

ARTUR MEERITS

First-level military leaders' leadership competencies and their relationship with unit effectiveness in terms of collectivistic leadership with the example of the Estonian Defence Forces



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First-level military leaders' leadership competencies and their relationship with unit effectiveness in terms of collectivistic leadership with the example of the Estonian Defence Forces



School of Economics and Business Administration, Faculty of Social Sciences,
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LIST OF AUTHOR'S PUBLICATIONS AND CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Papers

1. Meerits, A., Kivipõld, K., & Akuffo, I. N. (2021). Possibilities for assessing authentic leadership competencies: Testing existing instruments and proposing an extended one. *Management Research Review, ahead-of-print* (ahead-of-print). <https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-04-2021-0277>
2. Meerits, A., & Kivipõld, K. (2020). Collective Leadership in the Military: Necessity or not in Raising Unit Effectiveness? *Proceedings of the 16th European Conference on Management Leadership and Governance ECMLG 2020*, 158–166. Reading, UK: Academic Conferences International Limited. <https://doi.org/10.34190/ELG.20.042>
3. Meerits, A., & Kivipõld, K. (2020). Leadership competencies of first-level military leaders. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 41*(8), 953–970. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-09-2019-0392>
4. Kasemaa, A., Liik, K., & Meerits, A. (2016). Research Report: The Initial Results of Adopting the Transformational-Transactional Leadership Inventory in the Estonian Context. *Sõjateadlane (Estonian Journal of Military Studies), 1*, 74–95.
5. Meerits, A., Suviste, R., & Kasemaa, A. (2015). The factor structure of the multifactor leadership questionnaire in Estonian military context. In M. Vadi, V. Täks, & L. Pukkonen (Eds.), *VII International Conference Management theory and practice: Synergy in organisations: 'Variety in management: Management in various contexts'* (pp. 86–94). Tartu: University of Tartu.

Conference presentations

1. 16th European Conference on Management Leadership and Governance, 26–27 October 2020 in Oxford, UK. Virtual presentation, title: “*Collective Leadership in the Military: Necessity or not in Raising Unit Effectiveness?*”.
2. International Military Testing Association conference 07–11.10.2019 in Tallinn, Estonia. Title of presentation: “*Development of Extended Authentic Leadership Questionnaire*”.
3. PhD Summer School in Economics, Management, Political Science, Law and Public Administration 26–28 June 2019 in Laulasmaa, Estonia. Title of presentation: “*Development on Extended Authentic Leadership Model*”.
4. Leadership Development in Military Organizations: An International Perspective 18–20 June 2019 in Hamburg, Germany. Title of presentation: “*Framework for developing leaders in Estonian Defence Forces*”.
5. International OFEL Conference on Governance, Management and Entrepreneurship 13–14 April 2018 in Dubrovnik, Croatia. Title of presentation: “*Authentic Leadership of Platoon Leaders in the Estonian Defence Forces*”.
6. International Military Testing Association Conference, 15–19 October 2018 in Kingston, Canada. Title of presentation: “*Platoon Leaders’ Leadership Style in Estonian Defence Forces*”.
7. International Military Testing Association conference 09–13 October 2017 in Bern, Switzerland. Title of presentation: “*Authentic Leadership of Platoon Leaders in the Estonian Defence Forces*”.
8. VII International Conference Management theory and practice: Synergy in organisations: “Variety in management: Management in various contexts” 16–17 April 2015 in Tartu, Estonia. Title of presentation: “The factor structure of the multifactor leadership questionnaire in Estonian military context.”

INTRODUCTION

List of original studies

This thesis is made up of three papers.

- Study 1.** Meerits, A., & Kivipõld, K. (2020). Leadership competencies of first-level military leaders. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 41(8), 953–970.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-09-2019-0392>
- Study 2.** Meerits, A., Kivipõld, K., & Akuffo, I. N. (2021). Possibilities for assessing authentic leadership competencies: Testing existing instruments and proposing an extended one. *Management Research Review*, ahead-of-print(ahead-of-print).
<https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-04-2021-0277>
- Study 3.** Meerits, A., & Kivipõld, K. (2020). Collective Leadership in the Military: Necessity or not in Raising Unit Effectiveness? *Proceedings of the 16th European Conference on Management Leadership and Governance ECMLG 2020*, 158–166. Reading, UK: Academic Conferences International Limited.
<https://doi.org/10.34190/ELG.20.042>

Motivation for the research

Leadership has been “under construction” from the beginning of its study because of this phenomenon’s complex nature (see Dionne *et al.* (2014) review on leadership research). Although there is a general understanding that leadership is an influential process over people to achieve a common goal, ambiguity remains as this phenomenon can be seen from many divergent perspectives (Yukl, 2013). As a result, there are a great number of different leadership theories aiming to identify indicators defining leadership effectiveness, and a vast amount of studies (see Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011) which have identified leadership influence on different levels (e.g., individual, unit, organisation) and on various outcomes (e.g., attitudinal, cognitive, tangible). Even though leadership indicators are rather universal, leadership effectiveness is affected by the context where leadership occurs (e.g., nature of the task, team size, organisational culture, environment) (see Mannheim & Halamish, 2008). Therefore, before utilizing existing leadership approaches to describe effective leaders, it is necessary to understand the conditions affecting this process.

The military context has been described as increased possibilities to die or get injured causing heightened anxiety (Popper, 1996). Indeed, those characterise the combat context, which is a part of the military profession, but in addition to that military units are prepared in a garrison context, requiring different qualities from

the leadership (Wong, Bliese, & McGurk, 2003). The essence of military leadership is well captured by Ulmer (1998, p. 5):

“In any Army, in any time, the purpose of “leadership” is to get the job done. Competent military leaders develop trust, focus effort, clarify objectives, inspire confidence, build teams, set the example, keep hope alive, and rationalize sacrifice. For this century or the next, there is little mystery about requisite leader competencies or behaviours. Desirable qualities and skills may vary a bit, but the basic formula for leader success has changed little in 2,000 years.”

This brings up two main aspects in military leadership. First, military leadership is performance-oriented, emphasised by practitioners Willink & Babin’s (2017) argument that the success of military leadership is defined through unit success, i.e., if the task is accomplished, is effective, or otherwise ineffective. Such an outcome is achieved through the maximum performance which is expected when a person’s capability (e.g., values, knowledge, vision, interests) is pertinent to the demands of the job (e.g., role responsibilities, tasks needed to perform), and the organisational environment (e.g., structure, culture and climate, political, social and contextual aspects) (Boyatzis, 2008). Second, task objectives are achieved only through the collective effort of the members of the unit and organisation because leaders only partially control and influence aspects of the individual, unit, and organisational levels (Surace, 2019). Consequently, there is a need to understand what the components are of military leadership, how to increase their quality, and how unit effectiveness is defined.

Military organisations’ nature and needs determine that their leaders be hired and educated as leaders from the beginning by the organisation. Studies on necessary leadership qualities can be broadly divided into two, where a trait-based approach (e.g., Bartone, Eid, Helge Johnsen, Christian Laberg, & Snook, 2009; McCormack & Mellor, 2002; Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008) enables the selection of suitable candidates (e.g., low neuroticism) for leadership positions, and a competency-based approach (e.g., Horey *et al.*, 2004; Wolters *et al.*, 2014; Young & Dulewicz, 2006) focuses on identifying the necessary leadership competencies in military leaders necessary to perform in the assigned position. Although both aspects are important, competencies are more related to unit performance than traits (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011) and can be developed.

For the assessment and development of military leaders, there are several leadership competency frameworks available, for example the Swedish Armed Forces (see Larsson *et al.*, 2003) and the Finnish Defence Forces (see Nissinen, 2001). Although both armed forces rely on the same theoretical framework (see Bass, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006), there are substantial differences in defining relevant leadership competencies in this particular organisation, consequently affecting the means to assess and develop them. Such discrepancies indicate that existing theoretical leadership frameworks may be universal to some extent, and existing instruments are appropriate for the assessment of military leadership

competencies in developed organisations, but adopting them requires consideration of different contextual factors (e.g., culture, organisation).

It has been argued that organisational demands change at the level of leadership, where first-level leaders are seen to maintain effective organisational operations through the employment of available means, the middle-level's main purpose is the embellishment and operationalisation of the formal structural element, and the top-level defines the origination of the organisation and initiation of the change (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). Although studies tend to focus on top-level leaders because their influence in general has greater impact on organisational outcomes (DeChurch, Hiller, Murase, Doty, & Salas, 2010), tasks are accomplished by units led by first-level leaders who, in addition to process management, are required to influence unit members to achieve organisational objectives.

Consequently, this requires from first-level leaders technical (i.e., task-related, hard) as well as non-technical (i.e., soft) competencies including intrapersonal and interpersonal abilities to manage their own actions and emotions and deal with others consistent with organisational requirements (Hurrell, Scholarios, & Thompson, 2013) – for example, providing socio-emotional support (see Chen & Bliese, 2002). Since first-level leaders have the least experience of leading units, ignoring the level of their “soft” competencies may lead to reduced unit effectiveness. In addition, Yeardley (2017) highlighted that when first-level leaders' leadership competencies are not developed in accordance with organisational needs, or irrelevant leadership competencies are developed, this may affect the whole organisation as those persons advance in their career.

There is a broad range of understandings of effectiveness, where objective (e.g., sales, market share, return of investments) and subjective (e.g., attitudes and perceptions from different stakeholders) (Yukl, 2013) aspects can be distinguished. In the military, objective measures to determine effectiveness at the organisation or unit level may be complicated to apply due to task characteristics (i.e., assessing units' ability to fight in battles considering organisational short- and long-term objectives). Hence, subjective measures are used to determine unit effectiveness. For example, there is unit cohesion which defines a unit member's relationship with their peers and leader, as well identification with the organisation (see Bartone, Johnsen, Eid, Brun, & Laberg, 2002; Jones, Campion, Keeling, & Greenberg, 2018; Siebold, 2007), or morale which describes the self-confidence and motivation to perform (see Britt & Dickinson, 2006; Gal, 1986). While those examples illustrate individual effectiveness, they do not explain the processes occurring in units at the collective level.

Therefore, considering that leadership is a continuous learning process, the motivation for this thesis resides in expanding understanding in military leadership, how contextual factors and organisations themselves define requirements for a competent military leader, and their leadership competencies. Since first-level leaders possess the least experience, this thesis explores how leadership competencies are represented among them, and how they are related to unit effectiveness at the collective level.

Estonian Defence Forces as a study environment

Estonia is one among few countries whose armed forces mainly rely on a reserve component. This implies that, in general during peace time, the Estonian Defence Forces (EDF) has a relatively small number of professionals in active duty, and its primary task to maintain combat capability is achieved by conducting mandatory military training for citizens through conscription.

Such reserve forces are trained during conscription, mandatory for all males and voluntary for females between 18–28 years old¹. Conscription durations for small unit commanders and specialists are 11 months, and for privates eight months. While the first part of conscription focuses primarily on individual soldiering competence, the last part is about training individuals to accomplish tasks as a unit. At the end of the military training, all conscripts are assigned to their war-time position in their trained unit and start their reserve duty until retirement age. Therefore, the short-term aim is to train to operate equipment and complete assigned tasks, and the long-term aim is to prepare citizens who in a state of war will be in uniform.

Conscription may be at first a huge psychological and physical shock as conscripts are taken from their comfort zones and put among strange people with whom they must spend days without break. Units may be remarkably diverse in terms of members' age, education, physical and psychological capability, hobbies, sense of humour and language proficiency. Adding an unfamiliar environment and unusual activities with unsure purposes creates conditions where misunderstandings are easy to occur, and conflicts arise. To better understand issues during conscription, the Centre of Excellence for Strategic Sustainability was created in conjunction with EMA, the University of Tartu and The National Institute for Health Development to survey human resource sustainability among conscripts of the EDF. Reports of annually conducted surveys starting from 2016² highlight, among other issues, the need to improve leadership in first-level leaders.

The quality of reserve units depends mainly on personnel who train conscripts. In the EDF, the main actors are first-level commanders, usually officers (OF-1)³ as platoon leaders and senior non-commissioned officers (SNCO) (OR 6) as platoon sergeants. Their primary task is to form a unit capable of performing assigned tasks by developing conscripts' skills, knowledge, attitudes, and other abilities. In addition to creating a fighting unit (i.e., professional competence to complete the task), concurrently they shape conscripts' understandings and attitudes towards citizenship, national defence, and conscription.

¹ Conscription in the EDF is regulated by *Kaitseväeteenistuse seadus*, available at: <https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/110072012001> (accessed 08.07.21).

² All surveys are listed here: <https://www.kvak.ee/kompleksuurung/> (accessed 08.07.21).

³ The usual situation is described, but it is not rare that a platoon leader is OR-6 and platoon sergeant is OR-4. More information about military ranks is available at: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ranks_and_insignia_of_NATO (accessed 08.07.21).

Most of the first-level military leaders' experience in leading a unit is limited from none to five years. Therefore, leaders use knowledge obtained during becoming an officer or SNCO and rely on examples their previous leaders practised, resulting in differences in the qualities of the units. For officers there is a 3-year programme⁴, and for SNCOs a 1-year programme⁵ in the Estonian Military Academy. Although it is officially stated that leadership in EDF is trifold, where mission command relies on people-centred and value-based leadership, no official guidelines (e.g., doctrines, handbooks) explain the concepts or guide EDF leaders, resulting in a plurality of opinion. As a result, there is no possibility to determine leadership quality among military leaders of the EDF.

Like other armed forces, in the EDF several studies have been conducted to determine essential aspects in leaders' behaviour, organisational and unit performance and effectiveness, and their relationship. Most studies are done as unpublished master theses, for example, the means to assess unit effectiveness (Kala, 2013), how different effectiveness indicators (e.g., turnover intention, job satisfaction, commitment to the organisation) are related to each other (Luide, 2016), proposing competency modes for platoon leaders (Karileet, 2017), identifying personal characteristics which predict future effectiveness as a leader (Kukk, 2014; Veski, 2011). In addition, there have been studies identifying the relationship of leaders' behaviour with followers' motivation (Vuntus, 2012) or perceived leadership effectiveness (Allika, 2020). Moreover, there are instruments developed to assess unit cohesion (Meerits, 2012) and military morale (Kasemaa & Säälük, 2021), but there are no studies which determine the level of first-level leaders' leadership competencies and how leadership competencies are related to unit effectiveness at the collective level.

Research objective and tasks

The objective of this thesis is to identify military leadership characteristics, military leaders' leadership competencies and their relationship with unit effectiveness. The following research tasks served as a guide for this thesis to reach the objective:

⁴ Curriculum is available at: https://www.kvak.ee/files/2021/05/S%C3%B5jav%C3%A4eline-juhtimine-maav%C3%A4es_rakendus%C3%B5rgharidus%C3%B5ppe-%C3%B5ppekava.pdf (accessed 08.07.21).

⁵ Curriculum is available at: <https://www.kvak.ee/files/2019/07/S%C3%B5jav%C3%A4eline-juhtimine-vanemall-ohvitseridele-kutse%C3%B5ppe-%C3%B5ppekava.pdf> (accessed 08.07.21). To become NCO below OR-6 it is required to attend a 3-month programme conducted by every station in accordance with EDF standards.

1. Identify leadership characteristics in extreme contexts (Chapter 1);
2. Determine leadership requirements for military leaders (Chapter 1);
3. Explore opportunities to assess military leaders' leadership competencies (Chapter 1);
4. Find possibilities to evaluate military unit effectiveness in terms of collectivistic leadership (Chapter 1);
5. Describe methods employed and the sample used in this thesis (Chapter 2);
6. Present empirical studies to answer the research questions (Chapter 3);
7. Discuss the findings of the studies and outline the contributions, implications, and limitations of the study (Chapter 4).

The novelty of the research

The conducted studies of this thesis complement existing literature in several novel aspects.

First, Study 1 (Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020b) highlights that leadership is a multi-directional influential process, whose effectiveness depends on the extent of leadership competencies possessed by the leader, and proposes a novel leadership framework including a set of universal competencies necessary for first-level military leaders. This set of competencies cover the main leadership dimensions (see Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Yukl, 2008): task dimension with Transactional leadership (TA); change with Transformational leadership (TF); and relational with Authentic leadership (AL). Although there are several competency-based leadership frameworks developed for the military (e.g., Bangari, 2014; Roennfeldt, 2019; Tian, Miao, Xu, & Yang, 2009; Young & Dulewicz, 2005) as well for other industries (e.g., Kragt & Day, 2020; Müller & Turner, 2010; Shum, Gatling, & Shoemaker, 2018), none of them includes competencies to cover main leadership dimensions.

Second, this leadership framework emphasises the importance of first-level military leaders' intrapersonal and interpersonal leadership competencies. Intrapersonal competencies describe processes related to the self (e.g., self-view, self-concept, self-identity), and interpersonal competencies are related to the dynamics between leader and follower (Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017). Such a division enables leaders to determine the objectivity of their strengths and weaknesses and their ability to interact with their unit members. From the developmental perspective, intrapersonal competencies support leader and interpersonal competency leadership development (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014).

Third, Study 1 highlights leadership competency relatedness. While AL competencies are related to each other, TF and TA competencies are not. Those findings indicate that while AL competencies develop (or can be developed) as a

set, TA and TF competencies need a more individual approach (i.e., one high-level competency does not determine that other competencies are at the same level).

Fourth, leadership in view of competencies has not been assessed in EDF previously. Study 1 is the first which analysed the level of leadership competencies and composed leadership profiles of first-level leaders, enabling the implementation of documents and developmental programs to increase leadership quality in EDF.

Fifth, **Study 2** (Meerits, Kivipõld, & Akuffo, 2021) focuses on the authentic behaviour of the leader as it has been identified that leaders' unethical and fake behaviour damages the whole organisation (Mendonca, 2001). Since such a leadership approach is relatively new, existing theoretical frameworks to some extent overlap but, at the same time, emphasise different aspects. For example, while Beddoes-Jones & Swailes (2015) focus only on intrapersonal competencies, Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson (2008) ignore critical intrapersonal competency. Therefore, Study 2 contributes to the literature by analysing the leaders' authenticity fundamentals and proposing an extended AL model that includes all relevant AL intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies.

Sixth, Study 2 develops an extended instrument to assess AL intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies in military leaders. Although there are several studies of AL in a military context (e.g., Beddoes-Jones, 2013; Hannah, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2011; Hannah, Walumbwa, & Fry, 2011; Pastor Álvarez, Molero Alonso, Bardera Mora, & Moriano León, 2019; Ruiz Moreno *et al.*, 2021), the instruments used did not include all essential AL competencies. Also, existing AL instruments like the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), Authentic Leadership Inventory (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011), and Three Pillar Model (Beddoes-Jones & Swailes, 2015) were tested and adopted simultaneously in the same samples into the Estonian context.

Seventh, **Study 3** (Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020a) analyses the relationship between formal leaders' leadership competencies and unit effectiveness. Considering that formal leaders are an essential factor in unit effectiveness (see Hannah, Walumbwa, *et al.*, 2011; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001), it is crucial to determine how leadership competencies are related to unit effectiveness. Currently, the majority of studies analysing the relationship of formal leaders' competencies with effectiveness do not cover the main leadership dimensions (task, change and relations) and focus on a single one: for example, AL (e.g., Balwant, 2019; Yamak & Eyupoglu, 2021) or TF (e.g., Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007; Tayal, Upadhyay, & Singh, 2021). Therefore, Study 3 is the first which analyses formal leaders' leadership competencies in the main leadership dimensions and their relationship with unit effectiveness.

Eight, Study 3 is the first to analyse the relationship of formal leaders' leadership competencies with collectivistic leadership as a predictor of unit effectiveness. Although there are studies analysing the collectivistic leadership relationship with outcomes (e.g., Hmieleski, Cole, & Baron, 2012) and how formal

leaders' behaviour is transferred into the unit (collective) level (e.g., Hannah, Walumbwa, *et al.*, 2011), there are no studies which analysed the relationship of leaders' leadership competencies with the collectivistic leadership in the unit. To determine the extent of the collectivistic leadership, an Organisational Leadership Capability (OLC) instrument developed by Kivipõld & Vadi (2010) was used. This instrument has been used previously in banking and retail (Kivipõld, 2015), insurance (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2013) and the info technology (Kivipõld & Ahonen, 2013) sector, but not in a military context. Moreover, the relationship between leaders' leadership competencies and OLC has not been analysed before.

Contribution of the individual author

The thesis is based on three empirical studies which are all co-authored. The lead author for all three studies is the author of this thesis. Studies 1 and 3 were written jointly with Kurmet Kivipõld, PhD, Study 2 with Kurmet Kivipõld, PhD and Isaac Nana Akuffo, PhD.

Studies 1 and 3. Both authors discussed and agreed on the objective, research questions, research design, and instruments used. The lead author collected and analysed the data. After data analysis the results were discussed by the co-author, on whose suggestions additional data analyses were performed. The lead author wrote the draft of the paper, and the co-author read, corrected, and provided comments and suggestions. The lead author submitted the final version of the paper to the journal. Reviewers' comments were discussed together, and the lead author improved the paper under the guidance of the co-author.

Study 2. The lead author and second author discussed and agreed on the objective, research questions, research design, and instruments used. The lead author collected data from EDF units, and the second author from a civilian sample. After the data analysis by the lead author, results were discussed by the second author, by whose suggestions additional data analysis were performed. The draft of the paper was written by the lead author and third author who contributed to the literature review; the second author read, corrected, and provided comments and suggestions. The lead author submitted the final version of the paper to the journal. Reviewers' comments were discussed with the second author, and the lead author improved the paper under the guidance of the second author.

Acknowledgements

This paper indicates that one phase in my life is over with all its ups and downs. Is this an end or a beginning of something? Time will tell. Nevertheless, this period was far away from my comfort zone, and I am fully aware that I would not have been able to reach so far without the support of many people. I apologize in advance that only a few names are listed, but I am really grateful to you all for your willingness to contribute to my research and believe in me.

My first and utmost gratitude goes to my supervisor Kurmet Kivipõld who always had time to discuss topics on hand patiently, give suggestions, and encourage me to continue. I am very grateful to my wife Kristel, daughter Kertu and son Holger for their support and understanding behaviour. Many remarkable people at the University of Tartu School of Economics and Business Administration facilitated the expansion of my competencies in various domains as a lecturer or fellow PhD student. My special thanks go to Anneli Kütt and Katrin Tamm. I want to highlight that many incredible people work with me in the Estonian Military Academy and Estonian Defence Forces. Your contribution to the success of the conducted studies is invaluable. I am thankful to the Estonian Ministry of Defence for funding my studies. Finally, I would like to thank all those thousands of participants who were willing to take part in this research; without your contribution this thesis would never have been finished.

Just to be clear, I still do not diagnose or prescribe...

1. LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.1. Leadership in an extreme context

Organisations, by their nature, can be very different in purpose, personnel, means, and procedures, defining requirements for people as well as for management and leadership. For example, banks require people with different qualifications compared to agricultural companies or universities. Alvesson (2019) pointed out that university professors may not consider the department manager as a leader and do not see themselves as followers. In those cases, the connection with leaders is insignificant and formal since everyone knows their job and procedures. Such occupations can be considered traditional as those organisations are meant to operate in conditions where a threat to organisational existence or employee health is minimal, in a non-extreme context. Although the presence of danger is relative and related to the person's perception, some occupations are considered more dangerous as they operate in extreme contexts. While leadership in a non-extreme context, especially with competent personnel, may not be required, in extreme contexts leadership is a critical aspect whose impact cannot be underestimated (Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron, & Byrne, 2007; Yammarino, Mumford, Connelly, & Dionne, 2010) since a decision made by the leader may have ultimate, even fatal, consequences to the follower.

Leadership in an extreme context has been defined in different ways. Kolditz and Brazil (2005, p. 347) see it as

“giving purpose, motivation, and direction to people when there is imminent physical danger, and where followers believe that leader behaviour will influence their physical well-being or survival”.

While their definition focuses on leadership under physical threat, they do not include non-physical traumas, such as fear or anxiety, which alter people's ability to function. In extreme contexts, psychological aspects are crucial for performance, like resilience at the individual (Reich, 2006) as well the collective (Manyena, 2006) level. Broader is the definition for leadership in extreme contexts by Hannah, Uhl-Bien, Avolio, & Cavarretta (2009, p. 913):

“adaptive and administrative processes of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives and purpose under conditions where an extensive and intolerable magnitude of physical, psychological, or material consequences may exceed an organization's capacity to counter and occur to or in close physical, social, cultural, or psychological proximity to organization members.”

This definition includes all possible traumas and emphasises that leadership as an influential process needs to be flexible while focusing on completing the mission, considering both external and internal aspects of the unit. Therefore, successful

leadership in extreme contexts is not just one particular behavioural pattern but the ability to understand surrounding processes and choose the appropriate leadership style to achieve mission objectives.

Extreme context for Campbell, Hannah, & Matthews (2010) is a dynamic environment where the development of a situation is unpredictable and existing threats affect involved personnel directly. Kolditz (2005) consider this as *in extremis*, a situation where people perceive their lives are threatened; they are “*at the point of death*”. Both approaches emphasise that people are exposed to an imminent threat, such as firefighters on site, search and rescue units conducting salvage operations, law enforcement on duty, and deployed military units, but excludes occupations that respond to consequences, like emergency response teams. Considering that the ongoing fight with the COVID-19 pandemic has shown that emergency personnel are exposed to a threat directly, it is more proper to adopt (Hannah *et al.*, 2009, p. 898) a definition including occupations performing directly (for example, military units on combat) or indirectly (for example emergency room in the hospital) in extreme contexts:

“an environment where one or more extreme events are occurring or are likely to occur that may exceed the organization’s capacity to prevent and result in an extensive and intolerable magnitude of physical, psychological, or material consequences to – or in close physical or psycho-social proximity to – organization members”

where the extreme event is defined as

“discrete episode or occurrence that may result in an extensive and intolerable magnitude of psychological, or material consequences to – or in close physical or psycho-social proximity to – organizational members”.

This definition brings up four main aspects which distinguish leadership in extreme contexts from non-extreme: environment, organisation capabilities, personnel, and influential process (see Table 1).

First, the *environment* and its condition where extreme events occur are usually new every time. For example, firefighters responding to a distress call to extinguish a burning house cannot choose the location or control the weather or time. The event by itself can be described as unique, dynamic and turbulent, where the situation is in constant change and may (de)escalate rapidly. In addition, there may be multiple events occurring, some of them simultaneously, some in sequence, varying and competing with each other by the extent of threat they pose to people or material. While some threats are clearly recognized and direct, others are hidden and indirect, creating massive information flow which may nevertheless consist of little useful information about the event(s). In addition, there are several ways to handle every event, requiring prioritising and decision-making in limited time, relying on incomplete and controversial data. Finally, every event has multiple outcomes indicating its temporary nature.

Second, there is the *organisational capability* to operate under such conditions. It has to be noted that every organisation may encounter some crisis that poses a threat to people or material, but there is a distinction between crisis and extreme context. A crisis can be seen as an incident that occurs without notice by threatening essential organisational goals, such as market collapse or an earthquake (Osborn *et al.*, 2002). Hannah *et al.* (2009) identified a cluster of organisations in everyday activity that can be considered non-extreme but may be required to operate in extreme contexts, such as schools during a fire, but may lack the experience to counter this situation. However, organisations that exist because of and are designed for extreme events possess the necessary resources and practice procedures to operate in extreme contexts. Standardised procedures are essential for two reasons. First, although extreme events are unique, their handling possibilities are definite as they depend on available organisational resources. Second, standardised procedures are meant to optimise and synchronise the use of resources to reduce reaction time and increase efficiency.

Third, there is *personnel* since their actions define organisational success. People working in organisations for extreme contexts are aware and acknowledge that their working environment is stressful and may pose a threat. Since extreme contexts are unforgiving where people may experience some sort of breakdown, it is necessary to conduct training before the extreme event to extend the efficiency of the people during the extreme event. Thus, personnel are deliberately trained to increase their psychological and physical fitness. This is in line with Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam (2010) who argued that extreme contexts consist of two phases: a transition phase where unit preparation occurs, and an action phase which is about team management. In other words, personnel prepare in non-extreme conditions, work in extreme conditions, and after the end of the extreme event(s) return to a non-extreme environment to prepare for the next extreme event.

Findings from non-extreme contexts suggest that effective leadership is considerate, sensitive and empowering, whereas extreme contexts have identified that more directive leadership is expected (Hannah *et al.*, 2009). A recent study among firefighters revealed that leadership depends on the context phase. While in the transition phase leadership was perceived as more transformational, in the action phase it was more transactional (Geier, 2016). Hutchings *et al.* (2021) found that, in one hospital, everyday leadership which was rather empowering and positive turned into a more centralised command to respond to the increased number of COVID-19 patients, resembling “military leadership”. Those findings support the argument from Yammarino *et al.* (2010) that leadership in extreme contexts requires flexibility from leaders to switch their leadership behaviour between pragmatic and individual considerations to adapt to the task or environmental changes and demands.

Table 1. Aspects affecting leadership in extreme and non-extreme contexts

Aspect	Extreme context	Non-extreme context
<i>Environment</i>		
Location	Uncontrollable	Controllable
Threat to personnel/materiel	Imminent	Insignificant
Threat nature	(Un)known (un)predictable	Known/predictable
Event duration	Unknown	Known
Events quantity	To some extent controllable	Controllable
Event nature	Unique/dynamic/turbulent	Known/dynamic/stable
Event complexity	High/unpredictable	Low to high/predictable
Event change	High	None to limited
Info availability	Massive flow/useful info requires synthesis	Standardised
Decision time	Limited/critical	Sufficient/flexible
Solution	Multiple, high degree of improvisation	Single to multiple, low degree of improvisation
Outcome	Multiple/unpredictable	One to multiple/predictable
<i>Organisation</i>		
Purpose	Designed/prepared for extreme context	Not designed/unprepared for extreme context
Equipment	Designed for extreme event	Designed for organisational purpose
Procedures	Standardised for organisational purpose	Standardised for organisational purpose

Table 1 (*continued*)

Aspect	Extreme context	Non-extreme context
<i>Personnel</i>		
Cooperation	High dependence on teamwork	Not required to necessary
Physical requirements	Demanding	None to demanding
Psychological requirements	Demanding	None to demanding
Risk of breakdown	High	Low to high
Leadership requirement	High	None to high
Development	Constant	Optional
<i>Influential process</i>		
Necessity for success	High	None to high
Proactivity	Necessary to achieve goals	Required/optional
Dependence on event phase	High	Low/optional
Direction	Reciprocal vertically and horizontally	Dependent on organisational management practices

Source: Compiled by the author relying on work done by Burke *et al.*, 2018; Geier, 2016; Hannah *et al.*, 2009; Hutchings *et al.*, 2021; Kolditz, 2005; Mumford *et al.*, 2007; Osborn *et al.*, 2002; Stern, 2017; Yammarino *et al.*, 2010.

The fourth distinctive feature is an *influential process*. Burke, Shuffler, & Wiese (2018) identified that before the extreme event (in transition phase) important leadership aspects are sense-making, structuring and planning, while operating (in action phase) requires supporting the social climate, monitoring the team, and problem-solving. Considering Stern's (2017) argument that extreme contexts require leadership behaviours like preparing, sense-making, decision-making, meaning-making, ending and accounting, and learning, it can be concluded that the transition phase before and after an extreme event has a different focus. It is more appropriate to separate extreme contexts into three phases: preparation before, action in, and recovery after an extreme event, as all phases require different aspects from personnel and leaders. Therefore, flexibility in the employment of appropriate leadership before the extreme event while the unit is prepared, during the extreme event to achieve task completion, and after the extreme event to allow the unit to recover and learn for the future, defines the success of leadership in extreme contexts.

1.2. Theoretical framework for military leadership

Military leadership is comprised of paradoxes (Kark, Karazi-Presler, & Tubi, 2016). A hierarchical organisation that relies on discipline and obedience in command simultaneously demands military leaders to be innovative and share their authority and power. Different phases of extreme contexts illustrate the complexity of such leadership, but at the same time there is a need for simplicity, challenging leaders to develop a simple plan.

Another paradox is conceptualizing military leadership through combat leadership; there is an ongoing battle and the situation is critical since the enemy is everywhere, the final fight is about to start, and success depends on an heroic person who will lead people to victory. This leadership behaviour is effective in combat situations but has questionable results in non-combat situations (Kark *et al.*, 2016) because combat leadership focuses on short-term objectives in the action phase, while before and after phases of extreme contexts focus on long-term objectives. According to Braun, Schyns, & Peus (2016), such complexity in leadership requires from leaders adaptability, perseverance, handling paradoxes, leading with values, inventing the future and sharing responsibilities. In addition, many military leaders rarely encounter immediate combat situations since their profession is not related to direct fights on the field. Those who do see combat realize that combat leader is just another role among others (e.g., teacher, coach, diplomat, psychotherapist to unit members).

Despite the fact that that military organisations value more task-focused, so-called "hard" competencies (Laurence, 2011), followers are influenced through "soft" competencies, requiring leaders to change their behaviour to meet contextual needs. In addition, leadership effectiveness depends on a leader's abilities to utilize their power (see French & Raven, 1959; Rahim, 1988; Yukl, 2013, p. 196). Although the overall understanding is that military leadership relies on *positional power*, it is recognised that leadership in extreme contexts is dependent

on *personal power*. Therefore, effective military leadership can be seen as the flexibility to employ appropriate leadership behaviours in accordance with the situation and purpose (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000) which relies on personal and positional power. Yukl, Gordon, & Taber (2002) argue that all leadership behaviours can be divided by their primary objective into three aspects: *task-oriented* behaviours are about efficiency in the employment of people and resources; *relations-oriented* behaviours include the creation of a trustful environment within a unit; and *change-oriented* behaviours involve adaptation to external processes and innovativeness. In other words, leadership has three main dimensions: task, change, and relations.

Considering extreme contexts with leadership behaviours shows that, in the action phase, to complete the task task-oriented behaviours dominate, and less attention falls on the development of followers or relationship building. However, to succeed in the action phase requires knowing and developing followers' and one's own capabilities to perform in such a complex environment, and creating and maintaining the social network to increase a trustful environment within the unit before the event, while the task of the unit is necessary to guide the development of the unit. Since every action consumes resources, after the action, in the recovery phase, social support is more relevant to restore personnel's physical and, more importantly, psychological capabilities (for example, post-traumatic stress disorder, morale, see Russell *et al.*, 2016). At the same time, the importance of learning from the action to become better in completing the following task cannot be underestimated. Differences in the importance of leadership dimensions in different phases of extreme context are displayed in Figure 1.

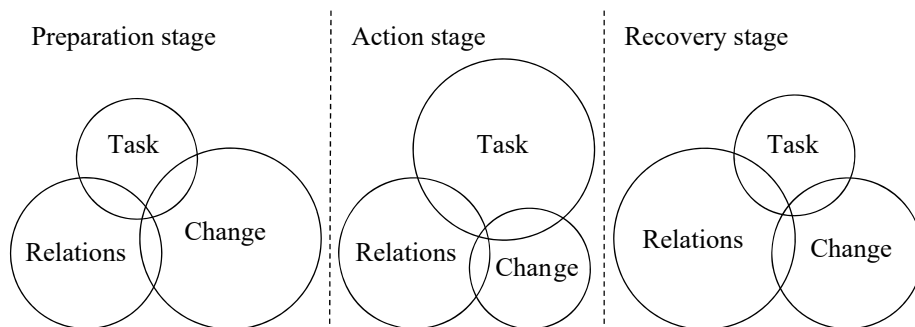


Figure 1. Differences in importance of leadership dimensions in military leadership in light of extreme contexts. Compiled by the author.

Note: Differences are displayed for illustrative purposes and do not represent the actual rate.

The task dimension focuses on short-term objectives by clearly stating standards and expectations of performance (e.g., assigning tasks, clarifying priorities, directing and coordinating activities) (Borgmann, Rowold, & Bormann, 2016; Yukl, 2008). This also includes *commanding/directive* behaviour which illustrates a leader's autocratic behaviour where followers are excluded from the decision-making process (Yukl, 2013, p. 106).

In the relations dimension *relational/social* behaviour describes a leader's ability to understand how their own different behavioural patterns influence surrounding persons and their needs (Langeveld, Gundersen, & Svartdal, 2012), creating an environment that enables the emergence of the unit social network. This is driven by the leader's *moral/values-based* behaviour, which transfers internalised attitudes (i.e., universal statements which are seen as desirable or attractive) about what is ethical or unethical, right or wrong, through social interaction with others (Szabo, Reber, Weibler, Brodbeck, & Wunderer, 2001), creating individually- as well collectively-valued behavioural and attitudinal standards.

The change dimension includes *delegating/involving* behaviour which describes the leader's behaviour to give authority and responsibility to followers for decision-making, relying on the leader's perception of the followers' competence and capability to function individually as well collectively to complete the task (Yukl, 2013, p. 106). While the leader's perception of a follower's capability to function individually as well as collectively to complete the task rests on the unit values and strength of the social network, the follower's competence relies on the leader's *developing/improving* behaviour which, according to Yukl (2012), focus on increasing the followers skills and confidence to assist advancement in their career.

Therefore, military leaders influence followers through applying behaviours like relational/social, moral/values-based, commanding/directive, delegating/involving and developing/improving to achieve the desired outcome. Those leadership behaviours have also been identified in several leadership approaches (see Table 2). Relational/social behaviour is at the centre of Leader-Member Exchange as well the Authentic Leadership approach. Moral/values-based behaviour is at the centre of Ethical Leadership and part of Authentic Leadership. Leader developing/improving and delegating/involving behaviour is at the centre of Servant, Empowering, and Transformational leadership. While delegating/involving and commanding/directive behaviours are at the centre of Participative leadership, then Charismatic as well as Transactional leadership approaches focus on commanding/directive behaviour.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory focus on dyadic relationship, where leaders approach every follower individually based on expectations and fulfilment of roles and tasks (Volmer, Spurk, & Niessen, 2012). Although such differentiation has a positive impact on employees' various outcomes (e.g., Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Kark & Carmeli, 2009; Liden, Erdogan, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2006), it may have the opposite effect as such behaviour may be perceived as inequality (Wang, Jiang, Liu, & Ma, 2017).

Ethical leadership assumes that leaders who display visible ethical awareness and follow socially normative and appropriate acts, through honest and caring attitudes and behaviour inspire followers to act in the same way (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005; Treviño, Brown, & Hartman, 2003). At the same time, focusing on behaving ethically may result in emotional depletion, leading to abusive behaviour from leaders (Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016). *Authentic leadership* is about the leader's objective information assessment and their fair decision-making (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005) which relies on a profound understanding of one's own ethical standards (Beddoes-

Jones, 2013; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008), and strengths and weaknesses (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). It has been noted by several scholars that striving to be more authentic may result in ineffective leadership (e.g., Ibarra, 2015; Jongman-Sereno & Leary, 2019; Liu, Cutcher, & Grant, 2017), for example rigid behaviour not suitable to the context.

Table 2. Military leader’s behaviour connection with leadership approaches

Leadership approach	behaviours				
	Relational/ Social	Moral/ Values- based	Developing/ Improving	Delegating/ Involving	Commanding/ Directive
LMX	X				
<i>Authentic</i>	X	X			
Ethical	x	X			x
Servant	x	x	X	X	
Empowering	x		X	X	
<i>Transformational</i>		x	X	X	x
Participative				X	X
Charismatic		x			X
<i>Transactional</i>					X

Source: Compiled by the author. Note: X – primary focus; x – secondary focus

In *Servant leadership* leaders are considered as a tool which, through altruistic calling, emotional healing, situational awareness, persuasive reasoning, and organisational stewardship, increases followers’ autonomy, development, and well-being (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018; R. F. Russell & Stone, 2002). The assumption that all stakeholders have similar values may lead to the creation of competing interests (Alvesson & Einola, 2019) and emotional depletion (Liao, Lee, Johnson, & Lin, 2021).

Empowering leadership focuses on leaders’ willingness to decentralise power and involve followers in decision-making which, through delegating formal authority for decision-making, supports followers’ autonomy and development (Alotaibi, Amin, & Winterton, 2020; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Carless, 2004). While the majority of studies see empowering leadership as positive (e.g., Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015; Boulu-Reshef, Holt, Rodgers, & Thomas-Hunt, 2020; Carless, 2004; Zhang & Zhou, 2014), there are concerns that exaggerated follower empowerment may be considered as non-leadership, resulting in followers’ deviant behaviour and decreased performance (e.g., Cheong, Spain, Yammarino, & Yun, 2016; Kim & Beehr, 2017; Wong & Giessner, 2018).

Participative leadership focuses on the leader’s ability to involve followers in the decision-making process through consultation, asking for suggestions and gathering ideas, where situational factors may influence a leader’s behaviour from highly autocratic to highly involving (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006; Vroom & Jago, 2007). Since such behaviour is context-specific, success is dependent on

the extent of the leader's information sharing and follower competence (Lam, Huang, & Chan, 2015; Somech, 2005), whereas excessive involvement may be felt as non-leadership as followers may perceive that all responsibilities are delegated to them (Sagie, Zaidman, Amichai-Hamburger, Te'eni, & Schwartz, 2002).

Transformational leadership focuses on leaders' visionary, considerate and emotional behaviour which influences followers' values and emotions, and inspires them to perform and achieve results beyond expectations to achieve long-term objectives (Asrar-ul-Haq & Anwar, 2018; Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Judge, Fluegge Woolf, Hurst, & Livingston, 2006). The effectiveness of this leadership behaviour has been identified in numerous studies (see recent meta-study by Ng, 2017), but there are also several studies highlighting the downside of transformational leadership, for example reducing followers' ability to create their own social capital (Anderson & Sun, 2015) and performance (Zhu, Newman, Miao, & Hooke, 2013).

Charismatic leadership is about the leaders' emotional, visionary and inspirational behaviour which, through values, rituals and cultural symbols, emphasises a task's emotional aspects and encourages followers into collaboration to achieve common goals (Antonakis, Bastardoz, Jacquart, & Shamir, 2016; Grabo & van Vugt, 2016), influencing followers positively (e.g., Banks *et al.*, 2017; Men, Yue, & Liu, 2020). Nevertheless, it has been identified that overly charismatic leaders may have a negative impact also, for example resulting in followers' unethical behaviour (Xue Zhang, Liang, Tian, & Tian, 2020).

Transactional leadership is a pragmatic approach to complete the task, where objectives are short-term and achieved by motivating followers through the exchange of material, personal or social benefits (i.e., different rewards and punishments) (Asrar-ul-Haq & Anwar, 2018; Bass, 1990). Although transactional leadership is seen as rather ineffective leadership behaviour, it is considered as a foundation upon which other leadership approaches rest (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003), and is indispensable for articulating responsibilities and demands for followers and effective in structured processes (Goodwin, Wofford, & Whittington, 2001; Keller, 2006).

Whatever leadership behaviour is practiced, it starts from *self-leadership* (Manz & Sims, 1991; Pearce, 2007) which is considered the source for effective leadership (Furtner, Baldegger, & Rauthmann, 2013). According to Manz (1986), self-leadership is a process of influencing and leading oneself to achieve a self-directive and self-motivating state combining behavioural, natural reward and constructive thought pattern strategies. While the aim of behaviour-focused strategies (self-observation, self-reward and punishment, self-goal setting, self-cueing) is to extend self-awareness, then the aim of natural reward strategies (seeking positive features from the situation and ignoring negative ones) is to increase internal motivation. The aim of constructive thought strategies (handling with dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions, mental imagery, and positive self-talk) is to change habits to increase performance (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

This implies that self-leadership is about influencing oneself to do something that is not motivating but finding different aspects to make it more appealing and

acceptable, increasing self-leadership capacity, personal standards, and the responsibility to fulfil the task (Manz, 2015). Although self-leadership is everyone's internal motivation, it is complemented and affected by external leadership (Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011). For example, followers' self-leadership is encouraged by the leader's transformational leadership (Andressen, Konradt, & Neck, 2012). In addition, self-leadership strategies demonstrate that previously described leadership behaviours to influence *others* are required to influence *themselves*: for example, ethical competencies to distinguish right from wrong, authentic competencies to increase self-awareness, charismatic and transformational competencies to motivate, and transactional competencies to reward and restrict themselves and others.

Differences and similarities in described leadership approaches indicate that to become an effective military leader who can employ correct behaviours according to the situation requires possession of a wide array of leadership behaviours. Nevertheless, despite their theoretical distinction, several leadership approaches have overlap in concept (e.g., Servant and Transformational leadership, see van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014; or Authentic, Servant and Ethical leadership, see Lemoine, Hartnell, & Leroy, 2019; Ling, Liu, & Wu, 2017; or Authentic, Transformational and Ethical leadership, see Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016; Hoch *et al.*, 2018; Sidani & Rowe, 2018), influential means, outcomes, and primary objectives (i.e., task-, change- or relations-oriented) as the same behaviours are included (e.g., directive/commanding behaviour is in the primary focus on transactional, charismatic, and participative leadership) (see Table 2). At the same time, there are studies emphasising the differences, for example Authentic leadership focuses on balanced and transparent communication while TF on leaders' inspiration and charismatic behaviour (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008), and while at the centre of AL is a self-aware moral leader, then in EL is the acceptance of normative standards (Lemoine *et al.*, 2019).

Taking into account leadership approaches' theoretical framework, conceptual overlap, strengths and weaknesses, distinguishing leadership behaviours, and relatedness with the main dimensions of leadership, it can be argued that to describe effective military leaders' leadership behaviour requires a combination of *Transactional* leadership (TA) representing task-, *Transformational* leadership (TF) representing change-, and *Authentic* leadership (AL) representing relations-oriented leadership (see Figure 2). In addition, both TF and TA have been studied widely by many different armed forces, displaying a positive influence on follower behaviour (e.g. Ivey & Kline, 2010; Kane & Tremble, 2000; Martínez-Córcoles & Stephanou, 2017; Stadelmann, 2010), proving their suitability to describe leadership behaviours in a military context. Similarly, studies in the military about AL have determined a positive impact on followers (e.g., Hannah, Walumbwa, *et al.*, 2011; Pastor Álvarez *et al.*, 2019), although less compared to TF and TA. In addition, AL has been seen as a source for a trusting relationship between leader and follower (Alkaabi & Wong, 2019; Coxen, Van der Vaart, & Stander, 2016; Maximo, Stander, & Coxen, 2019), increasing both individual and collectivistic performance (Agote, Aramburu, & Lines, 2016; Gill & Caza, 2018). Moreover,

AL focuses on leaders' self-awareness and self-regulation which are the foundations of self-leadership (Berkana-Wycoff & Nincic, 2020), indicating its suitability to represent relations-oriented leadership behaviours.

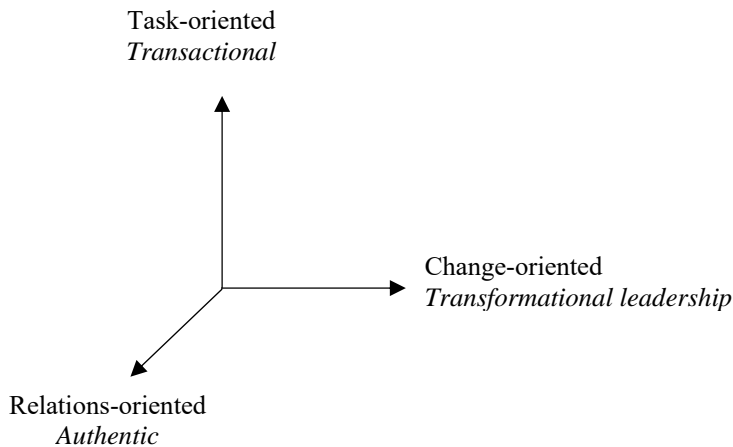


Figure 2. Leadership dimensions and representing leadership approaches. Source: compiled by author.

Therefore, approaching military leadership through the main dimensions of leadership enables the creation of a military leadership framework where every leadership approach focuses on different aspects of leadership: TA to the processes, TF to performance, and AL to the social connections between unit members, making it possible to assess and develop leadership behaviour.

1.3. The possibilities to evaluate military leaders' leadership competencies

Moore, Cheng, & Dainty (2002) argue that competencies in general are attributes underpinning behaviour, including a specific combination of knowledge, skills and abilities (Markman, 2007; Müller & Turner, 2010) necessary to be effective in the current position (Shet, Patil, & Chandawarkar, 2019). Similarly, *leadership competencies* have been defined as a “*composite of knowledge, skills, and abilities required to perform effectively in a leadership role*” (Kragt & Day, 2020, p. 2). Identifying the necessary competencies and creating a competency model do not define who is an effective leader but does enable one to emphasise useful leader behaviours, provide developmental tools, and outline a leadership framework for the development and understanding of leadership effectiveness (Hollenbeck, McCall, & Silzer, 2006). Thus, to identify the quality and extent, and also develop, military leaders' leadership behaviours require leadership competency model(s) with the suitable instrument(s) which enable one to define and assess leadership competencies.

Transactional (TA) and Transformational (TF) leadership competencies are well studied, and several instruments have been developed (for similarities and differences, see Table 3). Since TA and TF usually are seen as a whole, instruments are designed to assess both together. The most well-known instrument is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), where TA competencies are Contingent reward and Management by exception, and TF competencies are Idealised influence, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation, and Individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 21). MLQ has been used in numerous studies and has been the basis for the development of other instruments. For example, in the military, the Deep leadership questionnaire used in the Finnish Defence Forces (Nissinen, 2001) includes Building trust and confidence, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation, Individualised consideration as TF competencies, and Controlling and correcting, and Passive leadership as TA competencies. The Developmental leadership questionnaire designed for the Swedish Armed Forces includes Exemplary model, Individual consideration, Inspiration and motivation as TF, and Demand and reward as TA competency (Larsson, 2006; Larsson *et al.*, 2003). For the assessment of only TA competencies there is an instrument developed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1984) which focuses on leaders' contingent and non-contingent behaviour, enabling one to determine leader's (in)competency through positive and negative behaviour.

There are several instruments to assess TF competencies only. The Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) instrument assesses competencies like Providing an appropriate model, Identifying and articulating vision, Fostering acceptance of group goals, High performance expectations, and Intellectual stimulation. The Carless, Wearing, & Mann (2000) one-factor blunt instrument includes statements to cover aspects of the TF. Rafferty & Griffin (2004) instrument which includes Vision, Inspirational communication, Intellectual stimulation, and Supportive leadership, while Edwards, Knight, Broome, & Flynn (2010) included Idealized influence, Intellectual stimulation, Inspirational motivation, Individualized consideration, and Empowerment as necessary TF competencies. Both instruments rely on the conceptual work of Bass (1990) and consider a leader's contingent behaviour, usually seen as a distinguishing element of TA, as part of TF. Similarly, the Wang & Howell (2010) instrument combines components from existing instruments to assess leader's individual-focused (Communicating high expectation, Follower development, Intellectual stimulation, Personal recognition) and group-focused (Emphasising group identity, Communicating a group vision, Team-building) TF competencies.

For the selection to assess TA and TF competencies, instrument performance in various industries (e.g., Deinert, Homan, Boer, Voelpel, & Gutermann, 2015; Young *et al.*, 2021) and their suitability in the Estonian context (e.g., Kasemaa, 2015; Kasemaa, Liik, & Meerits, 2016; Kasemaa & Suviste, 2020; Meerits, Suviste, & Kasemaa, 2015) was analysed. Considering findings (e.g., legal availability, number of competencies, instruments' factor structure and internal consistency), the instrument developed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1984) to assess TA competencies is promising, as well as the instrument developed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) to assess TF competencies in military leaders.

Table 3. Comparison of different Transactional (TA) and Transformational (TF) leadership assessment instruments

Bass (1990); Bass & Riggio (2006)	<i>Podsakoff</i> (1990); <i>Podsakoff et al.</i> (1984)	Nissinen (2001)	Rafferty & Griffin (2004)	Larsson (2003, 2006)	Wang & Howell 2010	Edwards <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Carless <i>et al.</i> (2000)**
TF	Idealized Influence	Providing an appropriate model	Building trust and confidence	Exemplary model	Idealized influence		
	Inspirational motivation	Identifying and articulating vision	Inspirational motivation	Inspiration and Motivation	Communicating a group vision	Inspirational motivation	**
	Intellectual stimulation	Intellectual stimulation	Intellectual stimulation	Intellectual stimulation	Intellectual stimulation	Intellectual stimulation	**
	Individualized consideration	Providing individualized support	Individualized consideration	Individualised Consideration	Follower development	Individualized consideration	**
		Fostering acceptance of group goals			Team building	Empowerment	**
		High performance expectations			Communicating high expectations		
					Emphasising group identity		

Table 3 (*continued*)

Bass (1990); Bass & Riggio (2006)	<i>Podsakoff</i> (1990); <i>Podsakoff et al.</i> (1984)	Nissinen (2001)	Rafferty & Griffin (2004)	Larsson (2003, 2006)	Wang & Howell 2010	Edwards <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Carless <i>et al.</i> (2000)**
TA Contingent reward	Contingent reward behaviour		Personal recognition*	Demand and reward	Personal recognition*		*, **
Management by exception		Controlling and corrective		Control			
Laissez-faire		Passive		Laissez-Faire			
	Contingent punishment behaviour						
	Non-contingent reward behaviour						
	Non-contingent punishment behaviour						

Source: Compiled by the author. Note: * – considers this behaviour as part of the transformational leadership; ** – the instrument is single-factor, the idea of the competency is represented by the items

Authentic leadership (AL), as one of the most contemporary leadership approaches, has few instruments available. The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) developed by Walumbwa *et al.* (2008) distinguishes Self-awareness, Internalised moral perspective, and Relational transparency as the most critical AL competencies. Since ALQ is usable for a fee, Neider & Schriesheim (2011) developed an instrument Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI) free to use, relying on the Walumbwa *et al.* (2008) framework. Although both instruments are used in many studies, the theoretical framework has received criticism (see Alvesson, 2019; Alvesson & Einola, 2019; Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005; Jongman-Sereno & Leary, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Tomkins & Nicholds, 2017) on defining the essence of AL and distinguishing components.

Resting on different theoretical grounds (Beddoes-Jones, 2013), another instrument developed by Beddoes-Jones & Swailes (2015) enables the assessment of Self-awareness, Self-regulation, and Ethics as necessary AL competencies. Despite similarities, there are unique AL competencies compared to ALQ and ALI. In addition, the Beddoes-Jones & Swailes (2015) instrument assess only competencies related to leaders themselves (i.e., intrapersonal), while the Walumbwa *et al.* (2008) instrument includes competencies describing leaders themselves, as well as the relationship with followers (i.e., interpersonal).

1.4. Organisational Leadership Capability as a predictor of military unit effectiveness

Why are some belligerents more effective in waging war and in fighting battles? *Military effectiveness* is commonly agreed to be a combination of material quality, regime type, human capital, civil-military cooperation, and culture (Biddle & Long, 2004), relying on economic developmental level (Beckley, 2010). Such a broad approach is appropriate to identify military effectiveness at a state level, to some extent at the organisational level (Grauer & Quackenbush, 2021), but at the unit level those describe environment and background. At the unit level, a popular measure in the military is *combat effectiveness* which is seen as the ability to survive while reducing the opponent's fighting power in an organised manner (Brathwaite, 2018; McNabb Cochran & Long, 2017).

Although combat effectiveness can be considered as the ultimate measure, relying only on that may create a distorted understanding of a unit's effectiveness as it has two main issues. First, combat effectiveness is temporary in its nature, as it depends on different factors (e.g., leadership, personnel, equipment, morale) (AAP-06, 2020). Second, combat effectiveness focuses narrowly on the assigned mission (i.e., action phase) and describes a unit's capabilities to achieve short-term goals (i.e., winning the battle). In other words, combat effectiveness in one mission does not necessarily predict effectiveness in another mission, and ignores long-term goals (i.e., winning all battles does not guarantee winning the war).

Therefore, effectiveness at the unit level cannot be determined only through combat effectiveness, but also the organisational perspective must be considered.

At the organisational level effectiveness does not have a single definition as it is a construct which cannot be directly observed, assessed, or objectively manipulated because of the dependence of the organisational purpose and variety of the evaluation criteria (Cameron, 2005, p. 290). Since *organisational effectiveness* is seen through the extent of achieving the goal, ability to utilize resources from the environment to survive, internal processes, subjective opinion of the stakeholders, or combination of this criteria (see Choi & Jung, 2017; Forbes, 1998; Hagerer, 2019), the most appropriate is Sharma & Singh's (2019, p. 121) definition:

“Organisational effectiveness is the degree of achievement of participant led integrated goals – measured comprehensively through a mix of financial, operational, structural and attitudinal/behavioural measures – that lead to their satisfaction and enable the long-term survival and sustainability of the organization”

This emphasises the complexity of this paradigm where the key challenge is to choose relevant and appropriate measures for every aspect.

There is a wide range of different measures, for example behavioural measures include satisfaction and adaptability, financial measures profitability and return on investment, operational measures productivity and efficiency, and structural measures flexibility and innovation (Sharma & Singh, 2019). In addition, considering a recent study (Tayal, Upadhyay, Yadav, & Singh, 2021) which defined organisational effectiveness as a combination of strategic and management methods to achieve organisational outcomes, it can be concluded that organisations with their goals, structures and resources create an internal environment, whereas members of the organisation with their values, cognition and behaviours collectively determine the effectiveness to meet external requirements. Similarly, in the military organisational effectiveness is seen as unit key processes (e.g., organisational rating, decision making, information sharing, shared awareness of tasks and responsibilities) driven by organisational goals (see Bjørnstad, 2011; Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2021; Essens *et al.*, 2005; Yanakiev & Horton, 2012). Therefore, it can be argued that in the military effectiveness at the unit level is a combination of organisational and combat effectiveness (see Figure 3).

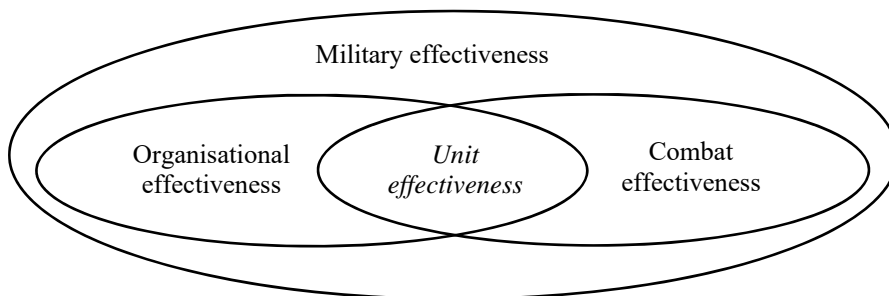


Figure 3. Unit effectiveness in the military context

Unit effectiveness, despite the wide applicability of this term, has multiple meanings which depend on the research aim and may represent unit actions as well as the result. In general, unit effectiveness can be considered as a multilevel combination of inputs, processes, and outcomes, or its derivatives (see Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006; Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008). In the military, unit effectiveness is seen as the outcome of a set of interrelated behaviours, attitudes and cognitions, which result from the dynamic processes of performance (Salas, Cooke, & Rosen, 2008) occurring at a collective level, where the most important are unit-level nonmaterial variables (Biddle & Long, 2004).

Similarly, several studies (e.g., Gilson, Mathieu, Shalley, & Ruddy, 2005; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997) reveal that unit effectiveness is determined by *unit performance*, a function of different versatile inputs of the unit members (Rousseau, Aubé, & Savoie, 2006) at the individual as well as collective level, and evaluated by several subjective and objective indicators (Zaccaro, Heinen, & Shuffler, 2008). Although unit performance can be considered from different perspectives (e.g., organisation, unit, role, see Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008), its quality and quantity is dependent on unit members' behaviour which can be divided into two types: task performance and contextual performance (Motowidlo *et al.*, 1997) (see Figure 4).

While task performance describes the effectiveness to perform job-related behaviours (e.g., operating equipment, following procedures), *contextual performance* includes behaviours which form psychological, social and organisational contexts, and acts as an accelerator for task-related processes (e.g., volunteering, cooperating, assisting) (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Since task performance is mainly related to a specific position, it is relatively easy to define and assess using objective measures (e.g., quantity, time, distance). On the contrary, contextual performance is multifaceted as it includes a wide range of individual as well as collective behaviours whose extent is captured through subjective measures – for example, work engagement (Grojean & Thomas, 2006), morale (Britt *et al.*, 2007), cohesion (Park *et al.*, 2017), Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), and collectivistic leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2002).

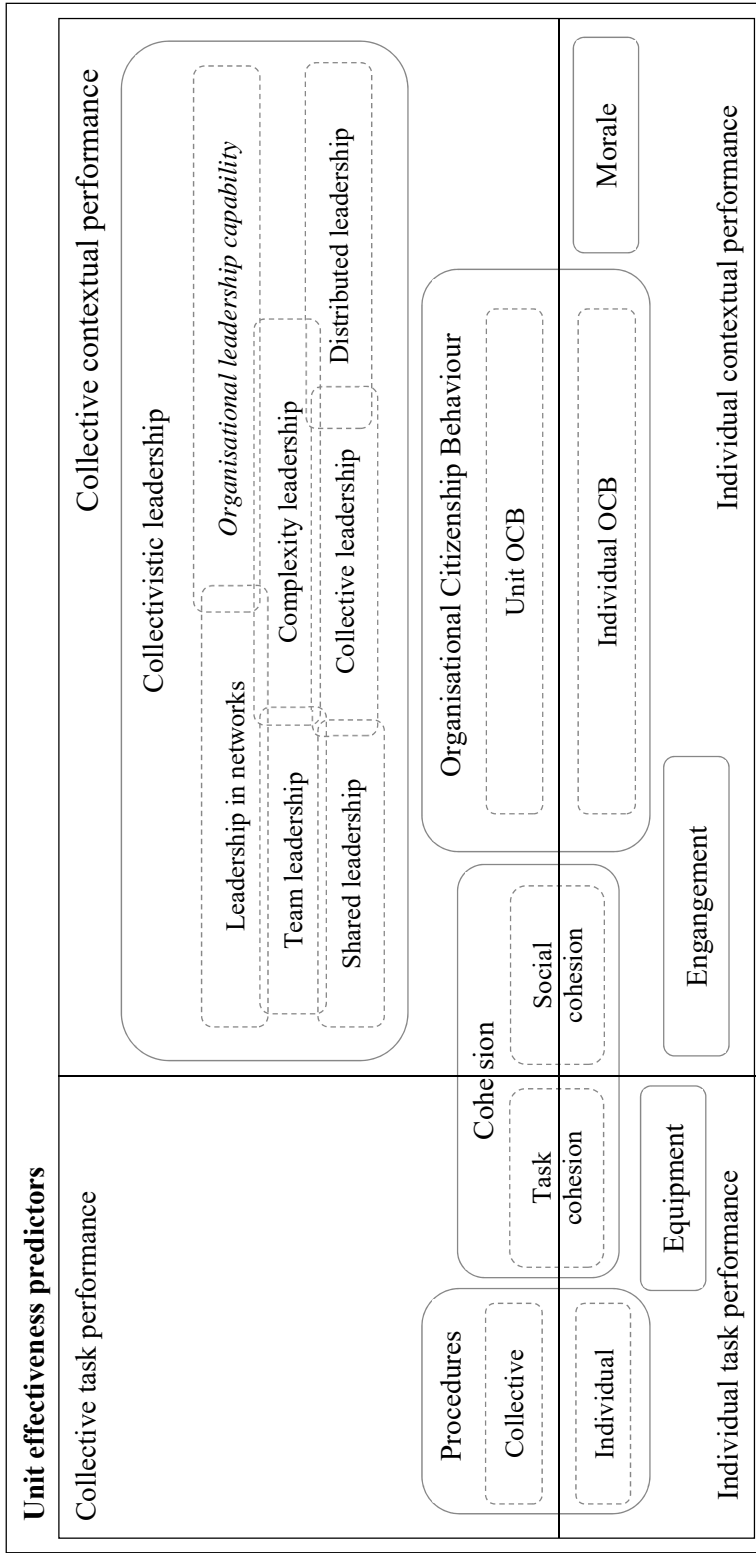


Figure 4. Predictors of performance which constitute unit effectiveness.

Note: For simplification purposes only a selection is displayed. Proportions of performances and overlap of the predictors do not represent the actual situation and are for illustrative purposes only. Source: compiled by the author based on previous studies (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Britt, Dickinson, Moore, Castro, & Adler, 2007; Ehrhart, 2004; Gilson *et al.*, 2005; Grojean & Thomas, 2006; Motowidlo *et al.*, 1997; Organ, 1997; Park, Kim, & Gully, 2017; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Rousseau *et al.*, 2006; Zaccaro *et al.*, 2008).

Work engagement describes an individual's positive attitudes towards job-related activities (see Bakker & Bal, 2010; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006), and their morale, enthusiasm and motivation to accomplish an assigned mission (Britt & Dickinson, 2006; Frone & Blais, 2019; Maheshwari, Sharma, & Kumar, 2021). Cohesion describes the extent to which unit members hold together through their similarity, closeness, and unity in accomplishing the task (Carless & De Paola, 2000; Siebold, 2006). OCB, at first designed to describe an individual's willingness to behave as a good citizen in an organisation by contributing more than expected (i.e., "a good soldier") (Organ, 1997), is suitable to describe such behaviour at the unit level as well (Ehrhart, 2004; Schnake & Dumler, 2003). Collectivistic leadership describes a phenomenon whereby traditional authority and power is redefined, and leadership is seen as a formal and informal interaction between multiple persons (Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012). Although such a list indicates that there are many approaches for determining the extent of contextual performance, several studies (e.g., West, 2007; Yang & Wang, 2014) have highlighted that success is defined not through the individual or aggregated individual, but through the collective level.

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that there are many approaches for determining the extent of contextual performance, several studies (e.g., West, 2007; Yang & Wang, 2014) have highlighted that success is defined not through the individual or aggregated individual, but through the collective level.

In the military it is widely acknowledged that, in the achievement of organisational and unit objectives – whether preparing for, conducting in, or recovering from the action – unit effectiveness is determined not only by task performance (i.e., professional competencies to use equipment, operating machinery, planning operations) but also by contextual performance, and therefore different contextual performance predictors are continuously studied. For example, studies of military unit cohesion and its relationship with different outcomes started after World War II (Griffith, 2007) has not lost their relevance today (e.g., Charbonneau & Wood, 2018; Jones *et al.*, 2018; Orme & Kehoe, 2020). More recent is OCB whose positive impact has been studied in different armed forces world-wide, for example in Turkey (Gurbuz, 2009; Kayaalp, Page, & Gumus, 2021), the USA (Ehrhart, Bliese, & Thomas, 2006; Jordan, Schraeder, Field, & Armenakis, 2007), and Switzerland (Annen, Goldammer, & Szvirsev Tresch, 2015). Despite their usefulness for describing unit relational aspects, neither cohesion nor OCB describe how a unit leader's leadership is transferred to and exercised at the collective level, an important element in military unit effectiveness (Shuffler, Pavlas, & Salas, 2012) which has very practical value. Whether in combat or not, units commonly operate separated by time and space, and a unit leader's options to lead and control subunit actions are limited. Subunits by themselves must maintain situational awareness, analyse the situation, determine the appropriate action, and execute it, keeping in mind their leader's intent. In addition, if a unit leader is not able to lead (e.g., sustained damage during combat), the unit's capability to reorganize and continue with the mission, and respond to arising situations, relies on the leadership which has emerged from the collective.

Such *collectivistic leadership* can be seen as a dynamic influential process in units as well as in organisations involving a network of multiple leaders who assume, distribute or share leadership roles and responsibilities because of their expertise and abilities to meet situational demands and solve arising problems (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Friedrich, Vessey, Schuelke, Ruark, & Mumford, 2009; Hiller, Day, & Vance, 2006), highlighting that members can be leaders and followers at the same time (Song & Gu, 2020). Collectivistic leadership is seen as a social network (Mayo, Meindl, & Pastor, 2003) where all unit members influence both vertically and horizontally (Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014) and the extent of the network is described through the centralisation and density of the network (Contractor, DeChurch, Carson, Carter, & Keegan, 2012; Mendez, Howell, & Bishop, 2015). While density describes the number of ties between members, centrality refers to the number of members who are equally at the centre of the network (Mayo *et al.*, 2003). Considering that collectivistic leadership is an emergent (D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, & Kukenberger, 2016), complex and patterned relational network (Carter, DeChurch, Braun, & Contractor, 2015) where leadership is shared in the unit (i.e., members have interpersonal influence with

each other in the unit level) and distributed within the system (i.e., leadership is not related to individuals and seen as a practice occurring between organisational entities) (Ospina, Foldy, Fairhurst, & Jackson, 2020), organisations with their distinctive features (e.g., culture, structure) create the framework for how members or units within an organisation interact with each other (Friedrich *et al.*, 2009; Schein, 2004), emphasising the importance of the organisational capability to practice leadership at a collective level to meet internal and external requirements.

Collectivistic leadership is at the centre in different approaches, for example collective leadership (Friedrich *et al.*, 2009), shared leadership (Carson *et al.*, 2007), distributed leadership (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004), leadership in networks (Carter *et al.*, 2015), team leadership (Burke *et al.*, 2006), organisational leadership capability (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010) and complexity leadership (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007) (see Figure 4). Despite the number of theoretical discussions in general (e.g., Yammarino *et al.*, 2012) and in the military (e.g., Lindsay, Day, & Halpin, 2011), there are few empirical studies which have assessed collectivistic leadership in units. In the military, qualitative methods have mostly been used (e.g., Cakiroglu, Caetano, & Costa, 2020; Friedrich *et al.*, 2014; Ramthun & Matkin, 2014), and the instrument available (Yammarino *et al.*, 2014) is designed especially for a specific organisation, following its norms and regulations.

More generic instruments are available, for example an instrument developed by Pearce & Sims (2002) which considers individual behaviours (aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering) through the collective lens, or Friedrich, Griffith, & Mumford's (2016) instrument which assesses collectivistic leadership dimensions like network development, communication and leader-team exchange. Another instrument was developed by Kivipõld & Vadi (2010) to assess organisational leadership capability (OLC), the collective ability of leadership to maintain the primary goal of the organisation through identifying and managing external environmental requirements (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010). This approach includes relational connections, organisational processes and dynamic aspects of leadership at the collective level describing effectiveness at the organisational level (Kivipõld, Türk, & Kivipõld, 2020). Considering the characteristics of military unit effectiveness, and its relationship with organisational and combat effectiveness, OLC as a representative of collectivistic leadership is a suitable instrument to determine unit effectiveness.

Organisational leadership capability (OLC) is a combination of the interrelated structures, systems, and processes embedded into the organisation describing the collective ability of leadership to maintain organisational goals in accordance with external requirements (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010), where reciprocal interaction and influence of various agents create new behaviour for the system as a whole (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001). Such a system-wide emergence of adaptability, learning, innovation, and capabilities (Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2006) describes organisational effectiveness through the organisational ability to adapt and evolve under non-linear and chaotic conditions (Schneider & Somers, 2006). Although such effectiveness manifests at the collective level, it relies on every individual's (agent)

cognitive (i.e., ability to distinguish and implement abstract information into context) and social capabilities (i.e., ability to understand and implement different aspects of the social relations and roles) (Lord, Hannah, & Jennings, 2011). While social capability is required for agent-wide network creation, the most influential is cognitive capability (Mumford, Friedrich, Vessey, & Ruark, 2012) as people with more complex cognition are more adaptable and increase organisational adaptability (Lord *et al.*, 2011) through bottom-up leadership emergence.

OLC identifies *organisational orientation* (i.e., a collective movement towards a superior outcome) with the factor *Organisational alignment and cohesion* (OAC), and *organisational adaption* (i.e., collective processes for coping with the dynamics of the external environment) with the factors *Control-feedback system* (CFS) and *Architecture of the internal network* (AIN) which is itself a combination of two sub-factors: *Extent of centralisation* (EC) and *Informal communication* (IC) (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010). OAC represents the cognitive, CFS sensor, and AIN social domain (Kivipõld, 2011). While the main factors describe short-term effectiveness, long-term effectiveness is determined through interaction between the main factors: *Organisational cohesiveness* as the interaction between OAC and AIN, and *Collective ability to explain everyday activities within the strategic objectives of an organisation* as the interaction between OAC and CFS (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010). Therefore, this instrument covers both the social and cognitive domain and addresses both short-term and long-term goals which, as representative of collectivistic leadership, can be considered as a predictor of unit effectiveness (see Figure 5).

Recent studies have identified that collectivistic leadership reduces conflict within a unit especially then task complexity is high (Ziegert, Mayer, Piccolo, & Graham, 2021), increases task and unit satisfaction (Serban & Roberts, 2016), creativity (Song & Gu, 2020), focus (Aubé, Rousseau, & Brunelle, 2018), and unit outcomes (e.g., group behavioural processes, attitudinal outcomes, team cognition, unit subjective and objective performance) (Wu, Cormican, & Chen, 2020). Although collectivistic leadership contributes beyond vertical leadership to unit outcome (Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006), collectivistic leadership reflects vertical leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2002) and acts as an amplifier. Considering that vertical leadership is an essential predictor of unit effectiveness (Ensley *et al.*, 2006), where formal leaders can facilitate the emergence of collectivistic leadership in a unit (see Carson *et al.*, 2007; Darban, 2021; Friedrich *et al.*, 2009; Siangchokyoo & Klinger, 2021), and the properties of an OLC instrument, it is possible to assess the relationship between first-level leaders' leadership competencies and short-term and long-term unit effectiveness.

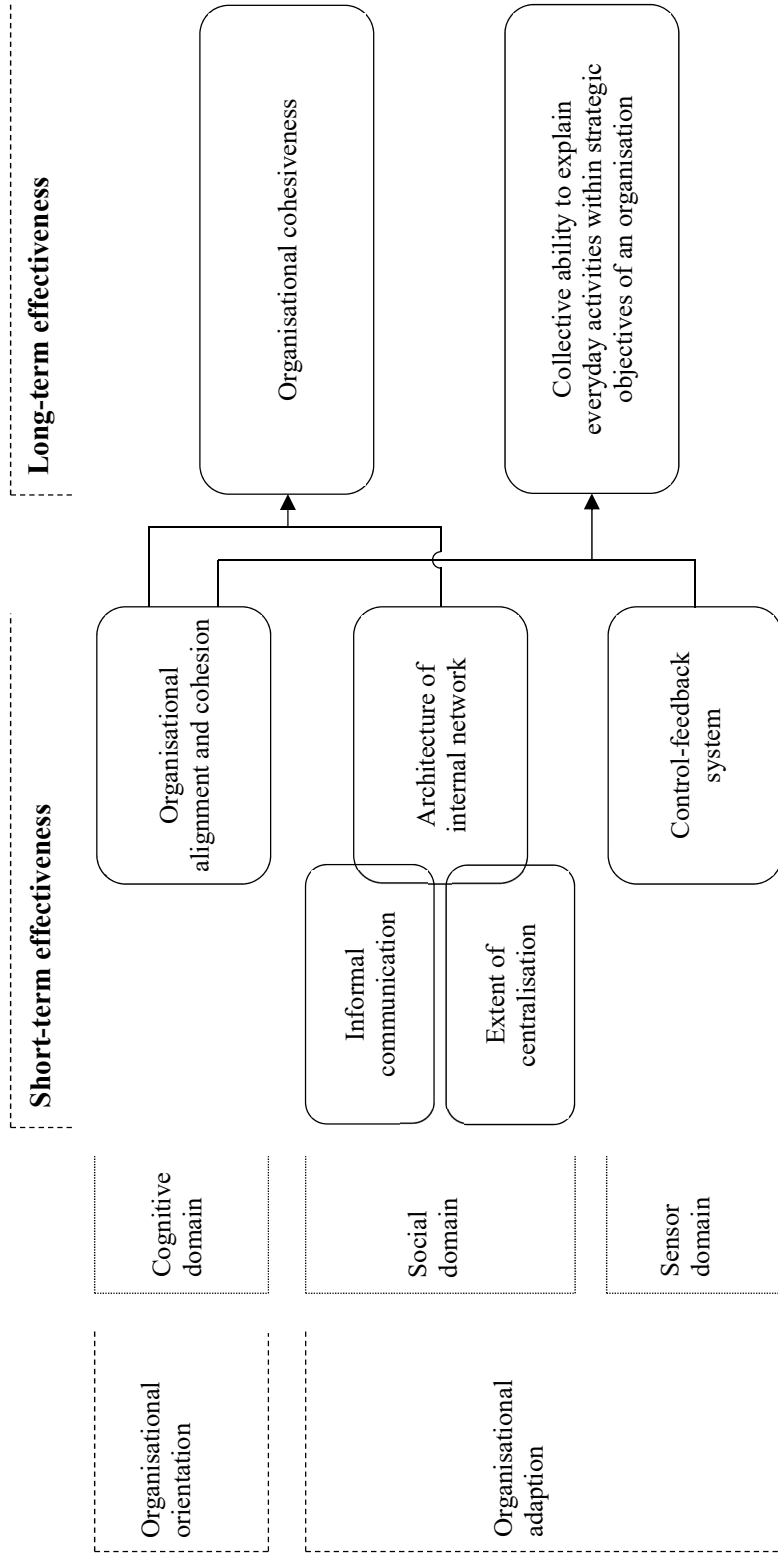


Figure 5. Organisational Leadership Capability (OLC).

Source: compiled by the author based on Kivipõld (2011); Kivipõld & Vadi (2010, 2013).

1.5. Research questions

A previous literature review revealed that unit effectiveness in extreme contexts is a collective phenomenon affected by their formal leaders who are expected to possess high-level leadership competencies. In reality, such first-level leaders' leadership competencies are somewhat limited because of the little experience in leading the unit. Nevertheless, their leadership effectiveness can be increased by developing leadership competencies, which contributes to an increase of unit effectiveness. This requires an understanding of the necessary leadership competencies of the first-level leaders and how those competencies are represented among them. In addition, the location where the organisation is operating also must be taken into account. Therefore, Table 4 presents the research questions that were formulated to guide this thesis.

Table 4. Research questions of the thesis.

No of RQ	Research question	Covered in
RQ1	How is leadership defined, and what kind of leadership competencies are essential for military leaders?	Study 1 and 2
RQ2	How are leadership competencies represented in first-level military leaders in Estonian Defence Forces?	Study 1
RQ3	What is the suitable framework for the assessment of military leaders' Authentic Leadership competencies?	Study 2
RQ4	Which instrument is the most suitable to assess AL competencies in Estonian Defence Forces?	Study 1 and 2
RQ5	How are first-level leader leadership competencies related to short-term unit effectiveness in Estonian Defence Forces?	Study 3
RQ6	How are first-level leaders' leadership competencies related to long-term unit effectiveness in Estonian Defence Forces?	Study 3

Source: Compiled by the author

2. METHODS

2.1. Research outline

The empirical part of this thesis explores first-level leaders' leadership competencies and their relationship with unit effectiveness in terms of collectivistic leadership in the Estonian Defence Forces. To answer the research questions required studies to be conducted in two stages. *The first stage* was to establish the framework of military leaders' leadership competencies and select suitable instruments to assess them, consisting of Study 1 and Study 2. *The second stage* was testing the developed framework relation with unit effectiveness in terms of organisational leadership capability described in Study 3 (see Figure 6). In all studies, instruments were distributed and assessment was done by the subordinates of the first-level leaders. Respondents were informed about the purposes of the studies, the voluntary nature of the participation, and the anonymity of their identities.

Study 1 focuses on identifying the necessary leadership competencies in first-level military leaders (RQ1) and determining their quality of leadership competencies in first-level leaders of EDF (RQ2). To answer RQ1, leadership documents from different countries' armed forces were analysed, and identified competencies were divided into leadership dimensions. In addition, such a framework enabled the selection of suitable instruments to assess identified leadership competencies. To determine the level of EDF first-level leaders' leadership competencies (RQ2), collected data descriptive statistics were analysed using confirmatory factor analysis, reliability analysis, and hierarchical cluster analysis. In Study 1 the following instruments were used: TA competencies with the instrument developed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1984) and TF competencies with the instrument developed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) (see Table 5), both adapted into Estonian by Kasemaa *et al.* (2016). AL competencies were assessed by the instrument developed in Study 2.

Study 2 focuses on AL competencies and their measurement. To identify AL competencies (RQ3), the relevant literature was analysed. In order to select the suitable instrument to assess identified AL leadership competencies (RQ4), collected data descriptive statistics and content analysis was performed to identify the best items for the instrument, followed by confirmatory factor analysis and reliability analysis. For the development of the Extended Authentic Leadership Model (see Table 5), instruments used in Study 2 were the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire developed by Walumbwa *et al.* (2008), Authentic Leadership Inventory developed by (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011), and Three Pillar Model developed by (Beddoes-Jones & Swailes, 2015).

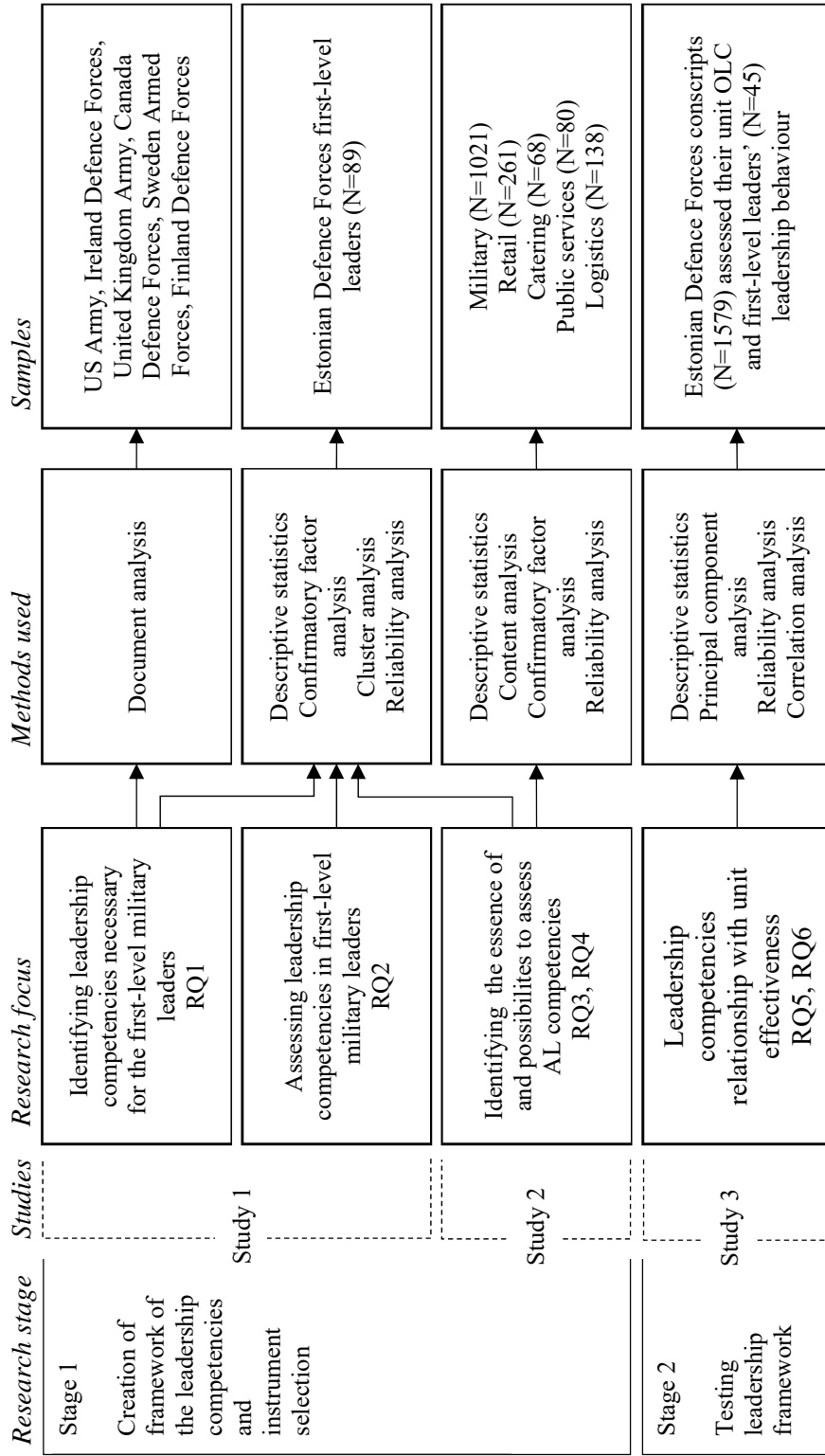


Figure 6. Thesis structure with research stages, studies focuses, methods and samples used. Compiled by the author

Table 5. Used instruments composition

Instr	Competencies	No of items	Sample item	Scale
TA	Identifying and articulating vision (IV)	4	My leader is able to get others committed to his/her dream of the future.	Likert 7 point 1 (strongly disagree) ... 7 (strongly agree)
	providing an appropriate model (AM)	3	My leader leads by example.	
	fostering acceptance of group goals (GG)	4	My leader gets the unit to work together for the same goal.	
	high-performance expectations (HP)	2	My leader insists on only the best performance.	
	providing individualized support (PS)	4	My leader shows respect for my personal feelings.	
	intellectual stimulation (IS)	3	My leader has stimulated me to think about old problems in new ways.	
	TF	Contingent reward behaviour (CR)	10	
Contingent punishment behaviour (CP)		3	My leader lets me know about it when I perform poorly.	
Non-contingent reward behaviour (NR)		4	Even when I perform poorly, my leader often commends me.	
Non-contingent punishment behaviour (NP)		3	My leader is often critical of my work, even when I perform well.	

Table 5 (*continued*)

Instr	Competencies	No of items	Sample item	Scale
AL	Self-awareness (SA)	6	My leader shows that he/she understands his/her strengths and weaknesses.	Likert 5-point 1 (not at all) ...
	Self-regulation (SR)	5	My leader displays self-discipline.	5 (frequently, if not always)
	Ethical regulation (ER)	6	My leader believes that his role as a leader includes an ethical responsibility to others.	
	Balanced processing (BP)	4	My leader listens carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions.	
	Relational transparency (RT)	6	My leader clearly states what he/she means.	
OLC	Organisational alignment and cohesion (OAC)	4	We have set the main purpose and interim objectives.	End-labelled 7-point 1 (strongly disagree) ...
	Control-feedback system (CFS)	4	I consider our control methods to be fair.	7 (completely agree)
	Extent of centralisation (EC)	4	We are regarded as equals at work.	
	Informal communication (IC)	4	We socialize with our co-workers also outside of work.	

Source: Compiled by the author. Note: Instr – instrument; TA – Transactional leadership (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1984); TF – Transformational leadership (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990), AL – Authentic leadership (Study 2 in this thesis), OLC – Organisational leadership capability (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010).

Study 3 focuses on the first-level military leaders' leadership competency relationship to unit effectiveness in terms of collectivistic leadership⁶. To determine the relationship of first-level leadership competencies with short-term effectiveness (RQ5) and long-term effectiveness in EDF (RQ6), collected data descriptive statistics were analysed using principal component analysis, reliability analysis, and correlation analysis. In Study 3, first-level leaders' leadership competencies were assessed by the instruments used in Study 1; unit effectiveness was assessed by the Organisational Leadership Capability instrument developed by Kivipõld & Vadi (2010) (see Table 5).

2.2. Methods description

All instruments used include items (variables) that describe one specific event from a different perspective, forming a factor (latent variable). Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS 25 and AMOS 25, and the benchmarks used were the same in all studies.

Document analysis is an analytical method to bring out purport, to increase and develop knowledge by systematically reviewing and evaluating documents (Bowen, 2009). In Study 1 document analysis enabled the determination of the similarities and differences of different approaches and the creation of a leadership framework for military leaders.

An *Exploratory factor analysis* using *principal component analysis* (PCA) was conducted to explore the data to identify the structure of the factor and how items describe this factor (Field, 2009, p. 638). In Study 3 PCA revealed that items describing respondents' satisfaction from different perspectives (satisfaction with leader actions, individual leader performance, leader contribution to unit, and leader influence on respondents' willingness to contribute more) form together one single factor. The *reliability* of the measure indicates consistency with the construct of its measures (Field, 2009, p. 673). Reliability analysis using Cronbach alpha with benchmarks ≥ 0.7 suggested by Nunnally (1978, p. 245) were performed in all studies to assess the internal consistency of the factors.

Correlation analysis describes the relationship between variables (Geher & Hall, 2014, p. 80) and is a suitable method for identifying the relationship of first-level leaders' leadership competencies with unit collectivistic leadership in Study 3. Person r correlation coefficients were used with the following values to identify strength of the relationship: $|r| < .3$ weak correlation; $.3 \leq |r| < .7$ moderate correlation; $|r| \geq .7$ strong correlation (Dancey & Reidy, 2011).

⁶ Despite a careful selection of words in the writing and reviewing process, a mistake is presented in Study 3. In the abstract it is incorrectly stated that the relationships between leadership competencies and follower satisfaction are analysed. The correction is that the relationships between follower satisfaction and different factors of collectivistic leadership were analysed. All existing mistakes are the author's only.

Cluster analysis enables the identification of homogeneous groups of observations sharing similar characteristics and are dissimilar to observations forming another cluster (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2010). Hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward method distance measured by the squared Euclidean method without restrictions was used in Study 1 to determine the level and representativeness of the leadership competencies in military leaders' behaviour and the connection between leadership competencies for the creation of the leadership profile.

2.3. Sample description

In **Study 1**, to create a leadership framework for first-level leaders (RQ1), a document analysis of different armed forces leadership approaches was performed. The sample included the US Army (*Army Leadership and the Profession*, 2019), UK Army (*Developing Leaders: A British Army Guide*, 2014), Canadian Forces (*Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Doctrine*, 2005), Ireland Defence Forces (*Defence Forces Leadership Doctrine*, 2016), Swedish Armed Forces (Larsson *et al.*, 2003) and Finnish Defence Forces (Nissinen, 2001). The rationale behind such a selection is that the US Army, UK Army, Ireland Defence Forces and Canadian Forces are NATO allies with close cooperation. Swedish Armed Forces and Finnish Defence Forces have contributed significantly to the development of the EDF after re-independence, and there is close cooperation ongoing. In addition to their close geographical proximity, both countries have a conscription system, similar to EDF. To determine the level of leadership competencies in first-level military leaders (RQ2), data was collected from different training centres of EDF. To assess AL competencies, the sample consisted of first-level leaders (N=40) whose leadership competencies were evaluated by their conscript subordinates (N=988). The sample consisted of first-level leaders (N=49) whose conscript subordinates evaluated leadership competencies (N=667) to assess TF and TA competencies. Most of the assessed leaders were male in both samples: 95% and 98% respectively (see Table 6).

Study 2 involved two different samples to identify the necessary military leaders' AL competencies and possibilities to assess them in the EDF (RQ3 and RQ4). Such a design is based on the understanding that leadership is context-specific (Antonakis & House, 2014), influenced by social and organisational aspects (Alvesson, 2019b), and group composition (Somech, 2006) including age, gender and cultural differences (Rowold, 2011). The homogeneous sample consisted of EDF conscripts (N=1021) from different training centres. The majority of the conscripts were male (99.8%) with a mean age of 21.6 years (SD 1.7). The heterogeneous sample (N=547) consisted of persons from retail (N=261), catering (N=68), public services (N=80) and logistics (N=138). This sample was much more diverse in terms of gender, where the majority was female (except logistics), and age, where a cohort of 30–49 years old dominated (except catering) (see Table 6).

Table 6. Composition of the samples in studies.

Study	RQ	Focus of study	Sample (group)	Sample (industry)	Responded subordinates	Assessed first-level leaders
Study 1	RQ2	TF and TA competencies AL competencies	Homo-geneous	Military	667 988	49 40 – Subordinates 5–70.
Study 2	RQ3 and RQ4	Assessment of AL competencies	Homo-geneous Hetero-geneous	Military	1021	– 99.8% male; – Age 18–28 (M=21.6, SD=1.7); – 75.2% secondary education; – Under assessed leader M=6.2 months (SD=2.3). – 61.3% female; – 50.8% at age 30–49. – 75% female; – 88.2% < 29 years old. – 81.3% female; – 52.5% at age 30–49. – 58% male; – 58% at age 30–49.
Study 3	RQ5 and RQ6	Relation between leadership competencies and collectivistic leadership	Homo-geneous	Military	1579	45 – 100% male; – Age 23–40 (M=26.5, SD=3.75); – 93% OF-1; – Experience < 1 year as leader N=27; – Subordinates 21–46 (M=35.1, SD=6.5).

Source: Compiled by the author. Note: TF – Transformational, TA – Transactional, AL – Authentic leadership.

Study 3 was performed to determine the relationship of first-level military leaders' leadership competencies with short-term and long-term unit effectiveness (RQ5 and RQ6). Data was collected in major training centres of EDF, and the sample consisted of first-level military leaders (N=45) who were assessed by their subordinate conscripts (N=1579). First-level leaders were all male with a mean age of 26.5 years (SD 3.57). The majority were of rank OF1 (93%), whereas 27 of them had less than a year's experience as platoon leaders. Conscripts were primarily male (98.8%) with a mean age of 20.3 years (SD 1.5) (see Table 6).

3. EMPIRICAL STUDIES

4. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Key findings for the research questions are presented in Table 7. Results show that the discussion focuses on three main topics. First, the military leaders' leadership competency framework, supported by RQ1 and RQ3. Second, the possibilities to assess and examine the quality of leadership competencies among first-level leaders of the Estonian Defence Forces, supported by RQ2 and RQ4. Third, the relationship of Estonian Defence Forces first-level leaders' leadership competencies with unit effectiveness, supported by RQ5 and RQ6.

4.1. Military leaders' leadership competency framework

Previous literature review brought to light that extreme contexts are very demanding and most military organisations worldwide have invested to meet those demands. Since leadership is identified as an important factor defining success, there are several documents available which, in accordance with the aims of the armed forces, establish frameworks for leadership, and the expected qualities of leaders.

Analysis of leadership documents from different countries' armed forces to identify what military leadership is and what the essential leadership competencies are in the military (**RQ1**) showed that, despite differences in location, language, aim, size and power, there is a significantly similar understanding of military leadership (see Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020b). Although a hierarchical structure with a chain of command and disobedience in following orders to achieve organisational objectives are in principle at the centre of every armed force, there is a significant shift in how those objectives are achieved. It is acknowledged that leadership in the military is a multi-directional influential process where formal leaders influence their subordinates, subordinates influence their leaders, and subordinates influence each other. The extent of the influence is dependent on two aspects.

First, the foundation of being a military leader is a combination of personal characteristics (e.g., physical, psychological, cognitive, traits) and the competencies necessary to perform in a leader's position. To complete an assigned mission, military leaders are required to possess competencies from the professional (i.e., operate different means), social (i.e., influence surrounding people), managerial (i.e., organise complex systems to function), and conceptual domains (i.e., making sense of incomplete information). Therefore, to achieve the maximum performance (see Boyatzis, 2008) as leader it is necessary for them to lead themselves (i.e., possess intrapersonal competencies) and lead others (i.e., possess interpersonal competencies).

Table 7. Summary of key findings.

Discussion topic	RQ	Research question	Findings
Military leaders' leadership competencies framework.	RQ1	How is leadership understood, and what are essential leadership competencies for military leaders?	Leadership in the military is a reciprocal influential process requiring the employment of competencies from all main leadership dimensions.
	RQ3	What is the suitable framework for the assessment of military leaders' Authentic Leadership competencies?	Military leaders' AL framework must include both intrapersonal (Self-awareness, Self-regulation, and Ethical regulation), and interpersonal (Balanced processing and Relational transparency) leadership competencies.
The possibilities to assess and the extent of leadership competencies in first-level military leaders in EDF.	RQ2	How are leadership competencies represented in first-level military leaders of Estonian Defence Forces?	First-level leaders are setting themselves up as role models and emphasising common goals, most of the competencies' level is mediocre, and shortcomings are in competencies which contribute to the creation of a social network.
	RQ4	Which instrument is the most suitable to assess AL competencies in Estonian Defence Forces?	Existing instruments are suitable to a limited extent, most suitable is the proposed extended AL instrument which covers both intrapersonal and interpersonal leadership competencies.
EDF first-level military leaders' leadership competencies relationship with unit effectiveness.	RQ5	How are first-level leader leadership competencies related to short-term unit effectiveness in Estonian Defence Forces?	Most of the TF and AL competencies have a strong positive, and TA competencies have moderate, in some cases negative, relationship.
	RQ6	How are first-level leaders leadership competencies related to long-term unit effectiveness in Estonian Defence Forces?	First-level leaders leadership competencies are not related to unit long-term effectiveness.

Source: Compiled by the author

Second, leadership behaviour which defines the extent of influence over unit members depends on the quality of the leadership competencies of the leader. Despite the differences in defining influential means, they are either task-, change-, or relations- oriented (i.e., dimension) (see Derue *et al.*, 2011; Yukl, 2008). The focus of *task*-oriented leadership behaviours are completion of the mission by setting clear responsibilities and demands through the exchange of social, personal and material benefits (Bass, 1990; Ekvall, 1991). *Change*-oriented leadership behaviours' objective is to alter followers' behaviour (i.e., developing abilities and increasing motivation) to meet the requirements of the task (Yukl, Mahsud, Prussia, & Hassan, 2019). *Relations*-oriented leadership behaviours describes concern about followers' needs and focus on the development of a social network (Borgmann *et al.*, 2016).

While both task- and change-oriented leadership behaviours are seen as regular components in military leadership, the relevance of relations-oriented behaviours are rather diminished. Nevertheless, the relational climate is described via the psychological conditions under which an individual has positive expectations toward others in spite of possible vulnerability (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). This is based on the social bonds between individuals in a group, allowing social transactions among them. Central to this situation is trust, which marks the strength of the social bonds (Ponder, Bugg Holloway, & Hansen, 2016) and determines the quality of the social transactions which lead to unit performance and satisfaction among its members (de Bruin & Moore, 2005). In the military, trust has also been identified as an indispensable contributor to group cohesion (Siebold, 2007) and an enabler for independent mission command (Ploumis, 2020). Also, the level of followers' trust towards their leaders defines the extent of leadership influence (Sweeney, Thompson, & Blanton, 2009). Considering that better unit performance is associated more with the trust in the leader than trust between unit members (Dirks, 2000), leadership behaviours that contribute to the creation and maintenance of trust is crucial for military leaders.

Therefore, the military leadership competency framework includes task-oriented, change-oriented, and relations-oriented behaviours (see Table 8). Since at the centre of relations-oriented behaviour is trust, the appropriate leadership approach to describe this dimension is Authentic leadership (AL), identified as the source which generates trust between leaders and followers (see Agote *et al.*, 2016; Alkaabi & Wong, 2019; Coxen *et al.*, 2016; Maximo *et al.*, 2019). Considering that motivation and development are at the centre of change-oriented behaviours, the appropriate leadership approach for this is Transformational leadership (TF), associated with processes that transform and change people (Northouse, 2015, p. 161) through the leader's visionary, considerate and emotional behaviour which influences followers' values and emotions, inspiring them to perform and achieve results beyond expectations, not just comply with regulations (Avolio *et al.*, 2009; Judge *et al.*, 2006). Task-oriented behaviours' pragmatic approach to completion of the mission is the best described through Transactional leadership (TA), describing the leader's behaviour to influence unit members to achieve what they want through exchanging material, personal or social benefits (Bass, 1990).

Table 8. Leadership framework for military leaders

Leadership orientation	Leadership approach	Self (Intrapersonal)	Target of influence (competencies)
		Self (Intrapersonal)	Others (Interpersonal)
<i>Task-oriented</i> – Improving the efficiency and reliability of activities by structuring processes, defining task roles, articulating expectations and standards of performance.	TA	None	Recognising compliance or punishing deviation from the established standards.
<i>Change-oriented</i> – Identifying, implementing, facilitating and directing desirable changes.	TF	Generation of new ideas, adaptable, willingness to take risks	In accordance with unit members' needs and abilities inspiring them to develop and achieve better results.
<i>Relations-oriented</i> – Being open to feedback and maintaining subordinate task commitment, confidence and cooperation by considering and respecting every unit member's needs and equal treatment.	AL	Understanding and assessing themselves objectively in the leader position considering internal and external aspects (e.g., personal, social, cultural).	Using and promoting open and fair interaction within unit enabling understanding and assessing social connections within a unit.

Source: Compiled by author based on Meerits & Kivipõld (2020b).

Note: TA – Transactional leadership, TF – Transformational leadership, AL – Authentic leadership.

Since both TA and TF approaches are well-studied and competencies which represent both approaches are well-defined, for this thesis the Podsakoff *et al.* (1984) instrument was selected to assess TA competencies, and the Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) instrument was selected to assess TF competencies. On the other hand, AL is still in its developmental phase and its distinguishing elements are not yet fully understood (see Crawford, Dawkins, Martin, & Lewis, 2020). Identifying a suitable framework for the assessment of military leaders' AL competencies (RQ3) revealed that AL comprises of intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies (Meerits *et al.*, 2021).

AL *intrapersonal competencies* describe leader self-concordance supported by the majority of scholars (e.g., Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Bishop, 2013; Crawford *et al.*, 2020; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008) and includes Self-awareness, Ethical regulation, and Self-regulation. *Self-awareness* describes leaders' capability to be reflective, self-critical and open to feedback (Ashley & Reiter-Palmon, 2012). *Ethical regulation* is about the coherence between leaders' inherent moral beliefs and actual behaviour (Pircher Verdorfer & Peus, 2020). *Self-regulation*, despite it having been considered as part of ethical/moral behaviour (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008), is a distinct competency (see Beddoes-Jones & Swailes, 2015; Černe, Jaklič, & Škerlavaj, 2013; Gardner *et al.*, 2005) because it describes processes to achieve and maintain internal goals (Sassenberg & Hamstra, 2017) not necessarily related to ethical concerns.

AL *interpersonal competencies* represent the ability to understand and assess social connections with the unit (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2008) through Relational transparency and Balanced processing. *Relational transparency* describes the extent of leaders' openness and genuine interaction with their followers (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007) and *Balanced processing* describes leaders' objectivity to analyse existing data before making decisions (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008). Since no approaches consider all necessary intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies simultaneously, this thesis proposes an Extended Authentic Leadership Model (EALM) (Table 9).

There are two main advantages of this instrument compared to existing ones. First, EALM includes both intrapersonal and interpersonal leadership competencies. While one side of the scale considers AL leader-centric, and authenticity (i.e., being genuine) is determined only through their own understanding, values and experiences (e.g., Beddoes-Jones & Swailes, 2015; Shamir & Eilam, 2005), the other side considers that a leader's authenticity is determined only by their followers (Sidani & Rowe, 2018). Considering that leadership is a multi-directional influential process where several internal and external factors influence self-image and behaviour (Jongman-Sereno & Leary, 2019), AL comprises intrapersonal competencies to gain better self-understanding (i.e., leader-centred), and interpersonal competencies for open communication with others (i.e., other-centred). Second, EALM includes self-regulation, a competency which describes a leader's ability to control their own emotions (Goleman, 2009) and obtain and retain internal goals (Sassenberg & Hamstra, 2017; Vancouver & Day, 2005). A leader's ability to regulate themselves has been identified as an essential

competency, especially in the military context where self-regulation has been identified as an important element of a military leader’s character (Boe, Bang, & Nilsen, 2015), enabling them to monitor and regulate their own cognitive processes (Hannah, Jennings, & Nobel, 2010), increasing resilience too (McLarnon, Rothstein, & King, 2021).

Table 9. Extended Authentic leadership model

Competencies focus	Leadership competencies	Description
Intrapersonal	Self-awareness	Leader’s ability to be self-critical, reflective, insightful and open to feedback, displaying leader’s emotional intelligence, and enables the development of self-identity.
	Ethical regulation	Value-driven ability to behave in accordance with inherent moral beliefs, displaying leader’s “moral compass”.
	Self-regulation	Goal-driven ability to regulate own emotions and actions to achieve and maintain internal goals, displaying leader’s capability to manage conflicts objectively.
Interpersonal	Relational transparency	Leader’s ability to display genuine self through open and just communication with others.
	Balanced processing	Leader’s ability to ignore personal gain and own interests by objectively and thoroughly analysing existing data before making a decision.

Source: composed by the author based on Meerits *et al.* (2021).

Answers to RQ1 and RQ3 enabled a leadership competency framework for military leaders to be proposed at the centre of which is leaders’ behaviour which is either task-, change- or relations-oriented. Such a distinction enables identification of the necessary leadership competencies and the selection of the proper instruments for the assessment and development. This three-dimensional leadership behavioural model is seen through the extreme context lens with its different phases. To be successful in extreme contexts the action phase requires significant effort before and after the action phase to fulfil the role of leader and being the leader of the unit. It has to be acknowledged that, whether the armed forces be professional or conscription-based, the majority of the military leaders and their units mainly encounter extreme context action phases during field training exercises. Nevertheless, such exercises can be very physically and psychologically demanding, requiring a leader’s full dedication. Probably the most important is the preparation phase, especially for conscripts as their personal preferences and abilities do not support task-related activities and require the leaders to shape their motivation and attitudes.

4.2. First-level leaders' leadership competencies in the Estonian Defence Forces

The Estonian Defence Forces (EDF) introduction highlighted that there are no official regulations or models that create standards for the assessment and development of leadership. This thesis proposes the leadership competency model which includes leadership competencies from the main leadership dimensions (task, change, relations) represented by the most appropriate leadership approaches (Transactional, Transformational, Authentic, respectively), enabling the definition and assessment of leadership quality. To determine first-level leaders' leadership competencies in EDF requires the appropriate instruments. While several instruments are adopted in EDF to assess TA and TF competencies (e.g., Kasemaa *et al.*, 2016; Kasemaa & Suviste, 2020; Meerits *et al.*, 2015), there are no studies which have adapted or developed any instrument to assess AL competencies in the Estonian (Defence Forces) context.

For the selection of the most suitable instrument to assess AL competencies in EDF (**RQ4**), three existing instruments were included in the adaptation process (see Meerits *et al.*, 2021), namely the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008), Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI) (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011), and the Three-Pillar Model (TPM) (Beddoes-Jones & Swailes, 2015). According to the results, the best instrument among the existing ones is TPM to assess intrapersonal competencies as it entirely ignores interpersonal ones. Since ALI relies on the same theoretical framework as ALQ (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011), both assess the same intrapersonal as well as interpersonal competencies. Of the items selected into instruments, ALI probably performed better than ALQ. The disadvantage of ALI and ALQ is that the theoretical framework they rely on does not include a component that describes the ability of leaders to control their actions. Therefore, existing instruments were adopted into the Estonian context and proved usable to some extent (Meerits *et al.*, 2021), but none of these instruments included all relevant AL competencies described in EALM. To cover all identified AL competencies described in EALM, an instrument was composed using items from existing instruments (see Meerits *et al.*, 2021). According to the results, the EALM instrument is suitable for assessing AL competencies in the Estonian context, especially in a homogeneous (i.e., in the same industry, for example, EDF) sample.

Analysis of the EDF first-level leaders' leadership competencies using the three-dimension model (**RQ2**) introduced previously revealed (see Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020b) that leadership competencies that are at a high level describe the ability to display themselves as role models (TF), emphasise group goals (TF), and punish with purpose (TA) (see Table 10). While most of the leadership competencies were at the medium level, at the low level were balanced decision-making (AL), transparent communication (AL), challenging subordinates intellectually (TF) and recognising their contribution (TA). Such shortcomings in competencies imply that first-level leaders do not effectively use their positional power (i.e.,

they tend to use more stick and no carrot). In addition, deficiencies in leadership competencies that rely on personal power reveal that the development of subordinates is rather a mechanical process where trainees are not involved. Moreover, the low level of the AL interpersonal competencies indicates that first-level leaders' contributions to creating a social network within the unit, which is the basis for trust and teamwork, is rather insufficient.

Table 10. EDF first-level leaders' leadership competencies level

Leadership dimension (approach)	Intrapersonal			Interpersonal			
	SA	SR	ER	BP	RT		
Relations (Authentic)	1	1	1	0	0		
Change (transformational)	AM	IV	HP	GG	PS	IS	
	2	1	1	2	1	0	
Task (transactional)				CP	NP	CR	NR
				2	0	0	1

Source: composed by the author based on Meerits & Kivipõld (2020b).

Note. 0 – Low, 1 – Medium, 2 – High, SA – Self-awareness, SR – Self-regulation, ER – Ethical Regulation, BP – Balanced processing, RT – Relational transparency, IV – Identifying and articulating vision, AM – Providing appropriate model, GG – Fostering acceptance of group goals, HP – High performance expectations, PS – Providing individualized support, IS – Intellectual stimulation; CR – Contingent reward behaviour, CP – Contingent punishment behaviour, NR – Non-contingent reward behaviour, NP – Non-contingent punishment behaviour.

Answers to RQ2 and RQ4 made it possible to select the proper instruments to assess leadership competencies in EDF. The level of first-level leaders' leadership competencies highlighted that, while their intrapersonal competency level indicates that leaders are to some extent able to understand and lead themselves, their interpersonal competency levels point out shortcomings in their leadership of unit members. From the task-oriented competencies which rely on positional power, only punitive behaviour is used, and positive influence from praise is ignored. The most critical among change-oriented competencies, related to development and motivation, is leaders' ability to challenge unit members' critical and innovative thinking. In addition, relations-oriented leadership competencies, the main actors for creating trust, and leaders' interpersonal competency levels do not support the development of social bonds. Considering that trust has been identified as an important element of unit and individual task-related outcomes (Ling *et al.*, 2017), critical leadership competencies are not used. Such results highlight the necessity of developing first-level leaders' leadership competencies more systematically.

4.3. The relationship of EDF first-level leaders' leadership competencies with unit effectiveness

During the conscription period, in addition to the soldiering abilities necessary to function individually in extreme contexts (i.e., surviving in battle and achieving objectives by fulfilling assigned positions and operating the necessary means efficiently), units are created as most tasks rely on collective contribution. Creating an effective unit which can function during the training period and in reserve duty requires leaders to understand, develop and shape conscripts' knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and understanding. Since formal leaders are central to unit effectiveness (Ensley *et al.*, 2006; Hannah, Walumbwa, *et al.*, 2011), there is a necessity to determine how and which leadership competencies are related to unit effectiveness.

Conscription focuses at the individual level on operating various equipment efficiently, and at the unit level on teamwork and taskwork. Such training also shapes conscripts' perceptions and attitudes towards EDF, and more broadly towards national defence, which are taken along to their following reserve duty. Consideration that conscription lasts for up to 11 months, and reserve duty about 40 years, reveals that conscription is a foundation where short-term (i.e., individuals are able to function efficiently as a unit to achieve an assigned mission) as well long-term unit effectiveness (i.e., individuals understand organisational long-term goals and are ready to fulfil their duty during their reserve service) are created.

In this thesis, unit effectiveness is seen through the lens of collectivistic leadership as this phenomenon describes influential processes at the collective level and not from the individual perspective (i.e., formal leader). The extent of collectivistic leadership in a unit was analysed with organisational leadership capability (OLC) (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010), an instrument which enables both short- and long-term effectiveness to be assessed.

Determining the relationship of first-level leaders' leadership competencies with short-term unit effectiveness (RQ5) revealed (see Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020a) that first-level leaders' competencies are only partially related to short-term unit effectiveness (see Table 11). The majority of TF and AL competencies have a strong positive relationship with CFS and OAC and a moderate relationship with AIN and EIC, except HP which had no relationship with either OLC factors. From TA competencies, only CR, similar to AL and TF competencies, has a strong positive relationship with OAC and CFS, but a moderate positive relationship with AIN and EC. CP has a moderate negative relationship with most OLC factors (except no relationship with EC).

Considering that the assessed units have existed for a limited time (7 weeks), this may imply that conscripts perceive that their leaders are related beforehand with the internal processes and regulations of the organisation to understand their role within the unit, supporting the argument from Contractor *et al.* (2012) that collectivistic leadership requires people in a unit to understand their roles in the unit, and need time to develop a social network between members. Since the unit is in the developmental phase, conscripts do not associate their leaders as strongly

with more complicated lateral network development as with the vertical relationship.

Analysis of the relationship of first-level leaders' leadership competencies with long-term unit effectiveness (**RQ6**) demonstrated that none of them had a relationship with long-term unit effectiveness (see Table 11). Such results may imply that, at the beginning, unit members are focused on establishing routine unit procedures and are not able to perceive the leader's effort in describing long-term goals.

Table 11. Leadership competency relationship with unit effectiveness

Leadership dimension (approach)	Leadership competencies	OAC	AIN	EC	CFS	IA_1	IA_2
Relations (AL)	SA	2	1	1	2	0	0
	SR	1	1	1	2	0	0
	ER	2	1	1	2	0	0
	BP	2	1	1	2	0	0
	RT	1	1	1	2	0	0
Change (TF)	IV	2	1	1	2	0	0
	AM	2	1	1	2	0	0
	GG	2	1	1	2	0	0
	HP	0	0	0	0	0	0
	PS	2	1	1	2	0	0
	IS	2	1	1	2	0	0
Task (TA)	CR	2	1	1	2	0	0
	CP	-1	-1	0	-1	0	0
	NR	1	0	0	1	0	0
	NP	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	0

Source: Compiled by the author based on Meerits & Kivipõld, (2020a).

Note: Relationship: 0 – none, 1 – moderate, 2 – strong. Minus (-) denotes negative relationships. AL – Authentic leadership, TF – Transformational leadership, TA – Transactional leadership, SA – Self-awareness, SR – Self-regulation, ER – Ethical Regulation, BP – Balanced processing, RT – Relational transparency, IV – Identifying and articulating vision, AM – Providing appropriate model, GG – Fostering acceptance of group goals, HP – High performance expectations, PS – Providing individualized support, IS – Intellectual stimulation; TA – Transactional leadership, CR – Contingent reward behaviour, CP – Contingent punishment behaviour, NR – Non-contingent reward behaviour, NP – Non-contingent punishment behaviour, OAC – Organisational alignment and cohesion, AIN – Architecture of internal network, EC – Extent of centralisation, CFS – Control-feedback system, IA_1 – Organisational cohesiveness (interaction), IA_2 – Collective ability to explain everyday activities within the strategic objectives of an organization (interaction).

From this it can be concluded that, although first-level leaders tend to rely on positional power by using task-related competencies, unit effectiveness is related to personal power employed through change- and relations- oriented competencies. The quality of relations-oriented behaviours may be most critical as trust has been identified as an important aspect in organisational effectiveness (Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2021). Also, those results may indicate that different observed factors of collectivistic leadership are not presented equally in the unit as they start to develop at a different pace, while at first a control-feedback system is established with unit processes and structures, creating a condition to understand how power is distributed and enabling involvement of the informal social network. As such a collaboration in unit level requires time (Mathieu, Kukenberger, D’Innocenzo, & Reilly, 2015), unit leaders must favour and nurture such behaviour. Although the absence of a relationship of first-level leaders’ leadership competencies with unit long-term effectiveness is an unexpected finding, it may be explained with Katz’s (1974) notion that first-level leaders are focused on task-related competencies and less attention is paid on competencies contributing at the conceptual level. Nevertheless, the strong relationship of unit effectiveness with leadership competencies, whose levels are rather modest among first-level leaders, implies that to increase long- and short-term unit effectiveness there is a necessity to develop leadership competencies systematically.

4.4. Study’s theoretical implications

This thesis contributes to leadership literature in three major aspects. First, this study proposes a leadership competency model which includes competencies from all main leadership dimensions: task, change and relations. Such a distinction enables emphasis of every dimension of relevant importance in different phases of extreme contexts. In addition, this thesis highlights the importance to distinguish between intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies, as the first enables to determine the extent of a leader’s ability to lead themselves, and the latter a leader’s ability to influence others, contributing to a more systematic approach to the leadership competency model.

Second, by analysing the fundamentals and outcomes of AL, this thesis proposes an extended AL model which includes both intrapersonal and interpersonal leadership competencies.

Third, while several studies discuss the hypothetical relationship between a leader’s leadership competencies and collectivistic leadership, this thesis displays empirical evidence of such a relationship. More precisely, the results of the thesis contribute to the theory by extending understanding of how first-level leaders’ leadership competencies are related to long-term and short-term effectiveness defined through collectivistic leadership.

4.5. Study's practical implications

From the theoretical perspective, organisational effectiveness and leadership are multifaceted constructs combining distinct, overlapping, and contradicting aspects, complicating understanding of what is relevant for specific conditions. The practical value of this thesis resides in systematising the leadership competency model for military leaders, emphasising leadership dependence on contextual factors through extreme contexts, and illustrating possibilities for determining unit effectiveness. Since the observed phenomena are complex, they also affect the results. The leadership competency model includes 15 competencies which can be divided into three dimensions, and at the same time they are either intra-personal or interpersonal. Unit effectiveness is assessed by an instrument which determines short-term effectiveness through three main factors, including two sub-factors, and long-term effectiveness is determined through the interaction of the main factors.

From the organisational perspective, the proposed leadership competency framework can be used as a basis of the leadership doctrine of the EDF, enabling all personnel similarly to understand the essence of the leadership, and applicability in practice, or to look at leadership competencies more deeply (see Säälik, Ermus, Männamaa, Toom, & Kasemaa, 2020). This framework enables composition of leadership development programmes that are more focused on audience needs and not generic “one size fits all” solutions. For example, it has been used on a leadership competency development programme for first-level military leaders⁷. Integrating this leadership competency framework also into the selection process allows one to determine the extent of leadership competencies from the beginning, which is valuable input for designing leadership development programs.

From an individual perspective, for those who want to develop their leadership competencies, the proposed leadership competency model includes TA to describe task-oriented, TF change-oriented, and AL relations-oriented behaviours. Despite the overlap between concepts, all of them focus on different aspects. From the detailed overview it can be concluded that TA contributes through setting standards and norms for completing the mission, TF through inspiration and motivation for the development of unit members, and AL through considerate and open communication for the creation of a trustful environment in a unit. To increase unit effectiveness, military leaders are required to be adaptive and employ the appropriate leadership competencies in accordance with contextual demands.

Study 1 showed that, while TF and TA competencies are not related and can be developed separately, AL competencies need to be developed as a set. Previous literature review supports May, Chan, Hodges, & Avolio's (2003) argument that AL is at the root of all leadership approaches as it incorporates elements that influence both the self and others. Therefore, AL competency development as a

⁷ Estonian Military Academy 05.02.2020 nr KVA-3.2.2-3/20/5304-1 in-service training curriculum TO20.05 „Juhtimispädevuste arendamine I“ (Development of leadership competencies 1).

set in practice means that in order to lead others leaders need at first to know how to lead themselves. Understanding and managing one's own (dis)abilities creates the foundation to become an effective leader and should be the first set of competencies every leader develops. Going by the AL competencies identified in study 2, it can be argued that a leader's development should start from the discovery of the self, one's own strengths and weaknesses, the values which guide actions, and possibilities to understand and control one's own emotions as those are the prerequisites for leading others.

Study 3's results (see Table 11) highlight changes that have occurred already in society, valuing and expecting more "soft" aspects from leadership. While unit effectiveness is related with task-related leadership competencies which rely on positional power, there exists a stronger relationship with the relations- and change-oriented leadership competencies which rely on personal power. Unit members probably perceive that the organisational environment is manifested in positional power, but effectiveness is achieved through the quality of social connections (i.e., trust) and development (i.e., motivation). Thus, to increase unit effectiveness, it is required to develop leaders' abilities to employ personal power.

Considering that, similarly to individual leadership competencies, collectivistic leadership in units can be increased through development (D'Innocenzo, Kukenberger, Farro, & Griffith, 2021) and strategic leadership is relevant at all leadership levels, not only the top-level (Antonakis & House, 2014), the thesis results enable the creation of a development programme which includes both short-term as well long-term goals of an organisation. Developing collectivistic leadership in units fosters collaboration between members, increases organisational effectiveness, and enables it to become a learning organisation (Ishimaru & Galloway, 2014) which ultimately contributes to organisational effectiveness.

4.6. Limitations and future research directions

There are some limitations to address. First, the extent of leadership competencies was assessed among first-level leaders of EDF, and the results are valid for this level of leader. They cannot be generalised to address the middle- or top-level leaders of the EDF. To identify the extent of leadership competencies and the differences between leadership levels, it is recommended to conduct additional studies in EDF among middle- and top-level leaders. Further research is required to determine the universality and broader applicability of the three-dimensional leadership model by including various military organisations, for example, different countries' armed forces or military organisations composed from professionals as well volunteers because of differences in organisational culture, purpose and structure may result in different results.

The second limitation is that the extent of leadership competencies in first-level military leaders was assessed by their subordinates only. There are studies (e.g., Sin, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2009) which have shown that, depending on perspective (e.g., leader vs subordinate), discrepancies exist in understanding

leadership behaviour; relying on one source may bias the results. It is recommended to include the leaders themselves, their superiors, and peers to obtain more objective results.

The third limitation is that an extended AL instrument was tested in EDF. Although it is suitable in the Estonian context and has shown stable results in another cultural and lingual context (see Akuffo & Kivipõld, 2020), the instrument's suitability for determining AL competencies in military leaders requires additional research. In addition, despite the promising result of EALM in Estonia and Ghana, further research is required to determine the uniqueness of the identified competencies (see Shaffer, DeGeest, & Li, 2016).

The fourth limitation regards the OLC. The low reliability of sub-factor (IC), which also affected main factor (AIN), may imply that some aspects assessed by this instrument are not applicable or relevant for this sample (i.e., conscripts). To determine if this instrument is too complicated to assess collectivistic leadership in EDF requires further research, including also professionals who have longer experience in units to determine its wider suitability. In addition, as this study was conducted 7 weeks after the formation of the unit, and several scholars have highlighted the importance of time for the development of such collective phenomena (e.g., Contractor *et al.*, 2012; Mathieu *et al.*, 2015), further research is required to determine how long is needed for such a phenomenon to emerge in the unit.

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SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN – KOKKUVÕTE

Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevused ja nende seos kollektiivse eestvedamise kui üksuse efektiivsusnäitajaga

Taust

Terminil *eestvedamine* (*leadership*) küll puudub ühtselt aktsepteeritav definitsioon, ent üldiselt mõistetakse seda kui protsessi, millega mõjutatakse teisi inimesi panustama nii individuaalselt kui ka kollektiivselt ühiste eesmärkide saavutamisse (Yukl, 2013, p. 7). Kuigi eestvedamist peetakse valdavalt juhtide⁸ pärusmaaks ja on n-ö ülalt-alla-mõjuga, siis on mõistetud, et alluvad mõjutavad samavõrra juhte, ning sellised mõjutusprotsessid toimuvad ka kollektiivsel tasandil. Sellest tulevalt on olemas suur hulk käsitusi, mis kirjeldavad eestvedamise efektiivsuse indikaatoreid. Senised uuringud kinnitavad, et olenemata tasandist (nt individuaalne, üksuse, organisatsiooni tasand) mõjutab eestvedamine inimeste hoiakuid, kognitiivseid ja materiaalsed tahke jm (vt Hiller *et al.*, 2011). Samas sõltub eestvedamise efektiivsus keskkonnast ja oludest (ülesande iseloom, üksuse suurus, organisatsiooni kultuur, füüsiline keskkond; vt Mannheim & Halamish, 2008). Seega tuleb eestvedamise efektiivsust hinnates mõista esmalt tingimusi, milles organisatsioon tegutseb, ning alles siis valida indikaatorid, millega määratleda eestvedamise efektiivsust.

Sõjaväelist konteksti iseloomustab kõrgendatud risk surra või saada vigastada, mis omakorda põhjustab suurenenud ärevustaset (Popper, 1996). Sellised olud iseloomustavad lahingutingimusi, aga neis tegutsemiseks valmistatakse üksuseid ette n-ö garnisonitingimustes, mis esitavad eestvedamisele teistsuguseid nõudmisi (Wong *et al.*, 2003). Ulmeri (1998) järgi aitab pädev sõjaväeline juht kaasa usalduse tekkele, selgitab alluvatele oma eesmärgid ja suurendab nende enesekindlust, loob toimiva meeskonna, on eeskujuks, säilitab lootuse ja ratsionaliseerib ohverduse. Ulmerile tuginedes saab välja tuua kaks sõjaväelisele juhtimisele iseloomulikku aspekti. Esiteks: sõjaväeline juhtimine on orienteeritud sooritusele. Viimast on rõhutanud ka Willink ja Babin (2017). Nende järgi määrab sõjaväelise juhtimise edukuse üksuse sooritus: kui ülesanne on täidetud, on juhtimine edukas, vastasel juhul mitte. Teiseks: juhid suudavad inimesi individuaalsel, üksuse ja

⁸ Mõistel *juht* on eesti keeles sõltuvalt kontekstist palju tähendusi. Samal moel võib tegusõna *juhtima* lisaks seadme käsitsemisele tähendada nii inimeste suunamist ehk eestvedamist (*leadership*) kui ka tegevuste korraldamist (*management*). Juhtimisega seotud mõisteid ja nende eestikeelseid vasteid on sõjaväelises kontekstis käsitlenud Ermus (2016). Käesolevas töös tähistab sõna *juht* inimest, kes korraldab inimkoosluse organiseeritud tegevust, ning tegusõna *juhtima* inimeste ja protsesside haldamist. Eestvedamist käsitatakse juhtimise osana, mis keskendub inimeste mõjutamisele. *Sõjaväeline juht* (*military leader*) tähistab relvajõudude formaalset juhti, Eesti kaitseväge kontekstis on *sõjaväelise juhi* sünonüüm *ülem*. Viimase tähendust käsitleb täpsemalt sisemäärustik (<https://mil.ee/wp-content/uploads/2020/02/Kaitsev%C3%A4e-sisem%C3%A4%C3%A4rustik.pdf>; 10.08.2021).

organisatsiooni tasandil mõjutada ainult piiratud ulatuses (Surace, 2019). Samas on ülesanded püstitatud tervele üksusele ja selle täitmine sõltub kõikide liikmete kollektiivsest panusest, mitte ainult juhust. Seega on vajalik välja selgitada, millised komponendid kirjeldavad sõjaväelist eestvedamist ja üksuse efektiivsust.

Sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamiskäitumise arendamiseks läbi viidud uuringud jagunevad vastavalt nende fookusele üldistatuna kaheks: isiksuspõhine ja pädevuspõhine lähenemine. Isiksuspõhine (*trait-based*) lähenemine keskendub peaaesjalikult inimeste püsiomadustele ning on oluline näiteks inimeste töölevõtmisel. Pädevuspõhise (*competencies-based*) lähenemise keskmes on ametikohale vajalike teadmiste, oskuste, hoiakute jt arendatavate omaduste ja võimete määramine ning arendamine. Kuigi eestvedamise edukus sõltub nii juhi isiksuseomadustest kui ka pädevustest, on viimased rohkem seotud üksuse sooritusega (Derue *et al.*, 2011). Samuti on need kergemini arendatavad. Olenemata asjaolust, et erinevate riikide relvajõud on välja töötanud mitmeid sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste mudelid, võib nende rakendamine teiste riikide relvajõududes olla raskendatud. Sellised mudelid on vältimatult kontekstuaalsed ja loodud vastavalt organisatsiooni eripärale. Näiteks tugineb Soome (vt Nissinen, 2001) ja Rootsi (vt Larsson *et al.*, 2003) sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamismudel ühel ja samal käsitlusel (Bass, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006), ent ometi on neil mudelitel märkimisväärsed erinevusi. Toodud näide rõhutab vajadust mõista just konkreetset organisatsiooni ja selle eripära.

Juhi oskustele ja pädevustele esitatavad nõudmised sõltuvad juhtimistasandist. Esmatasandi juhtidelt oodatakse organisatsiooni tegevuste korraldamist ja elluviimist olemasolevate võimaluste raames, kesktasandi juhtidelt organisatsiooni eesmärkide teisendamist tegevusteks ja tipptasandi juhtidelt organisatsiooni muutuste algatamist (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). Enamik uuringuid keskendub pigem tipptaseme juhtidele, sest nemad mõjutavad organisatsiooni efektiivsust ja tulemusi enim (DeChurch *et al.*, 2010). Ometi on ülesande täitmisel raskuspunkt esmatasandi juhtidel, kes lisaks organisatsiooni igapäevategevuste juhtimisele mõjutavad kollektiivi liikmeid ühiste eesmärkide saavutamise nimel. Seega on esmatasandi juhtide puhul lisaks tehnilistele, nn tugevatele (*task-related, hard*) pädevustele tähtsad ka mittetehnilised ehk nn pehmed (*soft*) pädevused, mis kirjeldavad võimet hallata nii enda kui ka teiste tegevusi ja emotsioone (Hurrell *et al.*, 2013). Samas on esmatasandi juhtidel eelduspäraselt kõige väiksem juhtimiskogemus ja nn pehmete pädevuste alatähtsustamine võib üksuse efektiivsust vähendada.

Mis tahes organisatsiooni ja selle osa efektiivsuse määratlemisel saab Yukl (2013) järgi eristada kaht liiki mõõdikuid: objektiivsed (nt käive, turuosakaal) ja subjektiivsed (nt asjaosaliste hoiakud ja taju). Kuivõrd objektiivsete mõõdikute rakendamine on sõjaväelistes organisatsioonides võrdlemisi piiratud, keskendutakse subjektiivsetele mõõdikutele. Enam uuritud aspekte on üksuse sidusus (Bartone *et al.*, 2002; Siebold, 2007) ja moraal (Britt & Dickinson, 2006; Gal, 1986). Nimetatud mõõdikud küll kirjeldavad individuaalset efektiivsust, aga ei selgita üksuse tasandil toimuvaid kollektiivseid protsesse.

Arvestades välja toodud kitsaskohti, on siinse uurimistöö üks ajendeid avardada arusaama sõjaväelisest eestvedamisest. Keskendutakse küsimusele, kuidas tingimused ja organisatsiooni vajadused määratlevad pädeva sõjaväelise juhi ja talle vajalikud eestvedamispädevused. Uuringu fookuses on esmatasandi sõjaväelised juhid, sest nemad on vahetult seotud üksuse juhtimisega. Selline valim võimaldab välja selgitada eestvedamispädevuste taseme ja nende seose üksuse efektiivsusega.

Eesti kaitsevägi kui uuringukeskkond

Eesti on üks väheseid riike, mille riigikaitse tugineb reservväele. Rahu ajal on Kaitseväes⁹ võrdlemisi väike arv tegevväelasi. Meessoost kodanikele vanuses 18–27 aastat on kohustuslik sõjaväelise väljaõppe läbimine ajateenistuses (kestusega kuni 12 kuud), naistel on võimalus läbida ajateenistus vabatahtlikkuse korras. Ajateenistusele järgneb reservteenistus, mis kestab kuni 60. eluaastani¹⁰. Kui ajateenistuse lühiajaline eesmärk on õpetada varustuse kasutamist ja ülesande täitmist, siis pikaajaline eesmärk on ette valmistada kodanikke, kes vajadusel kaitsevad riiki relvaga. Kuivõrd ajateenistus võib osalejatele olla füüsiliselt ja vaimselt kurnav, on riigikaitsevaldkonna inimressursi uurimiseks loodud Strateegilise Jätkusuutlikkuse Kompetentsikeskus¹¹, mille iga-aastane ajateenijate kompleksuuring¹² on osutanud muude probleemide kõrval ka puudujääkidele esmatasandi sõjaväeliste¹³ juhtide eestvedamisvõimel.

Ajateenijate sõjaväelise õppe korraldamine on esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide peamisi ülesandeid. See hõlmab ajateenijate teadmiste, oskuste, hoiakute ja muude võimete-omaduste arendamist. Lisaks võitlusvõimelise üksuse loomisele kujundatakse ajateenistuse käigus ka noorte arusaamu ja hoiakuid nii ajateenistuse, kodanikukohustuste täitmise kui ka laiemalt riigikaitsega seotus.

Enamiku esmatasandi juhtide kogemus üksuse juhtimisel on kuni viis aastat ja eestvedamiskäitumine on mõjutatud suuresti kogemusest, mis on saadud eelneva teenistuse käigus, ning teadmistest, mis on omandatud Kaitseväe Akadeemias

⁹ Täpsemalt on Kaitseväe toimimispõhimõtteid käsitletud Kaitseväe kodulehel (<https://mil.ee/kaitsevagi/uldinfo/>; 12.08.2021). Viitavana organisatsioonile kasutatakse siin ja edaspidi suurtähest, ametlikku nimekuju *Kaitsevägi*, kui on vaja rõhutada Eesti konteksti, siis nimetust *Eesti kaitsevägi*.

¹⁰ Ülal on kirjeldatud üldpõhimõtteid, ajateenistuse tingimusi reguleerib „Kaitseväeteenistuse seadus“ (<https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/108072021003>; 30.08.2021).

¹¹ Keskuse eesmärki ja ülesandeid vt <https://www.yti.ut.ee/et/strateegilise-jatkusuutlikkuse-kompetentsikeskus> (12.08.2021).

¹² Uuringute kokkuvõtted on leitavad aadressil <https://www.kvak.ee/kompleksuuring/> (12.08.2021).

¹³ Terminit *juht* kasutatakse, et kirjeldada juhtival positsioonil isikut kõige üldisemalt, *sõjaväeline juht* tähistab mistahes sõjaväelise organisatsiooni juhti, *esmatasandi sõjaväeline juht* viitab konkreetsele juhtimistasandile sõjaväelises organisatsioonis ja *Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeline juht* rõhutab seda, et kõneldakse vaid Eesti kaitseväe ülematest.

(ohvitseridel kolmeaastase ning vanemallohvitseridel üheaastase õppeaja jooksul). Kaitsevägi rajaneb oma tegevuses ülesandekeskse juhtimise põhimõttel, see omakorda tugineb inimesekesksele ja väärtuspõhisele juhtimisele. Siiski puuduvad ametlikud dokumendid, mis selgitaksid nende kontseptsioonide tähendust, mistõttu tõlgendatakse neid erinevalt. Kuivõrd ühtsed alused puuduvad, ei ole olnud võimalik ka määrata Kaitseväe juhtide eestvedamise kvaliteeti.

Nagu teiste riikide relvajõududeski, nii on ka Eesti kaitseväes uuritud eestvedamist, organisatsiooni ja üksuse sooritust ning nende omavahelisi seoseid. Valdavalt on neid teemasid käsitletud magistritööde raames. Näiteks on uuritud üksuse efektiivsuse hindamisvõimalusi (Kala, 2013), erinevate efektiivsusnäitajate (nt töölt lahkumise soov, tööga rahulolu, pühendumus) omavahelisi seoseid (Luide, 2016), reservrühmaülema pädevusi (Karileet, 2017), isiksuseomaduste seost edukusega edasises teenistuses sõjaväelise juhina (Kukk, 2014; Veski, 2011), sõjaväeliste juhtide käitumise seost alluvate motivatsiooniga (Vuntus, 2012) ja eestvedamise efektiivsusega (Allika, 2020). Välja on töötatud instrumente ja uuritud efektiivsusnäitajaid, nagu üksuse sidusus (Meerits, 2012) ja sõjaväeline moraal (Kasemaa & Säälik, 2021), ent seni ei ole uuritud esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste taset ning seda, kuidas need on seotud üksuse efektiivsusega.

Uurimistöö eesmärk

Uurimistöö eesmärk on välja selgitada sõjaväelise eestvedamise iseloomulikud tunnused, sõjaväelisele juhile vajalikud eestvedamispädevused ning nende pädevuste seos üksuse efektiivsusega.

Uurimistöö uudsus

Esimene uuring (Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020b) toob välja, et sõjaväeline eestvedamine on mitmesuunaline mõjutusprotsess, mille efektiivsus sõltub juhi eestvedamispädevustest. Uuringus pakutakse välja esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste raamistik (*framework*). See hõlmab universaalsete eestvedamispädevuste kõiki mõõtmeid: ülesandele orienteeritus (*task oriented*), arengule orienteeritus (*change oriented*) ja suhetele orienteeritus (*relations oriented*; Derue *et al.*, 2011; Yukl, 2008). Ülesandele orienteeritud eestvedamispädevusi esindab pragmaatiline eestvedamine (*transactional leadership*; TA), arengule orienteeritud pädevusi ümberkujundav eestvedamine (*transformational leadership*; TF) ja suhetele orienteeritud pädevusi autentne eestvedamine (*authentic leadership*; AL). Lisaks eestvedamise peamistele mõõtmetele eristuvad ka enesekohased (*intrapersonal*) ja inimestevahelised (*interpersonal*) eestvedamispädevused. Kui esimene kirjeldab iseendaga seotud protsesse, siis teine on seotud ülema ja alluvavahelise dünaamikaga (Epitropaki *et al.*, 2017). Arendamise seisukohast on esimene suunatud juhi enda ja teine eestvedamiskäitumise arengule

(Day *et al.*, 2014). Esimese uuringu tulemused toovad välja, et eestvedamis-pädevused on omavahel seotud. Seda asjaolu on oluline arvestada eestvedamis-pädevuste arendamist planeerides. Kõnealune uuring on esimene, milles uuritakse Kaitseväge esmatasandi juhtide eestvedamispädevuste taset.

Teine uuring panustab erialasesse kirjandusse ning analüüsib ALi olemust ja seda iseloomustavaid pädevusi. Eelnevate uuringute põhjal pakutakse välja laiendatud eestvedamispädevuste mudel, milles on esindatud nii enesekohased kui ka inimestevahelised ALi pädevused. Senistel ALi käsitlustel on mitmeid puudusi. Näiteks ignoreerib Beddoes-Jonesi ja Swailesi (2015) mudel täiesti inimestevahelisi ALi pädevusi, Walumbwa *et al.* (2008) mudelis puudub eneseregulatsiooni aspekt: enesekohane ALi pädevus, mis on eriti oluline äärmuslikes tingimustes. Kõnealusel uuringus testitakse ja kohandatakse Eesti oludega olemasolevaid ALi instrumente: Walumbwa *et al.* (2008) koostatud instrument („Authentic Leadership Questionnaire“, ALQ), Neideri ja Schriesheimi (2011) instrument („Authentic Leadership Inventory“, ALI) ning Beddoes-Jonesi ja Swailesi (2015) instrument („Three-Pillar Model“, TPM). Lisaks töötatakse välja instrument, mis võimaldab hinnata kõiki laiendatud ALi mudelis sisalduvaid sõjaväeliste juhtide enesekohaseid ja inimestevahelisi eestvedamispädevusi.

Kolmas uuring (Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020a) analüüsib seoseid sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste ja üksuse efektiivsuse vahel. Varasemates uurin-gutes on kasutatud eestvedamise üksikuid mõõtmeid, eestvedamise kõigi pea-miste mõõtmete kaasamine on uuringu autorite andmeil esmakordne. Sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste hindamisel lähtuti esimeses uuringus väljatöötatud raamistikust ja selles kasutatud instrumentidest. Üksuse efektiivsuse määramisel lähtuti kollektiivse eestvedamise teooriast ja hinnati esinemist organisatsioonilise eestvedamisvõime instrumendiga (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010). Nimetatud instru-menti ei ole sõjaväelises keskkonnas seni kasutatud, samuti puuduvad varasemad uuringud, mis kirjeldaksid seost organisatsioonilise eestvedamisvõime ja eest-vedamispädevuste vahel.

Kirjanduse ülevaade

Organisatsioone võib liigitada mitmel moel, näiteks lähtudes eesmärkidest, vald-konnast või tegutsemiskeskonnast. Osa organisatsioone on loodud tegutsema **äärmuslikes tingimustes** (*extreme context*). Hannah *et al.* (2009, p. 898) ise-loomustavad selliseid tingimusi kui keskkonda, milles toimuvad või hakkavad suure tõenäosusega toimuma äärmuslikud sündmused, mis võivad ületada orga-nisatsiooni võime seda ennetada ning põhjustada ulatuslikku füüsilist, psühho-loogilist või materiaalselt kahju organisatsiooni liikmetele. Sellist keskkonda võib kirjeldada kui surmaga silmitsi seismist (Kolditz, 2005, p. 6). Taolistes oludes tegutsevad näiteks päästeametnikud ja meditsiinipersonal õnnetuspaigal, politseinikud väljakutsel ja sõjaväelased lahinguväljal.

Kui eestvedamine ei pruugi olla eluliselt tähtis tulemuste saavutamiseks orga-nisatsioonides, mis ei tegutse äärmuslikes tingimustes (Alvesson, 2019a), siis

äärmuslike tingimustega keskkonnas on eestvedamine ülesande täitmise seisukohast hädavajalik (Mumford *et al.*, 2007; Yammarino *et al.*, 2010). **Eestvedamist äärmuslikes tingimustes** saab mõista kui kohanduvaid (*adaptive*) protsesse, millega mõjutatakse teisi mõistma ja nõustuma sellega, mida ja kuidas on vaja teha, hõlbustades sel moel individuaalset ja kollektiivset pingutust ühiste eesmärkide saavutamisel (Hannah *et al.*, 2009). Eespool toodud elukutsete näited tõstavad esile, et olenemata äärmusliku sündmuse kestusest või ulatusest tegutsetakse äärmuslikes tingimustes piiratud aeg. Morgeson *et al.* (2010) eristavad äärmuslikes tingimustes toimival eestvedamisel üleminekuetappi (*transition phase*), milles valmistatakse ette ressursse, ja tegevusetappi (*action phase*), mille keskmes on üksuse tegevuse koordineerimine ülesande täitmisel. Äärmuslik sündmus ei alga ega lõpe juhi jaoks tegevusetapiga. Öeldud ilmestavad juhi tegevused äärmuslikes tingimustes (ettevalmistamine, mõtestamine (*sensemaking*), otsustamine, eesmärgistamine (*meaning-making*), lõpuleviimine, arvestuse pidamine ja õppimine; Stern, 2017). Sobilikum on eristada sellistes oludes toimival eestvedamisel kolme etappi: ettevalmistamis-, tegutsemis- ja taastumisetapp. Need etapid esitavad juhtidele erinevaid nõudmisi. Äärmuslikes tingimustes ei taga edu kindel eestvedamiskäitumine. Pigem peab juht olema kohanemisvõimeline ja valima sobivaima eestvedamiskäitumise, arvestades keskkonda, organisatsiooni suutlikkust, isikkoosseisu ja inimeste mõjutamisvõimalusi.

Sõjaväelises eestvedamises esineb palju vasturääkivusi (Kark *et al.*, 2016). Näiteks nõutakse sõjaväelistelt juhtidelt distsipliini järgimist ja käsu täitmist, kuid samal ajal oodatakse neilt ka innovaatilisust ja valmidust võimu delegeerida. Lisaks: kui defineerida sõjaväelist eestvedamist lahingujuhtimise (*combat leadership*) vaatenurgast, siis toimimisviis, mis on asjakohane äärmusliku sündmuse ajal tekkinud olukordades toimetulekuks, ei pruugi olla sobilik väljaspool vahetat lahingutegevust (Kark *et al.*, 2016). Siin on põhjuseks asjaolu, et lahingujuhtimisel tuleb keskenduda tegevusetapile ja selle raames lühiajaliste eesmärkide saavutamisele, samas kui eelnev ja järgnev etapp on suunatud pikaajaliste eesmärkide täitmisele. Braun *et al.* (2016) toovad välja, et eestvedamise selline kompleksus nõuab sõjaväelistelt juhtidelt kohanemisvõimet, sihikindlust, vasturääkivuste arvestamist, tuginemist väärtustele, panustamist tulevikule ja vastutuse jagamist. Kuigi sõjaväelised organisatsioonid väärtustavad rohkem ülesandele suunatud ehk nn tugevaid pädevusi (Laurence, 2011), mõjutatakse alluvaid just mitmetehniliste ehk pehmete pädevuste kaudu. Seega saab efektiivseks sõjaväeliseks eestvedamiseks pidada juhi võimet kasutada ühtaegu nii positsioonist tulenevat kui ka isiksustest johtuvat mõjuvõimu (*positional and personal power*; vt French & Raven, 1959; Rahim, 1988; Yukl, 2013), samuti paindlikkust valida vastavalt olukorrale ja ülesandele sobilik eestvedamiskäitumine (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000).

Yukl *et al.* (2002) on välja toonud, et lähtudes peamistest eesmärkidest saab eestvedamiskäitumisel eristada kolme mõõdet: ülesandele suunatud (*task-oriented*) käitumine hõlmab inimeste ja ressursside tõhusat kasutamist, suhetele suunatud (*relations-oriented*) käitumine usaldusliku keskkonna loomist ning arengule suunatud (*change-oriented*) käitumine kohanemist väliste protsessidega ja innovaatilisust. **Ülesande mõõde** keskendub lühiajalistele eesmärkidele, keskendudes

sooritusele esitatavatele nõuetele ja ootuste selgele sõnastamisele (Borgmann *et al.*, 2016; Yukl, 2008). Nimetatud mõõdet iseloomustab käskiv ja suunav käitumine, autokraatlik suhtumine ning alluvate väljajätmine otsustusprotsessist (Yukl, 2013). **Suhete mõõtme** keskmes on juhi võime mõista enda käitumisviisi mõju ümbritsevatele isikutele (Langeveld *et al.*, 2012). Nimetatud mõõtmele on omane suunatus suhetele ja sotsiaalsusele, mis loob üksuse sotsiaalse võrgustiku tekkimiseks soodsa keskkonna. See omakorda tugineb juhi moraalsele/väärtuspõhisele käitumisele nii, et tema hoiakud ja arusaamad õigest ja valest, eetilisest ja ebaeetilisest laienevad sotsiaalse lävimise teel teistele (Szabo *et al.*, 2001). **Arengu mõõtme** keskmes on juhi võime mõista alluvate pädevust ja võimet täita ülesanne nii individuaalselt kui ka kollektiivselt (Yukl, 2013). See mõõde hõlmab juhi delegeerivat ja kaasavat käitumist ning võimet anda alluvatele otsustamiseks võimu ja vastutust. Kui juhi arusaam alluvate võimetest tugineb üksuse väärtustele ja sotsiaalse võrgustiku tugevusele, siis alluva pädevus sõltub juhi arendava/parendava käitumise määra: sellest, kas juht toetab alluvate oskuste ja aitab suurendada nende enesekindlust (Yukl, 2012).

Arvestades eestvedamise mõõtmeid ja äärmuslikes tingimustes asetleidvale eestvedamisele püstitatavaid nõudeid erinevates etappides, saab väita, et tegevusetapp eeldab enam ülesandele suunatust ning vähem oluline on arengule ja suhetele suunatud käitumisviis. Edukas tegevusetapis sõltub aga eelnenud etapist, kus lisaks enda ja alluvate võimete tundmisele ja arendamisele luuakse usalduslik keskkond meeskonnana tegutsemiseks. Kuivõrd iga tegevus nõuab ressursse, siis on järgmises, taastumisetapis esiplaanil sotsiaalne toetus, et ennistada üksuse liikmete vaimne ja füüsiline suutvus. Samas ei saa alahinnata ka tegevusjärgset analüüsi, mille käigus selgitatakse välja arendamist vajavad aspektid, et olla järgmiste ülesannete täitmisel senisest edukam. Võttes arvesse eestvedamise mõõtmeid ja neid iseloomustavaid käitumisviise, saab sõjaväelises eestvedamises eristada järgmisi aspekte: sotsiaalne/suhetele suunatud, moraalne/väärtuspõhine, käskiv/suunav, delegeeriv/kaasav ja arendav/tõhustav aspekt.

Sotsiaalse/suhetele suunatud käitumise uurimine on olnud keskmes nii juhi-töötaja vastasmõju käsitustes (*leader-member exchange*; vt Byun *et al.*, 2017; Volmer *et al.*, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2017) kui ka autentse eestvedamise uurimisel (vt Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner *et al.*, 2005; Ilies *et al.*, 2005). Moraalne/väärtuspõhine käitumine on olnud fookuses autentse ja eetilise eestvedamise teooriates (vt Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown *et al.*, 2005; Sama & Shoaf, 2008). Arendavat/tõhustavat käitumist on käsitlenud teenindav (*servant*; vt Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden *et al.*, 2008; Russell & Stone, 2002), võimustav (*empowering*; vt Ahearne *et al.*, 2005; Alotaibi *et al.*, 2020; Carless, 2004) ja ümberkujundav (vt Bass *et al.*, 2003; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004) eestvedamisteooria. Delegeeriv/kaasav käitumisviis on fookuses teenindaval, võimustaval, ümberkujundaval ja osaleval (*participative*; vt Chen & Tjosvold, 2006; Somech, 2005; Spreitzer, 1995) eestvedamiskäsitusel. Käskiv/suunav käitumisviis on keskmes osalevas, karismaatilises (vt Antonakis *et al.*, 2016; Grabo & van Vugt, 2016; Sy *et al.*, 2018) ja pragmaatilises (vt Bass, 1990; Goodwin *et al.*, 2001; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1984) eestvedamisteoorias.

Kuigi nimetatud käsitustel on põhimõttelisi erinevusi, esineb neil ometi märkimisväärsed kattuvusi, samuti on neil oma tugevad ja nõrgad kohad. Näiteks on palju ühist teenindaval ja ümberkujundaval (vt Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015) ning autentsel, teenindaval ja eetilisel (vt Lemoine *et al.*, 2019; Ling *et al.*, 2017) eestvedamisel. Sarnasus on nii mõjumehhanismides kui ka eesmärkides. Arvestades kirjeldatud eestvedamiskäsituste fookust, omavahelist kattuvust, nende tugevusi ja nõrkusi ning suhestumist eestvedamise mõõtmetega, saab väita, et efektiivne sõjaväeline eestvedamine hõlmab pragmaatilist, ümberkujundavat ja autentset eestvedamist. Käitumine tugineb pädevustel (Moore *et al.*, 2002), mis on kombinatsioon teadmistest, oskust ja võimetest (Markman, 2007; Müller & Turner, 2010) ning mis on vajalikud efektiivseks tegutsemiseks konkreetsel ametikohal (Shet *et al.*, 2019). Kuivõrd eestvedamispädevused on kogum teadmisi, oskusi ja võimeid, mis on juhi rolli efektiivse täitmise eelduseks (Kragt & Day, 2020), võimaldab pädevuspõhine lähenemine määratleda ja kirjeldada efektiivset eestvedamist (Hollenbeck *et al.*, 2006).

Sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste hindamiseks on vajalik otsarbekate instrumentide olemasolu. Ümberkujundava (TF) ja pragmaatilise (TA) eestvedamise pädevusi on põhjalikult uuritud ning nende mõõtmiseks on välja töötatud mitmeid instrumente. TA pädevuste hindamiseks on instrumendi loonud Podsakoff *et al.* (1984), TFi pädevuste hindamiseks saab kasutada nii Podsakoffi *et al.* (1990), Edwardsi *et al.* (2010), Carlessi *et al.* (2000) kui ka Rafferty ja Griffini (2004) loodud instrumenti. Tõenäoliselt on kõige tuntum Bassi instrument („Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire“; vt Bass, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006), millega on võimalik hinnata korraga TA ja TFi pädevusi. Siinses töös arvestati sobivaima instrumendi valikul mitmete parameetritega (kättesaadavus ja autorsus, hinnatavad pädevused, instrumentide statistilised tulemused) lisaks nende mõõtmistõhususele erinevates valdkondades (nt Deinert *et al.*, 2015; Young *et al.*, 2021) ning Eestis (nt Kasemaa, 2015; Kasemaa *et al.*, 2016; Kasemaa & Suviste, 2020; Meerits *et al.*, 2015). Tulemuste põhjal valiti sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste hindamiseks järgmised instrumendid.

TA pädevusi hinnati Podsakoffi *et al.* (1984) koostatud instrumendiga, mis eristab järgmisi eestvedamispädevusi: tingimuslikult tunnustav (*contingent reward behaviour*; CR), tingimuslikult karistav (*contingent punishment behaviour*; CP), alusetult tunnustav (*non-contingent reward behaviour*; NR) ja alusetult karistav (*non-contingent punishment behaviour*; NP) käitumine.

TFi pädevuste hindamiseks kasutati Podsakoffi *et al.* (1990) loodud instrumenti, mis eristab järgmisi eestvedamispädevusi: sobiva eeskuju näitamine (*providing an appropriate model*; AM), visiooni tuvastamine ja sõnastamine (*identifying and articulating vision*; IV), intellektuaalne stimuleerimine (*intellectual stimulation*; IS), personaalse toe pakkumine (*providing individualized support*; PS), ühiste eesmärkide tähtsustamine (*fostering acceptance of group goals*; GG) ja sooritusele kõrgete ootuste seadmine (*high performance expectations*; HP).

Autentse eestvedamise (AL), sh nii enesekohaste kui ka inimestevaheliste pädevuste hindamiseks saab kasutada Walumbwa *et al.* (2008) ning Neideri ja

Schriesheimi (2011) instrumenti. Siiski on nimetatud käsitlused pälvinud palju kriitikat (vt nt Alvesson, 2019b; Alvesson & Einola, 2019; Cooper *et al.*, 2005; Tomkins & Nicholds, 2017). Beddoes-Jonesi ja Swailesi (2015) instrument hindab aga ainult enesekohaseid eestvedamispädevusi. Seega on ALi pädevuste hindamiseks vaja välja töötada instrument, milles on esindatud kõik tähtsamad enesekohased ja inimestevahelised ALi pädevused.

Üksuse efektiivsuse määramiseks kasutati organisatsioonilise eestvedamisvõime käsitlust. Üldiselt käsitatakse **sõjalist efektiivsust** (*military effectiveness*) olemasolevate vahendite kvaliteedi, riigikorralduse tüübi, tsiviil-militaarkoostöö ulatuse, kultuuri ning üldise majandustaseme kombinatsioonina (Beckley, 2010; Biddle & Long, 2004). Need näitajad sobivad kirjeldama siiski pigem efektiivust riigi või relvajõudude tasemel (Grauer & Quackenbush, 2021), sellal kui üksuse puhul on kõige olulisemad mittemateriaalsed tegurid (Biddle & Long, 2004). Üksuse tasandil on sõjaväelistes organisatsioonides tavaline mõõdik **lahingutõhusus** (*combat effectiveness*). Lihtsustatult öeldes kirjeldab see võimet vähendada vastaspoole võitlusvõimet ise ellu jäädes (Brathwaite, 2018; McNabb Cochran & Long, 2017). Lahingutõhususe mõõdikuna kasutamise puuduseks on selle ajutine iseloom ja sõltuvus erinevatest faktoritest (AAP-06, 2020), samuti keskendumine konkreetse ülesande täitmisele, arvestamata organisatsiooni eesmärke.

Organisatsioonilist efektiivsust (*organisational effectiveness*) saab käsitada kui saavutuste määra, mis suurendab osalejate rahulolu, võimaldab organisatsiooni pikaajalist toimimist ning jätkusuutlikkust, mida hinnatakse majanduslike, töökorralduslike, struktuuriliste ja hoiakute või käitumuslike aspektide taustal (Sharma & Singh, 2019). **Üksuse efektiivsus** (*unit effectiveness*) on väliste ja sisemiste protsesside dünaamikast mõjutatud käitumisviiside, hoiakute ja tajude kogum (Salas *et al.*, 2008), ning kus kõige olulisemad on mittemateriaalsed muutujad (Biddle & Long, 2004). Seega määratleb üksuse efektiivsuse **üksuse sooritus** (*unit performance*; vt Gilson *et al.*, 2005; Motowidlo *et al.*, 1997): kogum üksuse liikmete individuaalsetest ja kollektiivsetest sisenditest (Rousseau *et al.*, 2006), mille kvaliteeti saab hinnata erinevate subjektiivsete ja objektiivsete indikaatoritega (Zaccaro *et al.*, 2008).

Seega sõltub üksuse soorituse kvaliteet selle liikmete **ülesandesooritusest** (*task performance*), mis kirjeldab efektiivsust tööga seotud tegevuste elluviimisel, ning **kontekstuaalsest sooritusest** (*contextual performance*), mis loob psühholoogilise, sotsiaalse ja organisatsioonilise keskkonna ning toimib ülesandega seotud protsesside kiirendina (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo *et al.*, 1997). Ülesandesooritust on seostatud konkreetse ametiga, mistõttu on see objektiivsete mõõdikute abil võrdlemisi kergelt hinnatav. Kontekstuaalset sooritust saab selle iseloomust tingituna määrata subjektiivsete mõõdikute kaudu, näiteks tööle pühendumine (Grojean & Thomas, 2006), moraal (Britt *et al.*, 2007), sidusus (Park *et al.*, 2017), organisatsiooni kodanikuna käitumine (*organizational citizenship behaviour*) ja kollektiivne eestvedamine (*collectivistic leadership*; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Kuigi kõik nimetatud mõõdikud suudavad hinnata kontekstuaalse soorituse erinevaid aspekte, siis vähesed eestvedamist kollektiivsel

tasandil, mis Shuffler *et al.* (2012) järgi on sõjaväelise üksuse efektiivsuse võtme-tähtsusega element.

Kollektiivset eestvedamist¹⁴ mõistetakse kui organisatsioonisisest dünaamilist mõjutusprotsessi, mis hõlmab ametlike ja mitteametlike juhtide võrgustikku. Juhid jagavad üksteisega oma rolli ja vastutust vastavalt enda asjatundlikkusele ning võimele reageerida olukorrale ja lahendada tekkinud probleeme, olles samal ajal nii juhid kui ka järgijad. (Carson *et al.*, 2007; Friedrich *et al.*, 2009; Hiller *et al.*, 2006; Song & Gu, 2020; Yammarino *et al.*, 2012) Teisisõnu: kollektiivne eestvedamine on esilduv (*emerging*; D’Innocenzo *et al.*, 2016) ja kompleksne suhete võrgustik (Carter *et al.*, 2015), kus eestvedamine on ühtaegu jagatud (liikmetel on vastastikune mõju üksteise üle) ja jaotunud (eestvedamine ei ole seotud üksikindiviididega, vaid seda nähakse tegevusena organisatsiooni erinevate osade vahel; Ospina *et al.*, 2020). Organisatsioon ise koos talle omaste tunnustega (kultuur, struktuur) loob raamistiku sellele, kuidas tema liikmed omavahel suhtlevad (Friedrich *et al.*, 2009; Schein, 2004).

On mitmeid uurimusi, mis avavad kollektiivse eestvedamise tahke. Seda nähtust on vaadeldud näiteks ühises (*collective*; Friedrich *et al.*, 2009), jagatud (*shared*; Carson *et al.*, 2007), jaotunud (*distributed*; Spillane *et al.*, 2004), võrgustatud (*leadership in networks*; Carter *et al.*, 2015), meeskondlikus (*team*; Burke *et al.*, 2006) ja komplekses (*complexity*; Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2007) ning organisatsioonilise eestvedamisvõime käsitluses (*organisational leadership capability*; Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010).

Hoolimata käsitluste paljususest on vähe uuringuid, mis keskenduksid kollektiivsele eestvedamisele sõjaväelises üksuses. Sõjaväelistes organisatsioonides läbi viidud uuringutes on valdavalt kasutatud kvalitatiivseid meetodeid (Cakiroglu *et al.*, 2020; Friedrich *et al.*, 2014; Ramthun & Matkin, 2014). Ainuke kvantitatiivsete andmete analüüsi võimaldav instrument (Yammarino *et al.*, 2014) on välja töötatud kindla organisatsiooni nõudmistele ja reeglitele tuginedes ega ole otse ülevõetav. Väljaspool sõjaväelisi organisatsioone on kasutuses erinevatele aspektidele keskenduvaid instrumente. Näiteks vaatlevad Pearce ja Sims (2002) üksikisiku käitumist kollektiivsest vaatenurgast, Friedrich *et al.* (2016) keskenduvad kollektiivse eestvedamise tahkudele, nagu võrgustiku arendamine, kommunikatsioon ja juhi-üksuse vahetus. Kivipõllu ja Vadi (2010) organisatsioonilise eestvedamisvõime mõõtmise instrument kirjeldab organisatsioonilist efektiivsust kollektiivsel tasandil esilekerkivate suhete, seosete, organisatsioonisiseste protsesside ja eestvedamise dünaamiliste aspektide kaudu (Kivipõld *et al.*, 2020). Arvestades sõjaväelise üksuse efektiivsuse olemust, selle seotust organisatsioonilise efektiivsuse ja lahinguvõimega, on viimati nimetatud instrument siinses kontekstis sobilik.

¹⁴ Siinses uurimistöös on *kollektiivne eestvedamine* katustermin ega tähistä ühtegi konkreetset eestvedamiskäsitlust.

Organisatsiooniline eestvedamisvõime (*organisational leadership capability*; OLC) on kombinatsioon omavahel seotud struktuuridest, süsteemidest ja protsessidest, mis on salvestunud organisatsiooni terviksüsteemi (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010) ja kus erinevate toimijate vastasmõju loob süsteemile tervikuna uue käitumisviisi (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001). Süsteemi kui terviku kohanemis- ja õppimisvõime ning avatus uuendustele (Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2006) on näitaja, mis kirjeldab organisatsiooni suutlikkust tulla toime muutustega ja areneda mitte-lineaarsetes, kaootilistes tingimustes (Schneider & Somers, 2006).

OLCis eristatakse kahte tahku: organisatsiooni orienteeritust (kollektiivne panustamine ühise, kõrgema juhtimistasandi eesmärgi nimel) ja adapteerumisvõimet (kollektiivsed protsessid, mis aitavad organisatsioonil kohaneda väliskeskonna dünaamikaga). Organisatsiooni orienteeritust kirjeldav faktor on väline fookus ja sisemine kontekst (*organisational alignment and cohesion*; OAC). Organisatsiooni adapteerumisvõimet kirjeldavad faktorid on kontrolli-tagasiside süsteem (*control-feedback system*; CFS) ja organisatsioonisisene koostöövõrgustik (*architecture of the internal network*; AIN). Neist viimane koosneb omakorda kahest alamfaktorist: tsentraliseerituse määr (*extent of centralisation*; EC) ja mitteformaalne kommunikatsioon (*informal communication*; IC). (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010)

Kui eespool nimetatud faktorid kirjeldavad lühiajalist efektiivsust, siis pikaajaline efektiivsus määratakse nende faktorite vastasmõju kaudu: OAC ja AINI vastasmõju määrab organisatsioonilise sidususe ning OAC ja CFSi vastasmõju kollektiivse suutlikkuse tõlgendada igapäevaseid tegevusi strateegiliste eesmärkide raames (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010). Seega võimaldab kõnealune instrument kirjeldada nii sotsiaalseid kui ka kognitiivseid aspekte ning hõlmata organisatsiooni lühi- ja pikaajalisi eesmärke.

Uurimisküsimused

Kirjanduse ülevaatest ilmneb, et (sõjaväelise) üksuse efektiivsus äärmuslikes tingimustes on kollektiivne nähtus. Üksuse efektiivsust mõjutavad sõjaväelised juhid, kellelt eeldatakse kõrgetasemelisi eestvedamispädevusi. Eestvedamispädevuste arendamiseks tuleb esmalt välja selgitada, millised on esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide esmatähtsad eestvedamispädevused ja hinnata nende hetketaset. Arvestades juhi käitumise mõju üksuse efektiivsusele ning organisatsiooni eripärasid ja tegutsemistingimusi, on vajalik välja selgitada, kuidas on eestvedamispädevused seotud kollektiivse eestvedamise kui üksuse efektiivsuse näitajaga. Tabelis 1 on esitatud töö uurimisküsimused.

Tabel 1. Uurimisküsimused

UK nr	Uurimisküsimus	Vastatud
UK1	Kuidas mõistetakse sõjaväelist eestvedamist ja millised on sõjaväeliste juhtide esmatähtsad eestvedamispädevused?	1. ja 2. uuring
UK2	Millisel tasemel on Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevused?	1. uuring
UK3	Milline teoreetiline raamistik on sobilik sõjaväeliste juhtide autentse eestvedamise pädevuste mõõtmiseks?	2. uuring
UK4	Milline instrument on Kaitseväe kontekstis kõige sobilikum autentse eestvedamise pädevuste mõõtmiseks?	1. ja 2. uuring
UK5	Kuidas on Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevused seotud üksuse lühiajalise efektiivsusega?	3. uuring
UK6	Kuidas on Kaitseväes esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevused seotud üksuse pikaajalise efektiivsusega?	3. uuring

Allikas: autori koostatud

Metoodika

Uurimistöö empiiriline osa uurib Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevusi ja nende seoseid kollektiivse eestvedamise kui üksuse efektiivsuse näitajaga. Uurimisküsimustele vastati kahes etapis. Esimeses etapis ehk esimeses ja teises uuringus loodi teoreetiline raamistik, milles käsitleti sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevusi, ning valiti eestvedamispädevuste mõõtmiseks sobivad instrumendid. Teises etapis ehk kolmandas uuringus keskenduti eestvedamispädevuste seostele üksuse kollektiivse eestvedamise kui efektiivsuse näitajaga. Esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste taset määrasid kõikides uuringutes nende alluvad, kes hindasid suletud väiteid fikseeritud skaalal. Vastajaid informeeriti uuringu eesmärkidest, selgitati osalemise vabatahtlikkust ning anonüümsust. Kogutud statistilisi andmeid analüüsiti programmidega IBM SPSS 25 ja AMOS 25. Analüüsis kasutades läbivalt samu piirväärtusi (*benchmark*).

Esimese uuringu (Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020b) eesmärk oli selgitada välja esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide esmatähtsad eestvedamispädevused (UK1). Analüüsiti Ameerika Ühendriikide maaväe (*Army Leadership and the Profession*, 2019) ning Suurbritannia (*Developing Leaders: A British Army Guide*, 2014), Kanada (*Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Doctrine*, 2005), Iiri (*Defence Forces Leadership Doctrine*, 2016), Rootsi (Larsson *et al.*, 2003) ja Soome (Nissinen, 2001) relvajõudude eestvedamisdokumente. Nendes kirjeldatud pädevused grupeeriti vastavalt peamistele eestvedamismõõtmetele (ülesanne, areng ja suhted). Selline teoreetiline raamistik võimaldas valida sobilikud instrumendid, millega eestvedamispädevusi hinnata.

Ülesande mõõdet esindava pragmaatilise eestvedamise (TA) pädevusi hinnati Podsakoffi *et al.* (1984) koostatud instrumendiga ning arengu mõõdet esindava ümberkujundava eestvedamise (TF) pädevuste hindamiseks kasutati Podsakoffi *et al.* (1990) loodud instrumenti. Mõlemad on eesti keelde kohandanud Kasemaa *et al.* (2016). Suhte mõõdet esindava autentse eestvedamise (AL) pädevusi hinnati teises uuringus loodud instrumendiga.

Eesti kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste taseme määramiseks (UK2) viidi läbi uuring Kaitseväe erinevates üksustes. Valim koosnes esmatasandi sõjaväelistest juhtidest (AL puhul $N = 40$, TF ja TA puhul $N = 49$). Juhtide eestvedamispädevustele andsid hinnangu nende vahetud ajateenijatest alluvad (AL puhul $N = 988$, TF ja TA puhul $N = 667$). Enamik sõjaväelistest juhtidest olid mehed (vastavalt 95% ja 98%). Kvantitatiivsetele andmetele tuginedes kontrolliti faktorite sisemist reliaablust ja kinnitava faktoranalüüsiga mudeli sobilikkust valimile. Esmatasandi juhtide eestvedamispädevuste taseme määramiseks kasutati kirjeldavat statistikat ja eestvedamisprofiilide koostamiseks hierarhilist klasteranalüüsi.

Teise uuringu (Meerits *et al.*, 2021) keskmes on ALi pädevused ja nende mõõtmisvõimalused. ALi pädevuste väljaselgitamiseks (UK3) analüüsi teemakohast kirjandust ja selle põhjal pakuti välja laiendatud ALi mudel. ALi pädevuste mõõtmiseks sobiliku instrumendi (UK4) väljaselgitamiseks kasutati kahte erinevat valimit. Homogeenne valim ($N = 1021$) koosnes ajateenijatest, kellest enamik olid mehed (99,8%) keskmise vanusega 21,6 aastat ($SD = 1,7$). Heterogeenne valim ($N = 547$) koosnes jaekaubanduse ($N = 261$), toitlustuse ($N = 68$), avaliku sektori ($N = 80$) ja logistika ($N = 138$) valdkonna esindajatest. Teine valim oli lisaks elukutsele esimesest märgatavalt mitmekesisem nii soo (valdavalt naised, välja arvatud logistika) kui ka vanuse (valdavalt 30–49-aastased, välja arvatud toitlustus) poolest. Laiendatud ALi pädevuste mudeli jaoks sobiliku instrumendi loomisel tugineti olemasolevatele instrumentidele: Walumbwa *et al.* (2008), Neider ja Schriesheim (2011) ning Beddoes-Jones ja Swailes (2015). Kirjeldavale statistikale ja väidete sisuanalüüsile tuginedes selgitati välja väited, mis olid laiendatud ALi mudelis esindatud eestvedamispädevuste kirjeldamiseks sobilikemad. Kvantitatiivsetele andmetele tuginedes kontrolliti faktorite sisemist reliaablust ja kinnitava faktoranalüüsiga mudeli sobilikkust valimile.

Kolmas uuring (Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020a) keskendub esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste seostele kollektiivse eestvedamise kui üksuse efektiivsusnäitajaga. Selleks et selgitada välja esmatasandi juhtide eestvedamispädevuste seos üksuse lühiajalise (UK5) ja pikaajalise (UK6) efektiivsusega, hinnati eestvedamispädevusi esimeses ja teises uuringus kasutatud instrumentidega, kollektiivset eestvedamist Kivipõllu ja Vadi (2010) loodud instrumendiga. Andmed koguti erinevatest Kaitseväe üksustest. Valimi moodustasid esmatasandi sõjaväelised juhid ($N = 45$), kelle eestvedamispädevustele ja üksuse kollektiivsele eestvedamisele andsid hinnangu nende vahetud ajateenijatest alluvad ($N = 1579$). Kõik uuritud olid mehed ja nende keskmine vanus oli 26,5 aastat ($SD = 3,75$). Uuritutest 27-l oli kogemust üksuse juhina vähem kui aasta. Hinnangu andnud ajateenijatest enamik oli mehed (98,8%) keskmise vanusega

20,3 aastat (SD = 1,5). Andmeanalüüsiks kasutati peakomponentide analüüsi, kontrolliti faktorite sisemist reliaablust ja seoste leidmiseks kasutati korrelatsioonikordajaid.

Tulemuste kokkuvõte ja arutelu

Peamised tulemused on esitatud tabelis 2. Tulemuste põhjal jaguneb edasine arutelu kolmeks osaks. Esimene kirjeldab sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste raamistikku, lähtudes uurimisküsimuste UK1 ja UK3 vastustest. Teine keskendub eestvedamispädevuste hindamisvõimalustele ning Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste tasemele, toetudes uurimisküsimuste UK2 ja UK4 tulemustele. Kolmas tõukub uurimisküsimuste UK5 ja UK6 vastustest ning käsitleb Kaitseväe esmatasandi juhtide eestvedamispädevuste seost üksuse efektiivsusega.

Sõjaväelise juhi eestvedamispädevuste raamistik

Sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste raamistiku (UK1) loomiseks analüüsiti erinevate riikide relvajõudude eestvedamisdokumente. Ilmnes, et olenevate asukohast, keelest, eesmärgist, relvajõudude suurusest ja võimsusest on arusaamades märgatavaid sarnasusi (vt Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020b). Kuigi kõik sõjaväelised organisatsioonid põhinevad hierarhilisel struktuuril ja käsuliinil, on erinevates riikides mõistetud, et sõjaväeline eestvedamine on mitmesuunaline mõjutusprotsess, mis tugineb kahele asjaolule.

Esiteks: sõjaväelise juhi edukuse vundamendiks on kombinatsioon individuaalsetest omadustest (füüsiline, psühholoogiline, tunnetuslik, iseloomuomadused) ja pädevustest, mis on vajalikud juhina tegutsemiseks. Ülesande edukaks täitmiseks peab sõjaväeline juht olema pädev mitmes aspektis: professionaalses (erinevate vahendite ja protseduuride rakendamine), sotsiaalses (ümbritsevate inimeste mõjutamine), juhatavas (komplekssete süsteemide toimimise korraldamine) ja kontseptuaalses (nt mõtestamine ja otsustamine puuduliku info põhjal). Selleks et saavutada juhina parim tulemus (vt Boyatzis, 2008), on vaja osata juhtida iseennast (enesekohased pädevused) ning teisi (inimestevahelised pädevused).

Teiseks: eestvedamiskäitumine, mis määrab mõjuulatuse teiste inimeste üle, sõltub juhi eestvedamispädevustest. Olenemata eestvedamiskäsituse fookusest on need pädevused orienteeritud kas ülesandele, arengule või suhetele (vt Derue *et al.*, 2011; Yukl, 2008). Ülesandele suunatud eestvedamispädevuste keskmes on vastutuse ja nõudmise täpne sõnastamine, toetudes alluvate sotsiaalsele, isiklikule ja materiaalsele kasule (Bass, 1990; Ekvall, 1991). Arengule suunatud eestvedamispädevuste eesmärk on kujundada alluvate käitumist selliselt, et and suudaksid täita neile antud ülesannet (Yukl *et al.*, 2019). Suhetele suunatud pädevused keskenduvad osavõtlikkusele alluvate vajaduste suhtes ja sotsiaalse võrgustiku loomisele (Borgmann *et al.*, 2016).

Tabel 2. Kokkuvõtte peamistest tulemustest

Arutelu teema	UK	Uurimisküsimus	Peamine tulemus
Sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamis- pädevuste raamistik	UK1	Kuidas mõistetakse sõjaväelist eest-vedamist ja millised on sõjaväeliste juhtide esmatähtsad eestvedamispädevused?	Sõjaväeline eestvedamine on mitmesuunaline mõjutusprotsess, mis nõuab juhilt kõikidest peamiste eestvedamismõõtmete pädevusi. Sõjaväeliste juhtide autentse eestvedamise teoreetiline raamistik peab arvestama nii enesekohaseid (eneseteadlikkuse, eneseregulatsioon ja eetilise regulatsioon) kui ka inimestevahelisi (tasakaalustatud suhtlus ja suhte läbipaistvus) pädevusi.
Eestvedamis- pädevuste hindamis- võimalused ja Kaitsevää esma- tasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamis- pädevuste tase	UK2 UK4	UK2 Millisel tasemel on Kaitsevää esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevused? UK4 Milline instrument on Kaitsevää kontekstis kõige sobilikum autentse eestvedamise pädevuste mõõtmiseks?	Kaitsevää esmatasandi juhid oskavad olla eeskujuks ja rõhutada ühiseid eesmärke. Samas on enamik hinnatud pädevustest keskpärasel tasemel ja vajakajäämised on pädevustes, mis on tähtsad sotstiaalse võrgustiku loomisel. Olemasolevad instrumentid sobivad piiratud ulatuses. Kõige sobilikum on laiendatud autentse eestvedamise instrument, sest see hõlmab nii enesekohaseid kui ka inimestevahelisi eestvedamispädevusi.
Kaitsevää esma- tasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamis- pädevuste seos üksuse efektiivsusega	UK5 UK6	UK5 Kuidas on Kaitsevää esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevused seotud üksuse lühiajalise efektiivsusega? UK6 Kuidas on Kaitsevää esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevused seotud üksuse pikaajalise efektiivsusega?	Enamik ümberkuuldava ja autentse eestvedamise pädevusi on üksuse lühiajalise efektiivsusega tugevas positiivses seoses, samas kui pragmaatilise eestvedamise pädevustel on lühiajalise efektiivsusega keskmine, mõnel juhul ka negatiivne seos. Esmatasandi juhtide eestvedamispädevustel puudub seos üksuse pikaajalise efektiivsusega.

Allikas: autori koostatud

Seega tuleb sõjaväelise eestvedamise lähtekohti sõnastades arvestada ülesandele, arengule ja suhetele suunatud käitumisviisi (vt tabel 3). Kuivõrd suhetele suunatud käitumise keskmeks on usaldus, on selle mõõtme sobiv esindaja autentne eestvedamine (AL), sest paljud uuringud on selle tuvastanud kui usalduse allika juhi ja alluva vahel (Agote *et al.*, 2016; Alkaabi & Wong, 2019; Coxen *et al.*, 2016; Maximo *et al.*, 2019). Arvestades asjaolu, et arengule suunatud käitumise keskmeks on motivatsioon ja pädevuse täiustamine, esindab seda mõõdet ümberkujundav eestvedamine (TF). TFi on seostatud protsessidega, mis muudavad inimesi (Northouse, 2015, p. 161) ja inspireerivad neid saavutama rohkem kui nõutud (Avolio *et al.*, 2009; Judge *et al.*, 2006). Ülesandele suunatud käitumise pragmaatilist suunitlust saab kirjeldada pragmaatilise eestvedamise (TA) abil: juht mõjutab alluvaid tegutsema, lähtudes enda kavatsusest ja pakkudes alluvatele erinevaid hüvesid (Bass, 1990).

Autentsele eestvedamisele (AL) keskenduvates käsitlustes tähtsustatakse nii enesekohaseid kui ka inimestevahelisi eestvedamispädevusi (UK3; Meerits *et al.*, 2021). Enesekohased pädevused kirjeldavad juhi enesepilti, mille aluseks on mitmete autorite järgi (vt Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Bishop, 2013; Crawford *et al.*, 2020; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008) eneseteadlikkus (*self-awareness*) ja eetiline eneseregulatsioon (*ethical regulation*; eetiline käitumine ja juhendumine moraalsetest normidest). Kui esimene kirjeldab juhi eneserefleksiooni võimet ja avatust tagasisidele (Ashley & Reiter-Palmon, 2012), siis teine kooskõla eetikanormide ja tegeliku käitumise vahel (Pircher Verdorfer & Peus, 2020). Kuigi eneseregulatsiooni (*self-regulation*) on peetud ka osaks moraalsest käitumisest (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008), siis teiste uuringute järgi on tegemist iseseisva pädevusega (Beddoes-Jones & Swailes, 2015; Černe *et al.*, 2013; Gardner *et al.*, 2005), sest see kirjeldab isiklike eesmärkide saavutamiseks ja hoidmiseks vajalikke protsesse (Sassenberg & Hamstra, 2017) ega ole seotud eetiliste aspektiga.

Inimestevahelised pädevused kirjeldavad juhi võimet mõista ja hinnata sotsiaalseid sidemeid alluvatega (Day *et al.*, 2008), tuginedes tasakaalustatud info-töötlusel (*balanced processing*) ja läbipaistval suhtlusel (*relational transparency*). Kui läbipaistev suhtlus kirjeldab juhi avatud ja siirast kommunikatsiooni alluvatega (Burke *et al.*, 2007), siis tasakaalustatud infotöötlus võimet analüüsida olemasolevat teadmist enne otsuse vastuvõtmist (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008). Kuivõrd ükski ALi käsitlustest ei hõlma peamisi enesekohaseid ja inimestevahelisi pädevusi, pakutakse siinses uurimistöös välja laiendatud ALi mudel (*Extended Authentic Leadership Model*; EALM; vt tabel 4).

Tabel 3. Sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste raamistik

Eestvedamise mõõde	Eestvedamise käsitlus	Mõju suund (pädevused)	Teised (inimestevahelised)
		Ise (enesekohased)	
Ülesandele suunatud: tegevustõhususe ja usaldusväarsuse suurendamine, tuginedes protsesside korrastamisele, rollide määramisele, sooritusnormide ja nõuete sõnastamisele	Pragmaatiline eestvedamine	Puudub	Reeglite järgmise tunnustamine ja nende eiramise karistamine
Arengule suunatud: vajalike muutuste kindlaksmääramine, uute tegutsemisviiside rakendamine, toetamine ja suunamine	Ümberkujundav eestvedamine	Uute ideede genereerimine, kohanemisvõime ja riskialtlisus	Vastavalt alluvate vajadustele ja võimetele nende arengu inspireerimine
Suhetele suunatud: avatus tagasisidele ning lugupidav suhtumine ja võrdne käitumine alluvate suhtes, millega suurendatakse alluvate enesekindlust ja tagatakse nende pühendumine ja koostöö	Autentne eestvedamine	Enda tegevuse mõtestamine ja hindamine juhina, arvestades sisemisi ja välimisi aspekte (isiksusest johtuvad ja sotsiokultuurilised aspektid)	Tuginemine avatud suhtlemisele ja võrdsele suhtumisele, keskendudes üksuse sotsiaalsetele sidemetele ja nende mõistmisele

Allikas: autori koostatud, tuginedes Meeritsa ja Kivipõllu (2020b) käsitlusele

Tabel 4. Laiendatud autentse eestvedamise mudel

Pädevuse fookus	Eestvedamis-pädevus	Kirjeldus
Enese-kohased	Eneseteadlikkus	Juhi võime olla enesekriitiline, peegeldav, läbinägelik ja avatud tagasisidele
	Eetiline enese-regulatsioon	Sisemistele väärtustele tuginev võime käituda vastavalt oma tõekspidamistele, millest ilmneb juhi nn moraalne kompass
	Enese-regulatsioon	Eesmärgist juhitud võime reguleerida enda emotsioone ja tegevusi, et saavutada ja säilitada isiklike eesmärgid, millest ilmneb juhi suutlikkus juhtida konflikte objektiivselt
Inimestevahelised	Suhte läbipaistvus	Juhi võime näidata enda tegelikku mina, tuginedes avatud ja ausale suhtlusele
	Tasakaalustatud infotöötlus	Juhi võime analüüsida enne otsuse vastuvõtmist olemasolevat infot objektiivselt ja põhjalikult, lähtumata isiklikust kasust ja huvist

Allikas: autori koostatud (vt Meerits *et al.*, 2021)

Varasematega võrreldes on laiendatud ALi mudelil kaks peamist eelist. Esiteks: EALM-is on esindatud nii enesekohased kui ka inimestevahelised eestvedamis-pädevused. Kui skaala üks pool näeb ALi juhikeskselt ja juhi eheduse määravad ainult tema enda arusaamad, väärtused ja kogemused (vt nt Beddoes-Jones & Swailes, 2015; Shamir & Eilam, 2005), siis teise poole järgi on juhi ehedus alluvate määrata (Sidani & Rowe, 2018). Kuna juhi minapilti ja käitumist mõjutavad mitmed sisemised ja välised faktorid (Jongman-Sereno & Leary, 2019), võimaldavad ALi enesekohased pädevused paremat arusaama iseendast ja inimestevahelised pädevused avatud suhtlust teistega.

Teiseks: EALM-is tähistab eneseregulatsioon pädevust, mis kirjeldab juhi võimet kontrollida enda emotsioone (Goleman, 2009) ning saavutada isiklike eesmärgid (Sassenberg & Hamstra, 2017; Vancouver & Day, 2005). Juhi eneseregulatsiooni võime on sõjaväelises keskkonnas tähtis eestvedamispädevus (Boe *et al.*, 2015), mis võimaldab jälgida ja reguleerida enda kognitiivseid protsesse (Hannah *et al.*, 2010) ning suurendab seeläbi vaimset vastupidavust (McLarnon *et al.*, 2021).

Vastused uurimisküsimustele UK1 ja UK3 võimaldavad pakkuda välja sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste raamistikku. Selle keskmes on juhi käitumine, mis on suunatud kas ülesandele, arengule või suhetele. Nende eristamine võimaldab määrata kindlaks esmatähtsaid eestvedamispädevusi ning valida eestvedamispädevuste hindamiseks ja arendamiseks sobilikke instrumente.

Eestvedamispädevuste hindamisvõimalused ja Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste tase

Nagu eespool välja toodud, ei ole Eesti kaitseväel ametlikku eestvedamise doktriini, mistõttu ei ole võimalik sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevust ühtsetel alustel hinnata ega arendada. Siinne uurimistöö pakub küll välja võimaliku eestvedamise raamistiku, aga eestvedamispädevuste hindamisel on oluline arvestada kindla organisatsiooni vajadusi ja enne uurimist instrumenti valideerida. Kui TA ja TFi pädevuste hindamiseks on loodud mitu Eesti kaitseväe konteksti arvestavat instrumenti (vt Kasemaa *et al.*, 2016; Kasemaa & Suviste, 2020; Meerits *et al.*, 2015), siis puuduvad uuringud, mis oleks kohandanud või arendanud instrumendi ALi pädevuste hindamiseks.

Selleks et valida ALi pädevuste hindamiseks instrument, mis oleks sobilik Eesti kaitseväe kontekstis (UK4), võeti aluseks kolm olemasolevat (vt Meerits *et al.*, 2021): Walumbwa *et al.* (2008) „Authentic Leadership Questionnaire“ (ALQ), Neideri ja Schriesheimi (2011) „Authentic Leadership Inventory“ (ALI) ning Beddoes-Jonesi ja Swailesi (2015) „Three-Pillar Model“ (TPM). Tulemustest (vt Meerits *et al.*, 2021) ilmnes, et neist kõige sobilikum on TPM, kuid selle puuduseks on keskendumine ainult enesekohastele pädevustele. Kuivõrd ALQ ja ALI tuginevad samal teoreetilisel raamistikul (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011), siis mõõdavad mõlemad enesekohaseid ja inimestevahelisi pädevusi. Samas puudub mõlemal pädevus, mis kirjeldab enesekontrolli võimet. ALQ ja ALI tulemuste erinevused võivad olla tingitud väidete sõnastustest. Selleks et katta kõiki EALM-is välja toodud pädevusi, kasutati olemasolevate instrumentide väiteid. Tulemuste põhjal võib eeldada, et EALM on Eesti oludes sobilik ALi pädevuste hindamiseks, seda eriti homogeense (sama valdkond, nt kaitsevägi) valimi korral.

Eesti kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste analüüsis (UK2) (Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020b) selgus, et kõrgel tasemel on järgmised eestvedamispädevused: eeskujuks olemine (ümberkujundav eestvedamine, TF), ühiste eesmärkide rõhutamine (TF) ja tingimuslik karistamine (pragmaatiline eestvedamine, TA; tabel 5). Kui valdavalt olid eestvedamispädevused keskmisel tasemel, siis madalal tasemel olid tasakaalustatud infotöötlus (autentne eestvedamine, AL), läbipaistev suhtlus (AL), alluvate vaimsete võimete arvestamine (TF) ja alluvate panuse tunnustamine (TF). Analüüsitulemuste põhjal võib väita, et esmatasandi sõjaväelised juhid ei kasuta kõiki positsioonist tulenevaid võimalusi (piltlikult öeldes kasutatakse pigem piitsa kui präänikut) ning vajaka jääb teadmistest selle kohta, kuidas tarvitada isiklikku mõjuvõimu. Puudujääk isikliku mõjuvõimuga seotud pädevustes ilmneb näiteks olukorras, kus alluvate arendamisel ei kaasata neid otsustamise kui indiviide, subjekte, vaid võetakse pigem objektidena. Madalad ALi pädevuste näitajad viitavad esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide tagasihoidlikule panusele sotsiaalse võrgustiku loomisel oma üksuses. Ometi on see aluseks usalduse tekkele ja meeskonnatöele. Kirjeldatud tulemused rõhutavad vajadust arendada Kaitseväes senisest süsteemsemalt esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevusi kõikides eestvedamise mõõtmetest.

Tabel 5. Kaitseväe esmatasandi juhtide eestvedamispädevuste tase

Eestvedamis- mõõde (-käsitlus)	Enesekohased			Inimestevahelised			
	SA	SR	ER	BP	RT		
Suhted (autentne)	1	1	1	0	0		
Areng (ümberkujundav)	AM	IV	HP	GG	PS	IS	
	2	1	1	2	1	0	
Ülesanne (pragmaatiline)				CP	NP	CR	NR
				2	0	0	1

Allikas: autori koostatud, tuginedes Meeritsa ja Kivipõllu (2020b) käsitlusele.

Arvkood ja tähised: 0 – nõrk seos, 1 – keskmine seos, 2 – tugev seos.

SA – eneseteadlikkus, SR – eneseregulatsioon, ER – eetiline regulatsioon, BP – tasakaalustatud infotöötlus, RT – suhte läbipaistvus, IV – visiooni tuvastamine ja sõnastamine, AM – sobiva eeskuju näitamine, GG – ühiste eesmärkide tähtsustamine, HP – kõrged ootused sooritusele, PS – personaalse toe pakkumine, IS – intellektuaalne stimuleerimine, CR – tingimuslik tunnustamine, CP – tingimuslik karistamine, NR – alusetu tunnustamine, NP – alusetu karistamine

Vastused uurimisküsimustele UK2 ja UK4 võimaldasid valida sobilikud instrumendid ja määrata Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamis-pädevused. Ilmnes, et ülesandele suunatud pädevustele tuginevad juhid panustavad ennekõike karistamisele, teisisõnu negatiivsetele mõjutajatele. Vajaka jääb positiivsetest mõjutajatest, nt tunnustamisest. Arengule suunatud pädevustest jääb vajaka nendest, mis soodustavad üksuse liikmete kriitilist ja innovaatilist mõtlemist. Suhetele suunatud eestvedamis-pädevustest on madal inimestevaheliste pädevuste tase aspektis, mis on seotud usalduse tekkimisega. See omakorda pärsib sotsiaalsete sidemete teket üksuses. Teisalt on usaldusel arvestatav osa ka individuaalse soorituse ja üksuse ülesande täitmise tulemuslikkuse seiskohast (Ling *et al.*, 2017).

Kaitseväe esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamis-pädevuste seos üksuse efektiivsusega

Ajateenistuse jooksul ei omandata mitte ainult üksiksõduri oskusi, vaid luuakse ka meekonnana toimivad üksused, sest enamik ülesandeid vajab kollektiivset panust. Efektiivselt tegutseva üksuse loomine nõuab juhilt ajateenijate teadmiste, võimete ja arusaamade mõistmist ja arendamist. Varasemad uuringud on kinnitanud, et formaalsed juhid mõjutavad üksuse efektiivsust (Ensley *et al.*, 2006; Hannah, Walumbwa, *et al.*, 2011). Seetõttu on vaja välja selgitada, kuidas eestvedamis-pädevused on seotud üksuse efektiivsusega. Kolmandaks leiab ajateenistuse jooksul aset ajateenijate arusaamade ja hoiakute kujundamine Kaitseväe ning laiemalt Eesti riigikaitse kohta. Ajateenistuse kestus on kuni 11 kuud ja reservteenistus 40 aastat, mistõttu võib öelda, et ajateenistus on aluseks nii lühiajalisele (individuaalne võime tegutseda ülesande täitmiseks üksuse koosseisus)

kui ka pikaajalisele (inimesed mõistavad organisatsiooni pikaajalisi eesmärke ja on valmis täitma enda kodanikukohust) efektiivsusele. Siinses uurimistöös vaadeldi üksuse efektiivsust kollektiivse eestvedamise kaudu. Kollektiivne eestvedamine kirjeldab mõjutusprotsessi organisatsiooni tasandil ega lähtu formaalset juhust. Vastava pädevuse mõõtmiseks kasutati instrumenti, mis hindab organisatsioonilist eestvedamisvõimet (OLC; Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010).

Sõjaväelise juhi eestvedamispädevuste ja üksuse lühiajalise efektiivsuse seoste leidmiseks (**UK5**) viidi läbi uuring (vt Meerits & Kivipõld, 2020a). Selle tulemuste põhjal saab väita, et eestvedamispädevused on osaliselt seotud lühiajalise efektiivsusega (vt tabel 6). Enamik TFi ja ALi pädevusi on tugevas positiivses seoses CFSi ja OACiga ning keskmises positiivses seoses AINi ja EICga. Erandiks on pädevus „kõrged ootused sooritusele“ HP (TF), millel ei olnud seost ühegi OLC faktoriga. TA pädevustest oli ainult tingimuslik tasustamine tugevas positiivses seoses OAC ja CFSiga ning keskmises positiivses seoses AINi ja ECga. Tingimuslik karistamine oli keskmises negatiivses seoses enamikuga OLC faktoritest, välja arvatud EC, millega seos puudus. Contractor *et al.* (2012) leiavad, et kollektiivse eestvedamise tekkeks on vajalik, et üksuse liikmetel oleks kujunenud arusaam oma rollist ja tekkinud omavahel sotsiaalsed sidemed. Samas nõuavad need mõlemad aega. Seega tuleb arvestada uuritud üksuste tegutsemisaja pikkust hindamishetkel (7 nädalat). Enda rolli mõtestamisel üksuses pidasid vastajad sõjaväelist juhti ennekõike organisatsiooni sisemiste protsesside ja reeglite esindajaks, mitte horisontaalsete sidemete loojaks.

Eestvedamispädevuste seoste analüüs üksuse pikaajalise efektiivsusega (**UK6**) tõi välja, et mitte ükski eestvedamispädevus ei ole seotud üksuse pikaajalise efektiivsusega (vt tabel 6). Selle põhjal saab väita, et üksuse liikmed ei seosta vahetu juhi käitumist pikaajaliste eesmärkidega. Pidades silmas üksuse tegutsemisaja pikkust (7 nädalat), võib põhjuseks olla, et üksuse loomise alguses keskenduvad üksuse liikmed peamiselt igapäevastele tegevustele (lühiajalised eesmärgid), jättes tähelepanuta sõnumid, mis on suunatud tulevikku.

Kokkuvõtvalt saab väita, et kuigi esmatasandi sõjaväelistel juhtidel on kalduvus tugineda ülesandega seotud pädevustele, siis üksuse kui terviku efektiivsus on seotud pädevustega, mis panustavad arengule ja suhetele. Uuringutulemused lubavad oletada, et enim vajakajäämisi esineb suhetele suunatud eestvedamis-pädevustes, mis panustavad usalduse tekkele üksuses. Samas on usaldust peetud organisatsiooni efektiivsuses võtmetähtsusega osaks (Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2021). Töö tulemused võivad viidata sellelegi, et kollektiivse eestvedamise erinevad aspektid vajavad väljakujunemiseks erineval määral aega. Esimesena kujuneb välja kontrolli-tagasiside süsteem, mis struktureerib ja toetab üksusesiseseid protsesse. See võimaldab luua tingimusi võimuhete mõistmiseks ja mitteformaalse sotsiaalse võrgustiku arendamiseks. Grupiprotsesside ja rollijaotusega seotu võtab organisatsioonis aega (Mathieu *et al.*, 2015), mistõttu peavad üksuse juhid nende kujunemisele teadlikult kaasa aitama. Esmatasandi juhtide eestvedamispädevuste seoste puudumine üksuse pikaajalise efektiivsusega oli küll ootamatu leid, kuid seda võib selgitada Katzi (1974) tähelepanekuga, et esmatasandi juhid keskenduvadki eeskätt ülesandega seotud pädevustele.

Tabel 6. Eestvedamispädevuste seos üksuse efektiivsusega

Eestvedamismõõde (-käsitlus)	Eestvedamis-pädevused	OAC	AIN	EC	CFS	IA_1	IA_2
Suhted (autentne)	SA	2	1	1	2	0	0
	SR	1	1	1	2	0	0
	ER	2	1	1	2	0	0
	BP	2	1	1	2	0	0
	RT	1	1	1	2	0	0
Areng (ümberkujundav)	IV	2	1	1	2	0	0
	AM	2	1	1	2	0	0
	GG	2	1	1	2	0	0
	HP	0	0	0	0	0	0
	PS	2	1	1	2	0	0
	IS	2	1	1	2	0	0
Ülesanne (pragmaatiline)	CR	2	1	1	2	0	0
	CP	-1	-1	0	-1	0	0
	NR	1	0	0	1	0	0
	NP	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	0

Allikas: autori koostatud, tuginedes Meeritsa ja Kivipõllu (2020a) käsitlusele.

Arvkood ja tähised: 0 – seos puudub, 1 – keskmine seos, 2 – tugev seos. Miinusmärk (–) märgib negatiivset seost.

SA – eneseteadlikkus, SR – eneseregulatsioon, ER – eetiline regulatsioon, BP – tasakaalustatud infotöötlus, RT – suhte läbipaistvus, IV – visiooni tuvastamine ja sõnastamine, AM – sobiva eeskuju näitamine, GG – ühiste eesmärkide tähtsustamine, HP – kõrged ootused sooritusele, PS – personaalse toe pakkumine, IS – intellektuaalne stimuleerimine, CR – tingimuslik tunnustamine, CP – tingimuslik karistamine, NR – alusetu tunnustamine, NP – alusetu karistamine, OAC – väline fookus ja sisemine kontekst, AIN – organisatsioonisisene koostöövõrgustik, EC – tsentraliseerituse määr, CFS – kontrolli-tagasiside süsteem, IA_1 – organisatsiooniline sidusus (vastasmõju), IA_2 – kollektiivne võime tõlgendada igapäevaseid tegevusi strateegiliste eesmärkide kontekstis (vastasmõju).

Uurimistöö panus ja rakendatavus

Uurimistöö panustab eestvedamiskäsitlustesse kolmes aspektis. Esiteks pakutakse välja eestvedamispädevuste mudel, milles on esindatud eestvedamise kolm peamist mõõdet. Teiseks pakutakse välja laiendatud ALi mudel koos mõõdikuga, milles on esindatud nii enesekohased kui ka inimestevahelised eestvedamispädevused. Kolmandaks avardab uurimus arusaama selle kohta, kuidas esmas tasandi juhtide eestvedamispädevused on seotud üksuse lühi- ja pikaajalise efektiivsusega.

Töö praktiline väärtus on välja pakutud eestvedamispädevuste raamistik, mille saab võtta aluseks Kaitseväe eestvedamisdoktriini loomisel. Raamistik võimaldab

luua ühtse arusaama eestvedamisest ja koostada eestvedamise arendamise programme vastavalt sihtgrupi vajadustele. Siinse uurimuse tulemusi on juba praktikas rakendatud, näiteks on sellele tuginedes välja pakutud eestvedamispädevuste detailne mudel (vt Säälük *et al.*, 2020). Samuti on see olnud aluseks esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste arendamisel¹⁵.

Sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamise arendamisel peab arvestama lisaks individuaalsele arengule ka üksuse efektiivsuse suurendamist. Pikaajaliste eesmärkidega arvestamine üksuse juhtimisel on oluline kõikidele, mitte ainult tippastme juhtidele (Antonakis & House, 2014). Varasemad uurimistulemused osutavad asjaolule, et kollektiivset eestvedamist saab arendada (D’Innocenzo *et al.*, 2021). Siinse töö tulemused võimaldavad luua eestvedamise arendamisprogramme, mis lisaks individuaalsetele pädevustele arendamisele toetavad ka kollektiivse eestvedamisvõime arendamist. Viimase suurendamine muudab organisatsiooni efektiivsemaks nii lühemas kui ka pikemas perspektiivis. Kui arendada teadlikult sõjaväelise juhi kollektiivse eestvedamisvõimet, aitab see kaasa organisatsiooni liikmete koostööle, mis omakorda suurendab organisatsiooni efektiivsust ja loob aluse õppivale organisatsioonile (Ishimaru & Galloway, 2014).

Piirangud ja soovitus edasisteks uuringuteks

Siinsel uurimistööl on neli peamist piirangut, millega tuleb andmete tõlgendamisel arvestada. Esiteks hinnati Kaitseväge esmatasandi sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste taset, mille tulemusi ei saa üldistada kesk- ja tippastme sõjaväeliste juhtidele. Selleks et selgitada välja kesk- ja tippastme sõjaväeliste juhtide eestvedamispädevuste tase ning tasemete erinevused, on vaja lisauuringuid. Need peaks hõlmama elukutselisi sõjaväelasi ja vabatahtlikke nii Eestis (Scoutspataljon, Kaitseleit) kui teiste riikide sõjaväelistes organisatsioonides. Viimane on tähtis, sest kultuuri, struktuuri ja eesmärkide erinevus organisatsioonide ja riikide vahel võivad mõjutada eestvedamise mõistmist.

Teiseks tuleb arvestada sellega, et uuringus hindasid juhtide eestvedamispädevusi ainult ajateenijatest alluvad. Uuringud on välja toonud, et sõltuvalt vaatepunktist (juht *vs.* alluv) mõistetakse eestvedamist erinevalt ja toetumine vaid üht liiki andmeallikatele võib luua tegelikkusest ebatäpse pildi (vt nt Sin *et al.*, 2009). Seetõttu on järgmiste uuringute puhul otstarbekas kaasata lisaks alluvatele ka juhti ennast, tema vahetus juhti ning kolleege.

Kolmas piirang ja edasine uurimisvajadus seostub laiendatud autentse eestvedamise hindamise instrumendiga, mida testiti Eesti kaitseväes. Nimetatud instrument on osutunud Eesti oludes küll sobilikuks ja tulemused on reliaablid ka teises kultuuriruumis ja keelekeskkonnas (vt Akuffo & Kivipõld, 2020), on selle instrumendi üldisema sobilikkuse hindamiseks vaja lisauuringuid. Samuti vajab

¹⁵ Kaitseväge Akadeemia täienduskoolituse ainekava TO20.05 „Juhtimispädevuste arendamine 1“ (05.02.2020 nr KVA-3.2.2-3/20/5304-1).

edasist uurimist see, kuivõrd unikaalsed on mudelis väljatoodud eestvedamis-pädevused (Shaffer *et al.*, 2016).

Neljandaks ilmnes, et üksuse efektiivsuse hindamiseks kasutatud instrumendi ühel alamfaktoril (mitteformaalne kommunikatsioon) oli madal sisemine reliaablus, mis mõjutas ka peafaktorit (organisatsioonisisene koostöövõrgustik). Madal reliaablus võis olla tingitud asjaolust, et mõned hinnatud aspektid ei olnud uuritud valimi puhul kohaldatavad või olulised. Teine põhjus võis olla instrumendi liigne keerukus, mistõttu on vajalik kaasata edasistesse uuringutesse ka tegevvälased. Kollektiivse eestvedamise kujunemine nõuab aega (Contractor *et al.*, 2012; Mathieu *et al.*, 2015), mistõttu võis tulemusi mõjutada ka üksuste tegutsemisaja pikkus hindamishetkel (vaid 7 nädalat). Edasised uuringud võiks käsitleda küsimust, kui kaua võtab aega kollektiivse eestvedamise väljakujunemine.

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