals, both short-term and long-term, clear to everyone?
- Do I have a grasp of the big picture, can I see future developments?
- Am I excited and do give a positive image of future developments?
- Are roles clear? How about distribution of tasks and responsibilities in teams and the organization?
- Do we have clearly communicated rules in our work community?
- Do I spend any time trying to come up with new ways to inspire and motivate others?
- Am I active in organizing events to boost team spirit?
- Am I good at getting people to participate in work community events?
- Do I notice good results and successes?
- Do I give positive feedback when all goes well?
- Do I give any indication of the meaningfulness and purposefulness of our operation?

Learning

- Do I give enough constructive feedback?
- Can I receive feedback and learn from it?
- Do I encourage people to be more independent?
- Do I encourage people to think for themselves and ponder things?
- Do I like taking matters further, with help from others?
- Do I reject new ideas straight away or do I consider them?
- Do I tolerate differing opinions?
- Do I dare to delegate responsibility?
- Do I give people sufficient space to operate?
- Do I foster creativity, innovation and open dialogue?

Respect

- Can I listen to people?
- Do I pay attention to people's well-being and in-service safety?
- Am I interested in other people's problems and do I help solving them?
- Do I show respect for others by treating them as equals?
- Do I stand up for my people, take responsibility over them?
- Do I spend enough time with other people?
- Do I give credit when someone performs well?

Controlling leadership/communication behaviour

- Do I prioritize my tasks?
- Do I focus too much on irrelevant details?
- Do I respect my subordinates' leadership or do I dominate over them?
- Do I give people space to act independently?
- Do I show trust by sharing responsibility?
- Do I only focus on mistakes in what other people are doing?
- Do I see mistakes as opportunities to learn?
- Can I deal with people's mistakes with appropriate discretion and subtlety?
- Do I focus on relevant matters and see the key objective?
- Do I give also positive feedback?

Passive leadership/communication behaviour

- Can I make quick decisions if need be and take immediate action no matter what the situation?
- Am I genuinely present and available?
- Am I a proactive leader or do I take action only when problems emerge?
- Do I settle matters quickly or let time do the job?
- Do I take an interest in my current job, am I visibly excited about it?
- Can I bear responsibility for my own actions and those of my subordinates?

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Leader's Handbook 2022

The Leader's Handbook is aimed at all those serving in a military leader's position and getting trained for them. The handbook provides all superiors working for the Defence Forces with the basics of leading people and the work community. Those serving in leadership or superior roles at different levels have to be able to apply the principles presented in this handbook according to the operating environment and situation. The central goal of the handbook is to support the leadership and instructor training of conscripts. Owing to the nature of the Defence Forces' operating environment, this book focuses on leadership in peacetime and the special features of leadership in wartime.

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