COMMANDING VS LEADING: NEW CHALLENGES IN OUR DAYS

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ABSTRACT

In the 80's, Cold War came to an end. Since then, the military has been called to intervene, with several different kinds of forces and in a wide range of circumstances and places, with the purpose of reducing normative international conflicts borne out of exacerbated nationalisms and cultural identities. Interventions of the kind take place in a multicentric world where the use of authority and dialogue are extremely difficult, and in a time marked by a strong opposition to armed forces.

These premises constitute the guidelines for the reflections presented here. Our aim is to underline the importance of leadership training for future military leaders. Starting with a sample of leadership definitions, which suggest a wide range of different perspectives on this theme, the relevance of leadership research and theories as well as of the most critical aspects for its comprehension and exercise are emphasized.

This presentation ends by highlighting the need of formal education and instruction and training aimed to the development of several skills that will enable the military leader to be a more "humanistic leader", increasing the credibility of their actions .

INTRODUCTION

The correspondence exchanged between Einstein and Freud reveal that even those great men of science did not believe that in the time to come no man would be able to visualize practical and feasible methods to put an end to wars. Distortions of reality, prejudice, discrimination, and victimization processes will always push humankind to conflicts and wars (Blumberg & French, 1990).

After Cold War, the following threats to Peace became evident: a) nuclear, chemical and biological weapons proliferation; and b) within-nations (rather then between-nations) normative conflicts, consequence of exacerbated nationalism's and conflicting cultural identities (Berger, 1999). Military threats are not extinguished, nor is the existence of Armed Forces.

The global order of the world became multicentric, with an infinity of sovereignties and authorities in action (Burk, 1998). One can wonder if the end of Cold War was not the beginning of a new era of conflicts (Dandeker, 1998), in a time when military service tend to be considered a profession.

The object of this presentation is justified for the following reasons: First, we would like to believe that Einstein and Freud are not, anymore, within the reason, and that the nations can solve their internal crises through pacific means; second, it is evident that the use of force to solve within- or between-nations conflicts is in what we can call "order of the day".

Military leaders are in the need of additional skills and capabilities in order to be "good" leaders. This need is more evident nowadays, when the armed forces are "on call" to intervene in sensible areas where the use of dialogue is extremely difficult, and in a time when military profession suffers from, although relative, social devaluation or, in extreme cases, a strong opposition even to its existence.

WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

Luvaas (1989) suggests that certainly Napoleon Bonaparte would agree with Clausewitz in his assertion of what is a "good" leadership. For Clausewitz, a good leadership emerges when two different kinds of qualities are combined: a) qualities of the intellect, which can be trained and cultivated, and b) qualities of the temperament, which can be improved through determination and self-discipline.

When defining the concept of leadership, academics take into consideration diversified aspects: what a leader actually do; group processes; a mean to exert influence or to persuade; capacity to deal with non-followers. In Table1 we present a pool of definitions.

Table 1 – Definitions of the leadership

> ⅄ *Leadership is the capacity to lead a man to do what we want him to do, in the way we want it to be done, because he wants to do it* (*).
> ⅄ *Leadership is vision, motivation, organization and action* (**).
> ⅄ *Leadership is influencing the others, giving them a goal, a direction, and motivation* ( ).
> ⅄ *Leadership is... to set a good example... to inspire confidence and loyalty... to insist on high standards ... to keep the teams working ...* (   ).
> ⅄ *Leadership is a process depending ultimately on the willingness of the followers to move toward the goal set by the leader* (‡).
> ⅄ *Leadership is to reach a goal using human aid* (‡‡).
> ⅄ *Leadership is the process whereby one or more individuals succeed in attempting to frame and define the reality of others* (§).
> ⅄ *Leadership is a shared responsibility* (§§).

Sources: (*) Gen. Eisenhower, cit. por McNeil & Clemmer, 1988; (**) Brown, 1990; ( ) FM 22-100, 1999; (   ) Coleman & Barrie, 1990; (‡) Ulmer, 1989. (‡‡) William Prentice, cit. McNeil & Clemmer; 1998; (§) Hunt, 1991; (§§) Kouses & Posner, 1988.

Military leadership is an interpersonal process characterized by affective or personal ties between the leader and his followers. It is the level of exigency and the danger involved that differentiate military from civilian leadership.

Brown (1996) asserts that one of the leadership's functions is to unite people around common goals. Leadership can even be efficacious without the exercise of any of the three well-known sources of power: power of reward; power of coercion; legitimate power (French & Raven, 1959). The possession of all these three sources is not a synonymous of success. While these three sources are attributed by the organization and are related with authority or command (Bull, Bustin, Evans & Gahagan, 1983), other two, referent power and skillfulness, are personal sources to be developed (Ivancevith & Donnelly, 1970; c.f. Gallagher, Rose, McClelland, Reynolds & Tombs, 1997). As a way to have influence, leadership is far above mechanical compliance to customary guidelines that come from the organization superior levels (Katz & Kahn, 1996).

LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

In the realm of Armed Forces there is more and more an emphasis on modern management over traditional leadership. According to Janovitz (1960), this shift on emphasis occurs when authoritarian domination changes to a greater reliance on manipulation, persuasion and group consensus. The heroic leader will be replaced by the military manager, who is responsible for a more complex military technology (Segal, 1981).

Although management also includes "enterprise spirit", the focus of its orientation is on the individual willingness to maximize results, founding decision making on rational calculus (Mucchielli, 1979). On the contrary, leadership's function is more subtle and pervasive, integrating more and more individual needs with organizational goals. While management is concerned with activities which are aimed to bring consistency and order to the organization, leadership is more concerned with adaptive or constructive change (Kotter, 1990). Maybe why Mintzberg (1973) asserted that the leader role can be seen as the most significant of all management roles (cit. In Broedling, 1981).

The observation of Table 2 allows us to understand the essence of the different meanings that are attributed to the two terms: leadership and management.

Table 2 - Management and Leadership in Word Pictures

Management	Leadership
Path follow (*)	*Path finding (*)*
Not emotional (**)	*Passionate visionary (**)*
Tell (**)	*Ask (**)*
Talk (**)	*Listen (**)*
Has subordinates (**)	*Has followers (**)*
Systems-centered (**)	*People-centered (**)*
Doing things right (*)	*Doing the right things (*)*
Maintains (**)	*Originates (**)*
Controls (**)	*Inspires (**)*
Stands apart (**)	*Seeks company (**)*
Structured (**)	*Flexible (**)*
Accepts the status quo (**)	*Challenges the status quo (**)*

Sources: (*) Adapted from Bain & Mabey (1999); (**) Adapted from Bennis & Nanus (1985)

MILITARY LEADERSHIP AND ETHICS

Leadership is not a value-free enterprise. One can not admit an incompetent or morally insensible military leader. Such a leader could allow unnecessary loss of lives (Wakin, 1981). Much in the same way, personal example from the leader is not enough. According to

Clausewitz (1976), it is only when fatality (or crisis) shows its face that a commander's character is actually put to test. Military leadership is tied not only to the essentials qualities of its efficacy, but also to its moral authority, integrity and credibility (Brown, 1996).

Based upon studies on UU. SS. Army and Air Force officers, conducted at Harvard University, Lewis, Kunhert & Maginnis (1989) describe three stages of development that characterize three kinds of leaders differentiated through several critical character aspects: a) the operator, centered on his goals and agendas; b) the participant, centered on his relationships; and c) the self-determined, defined through his involvement with internalized values and ideals. Most important in this study is not only the need for instruction to focus character development but, as well, the importance of exploring the links between the officer's developmental level and his performance under critical decision-making situations.

Much as the American Manual FM-22-100 (Army Leadership Be, Know, Do), Sorley (1989) asserts that the essence of military leadership is character and courage (e.g., moral courage). Because Armies are more and more professionalized, it is more justified that ethical standard should not be incongruous with the patterns revealed in military life. The leaders have the responsibility to assure that, through:
- their professional and personal behavior examples;
- communication to all subordinates of the standards to be followed;
- measures that assure that the environment encourage and support ethical behavior;
- the commitment to do what is right to do

Starting from the concept of ethics, Buckingham (1985) analyzed some of the resulting tensions of the "use of authority ", the "use of military force", of "loyalty to organization or political guidelines vs. adherence to a personal conviction", or the tension that can arise between "the persons and their missions". The author values, in his analysis, the importance of information diffusion. He ends by suggesting a conscience examination on the achievement of goals and a reflection on actions: do they contribute to national defense? Are they consistent with the protection and enhancement of life?

As we can see in Table 3, there are several traps related to ethical behavior of the leaders (Johnson, 1989). The best way to avoid those traps is to reinforce education, instruction and training, which has to be extended to crisis and potentially unsuccessful situations (Stockdale, 1987).

Table 3 - Ethical Traps and Issues to Military leadership

☞ Danger raised by the acceptance of various forms of **ethical relativism** or the **blurring** of right from wrong. We can not hide the truth and not blame the society
☞ The exaggeration of **loyalty syndrome**, where people are afraid to tell the truth.
☞ The anxious worry over image, where people are not even interested in the truth.
☞ The **drive for success,** in which ethical sensitivity is bought off or sold

Sources: Adapted from *Johnson, 1989*.

TRENDS IN THEORY AND RESEARCH

Trait Theory

TABLE 4 synthesizes the trends in theory and research on leadership

Table 4 - Trends in leadership theory and research

Period	Approach	Core theme
Up to late 1940s	Trait approach	Leadership ability is innate
Late 1940s to late 1960s	Style approach	Leadership effectiveness is to do with how the leader behaves
Late 1960s to early 1980s	Contingency approach	It all depends; effective leadership is affected by the situation
Since early 1980s	New leadership approach (includes charismatic leadership)	Leaders need vision

The trait theory values personal qualities of the leaders, asserting that those qualities are innate, and not acquired. However, the number of qualities referred as characteristics of the "good" leader is enormous.

Based upon several interviews with organizational executives, the Alexander Hamilton Institute (1990), in New Jersey selected the following traits to be considered: energy; perseverance; education and scholarly; intelligence; good judgement; personality; self-confidence; creativity and initiative; objectivity and balance; and enthusiasm and optimism.

According to Stogdill (1974) review, "several lines of evidence show that certain personality dimensions are consistently related to rated leadership effectiveness" (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994). This is the case with the following personality factors: surgency, emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness and intellectuality. But the effectiveness requires both the presence of these positive characteristics and the absence of what the same authors called the "dark side" of personality characteristics (i. e., personality disorders reporting in DSM-IV). The problem is that frequently the dark side tendencies are difficult to detect (Harris & Hogan, 1992).

As it is referred in FM 22-100 Manual (1999), leaders are, at the same time, subordinates, and they will be all guided by the same set of values. In the same Manual leadership is characterized as a continuous learning process (Bruce, 2000), with the attributes and capability to action (see Table 5)

Table 5 - Attributes, Skills and Actions of the Leader

Attributes "be"			Actions "Do"	
Mental	**Physical**	**Emotional**	**Influencing***	**Operating***
Will	Health fitness	Self-control	Communicating	- Planning
Self-discipline	Physical fitness	Balance	Motivating	- Executing
Cultural awareness	Military/professional bearing	Stability	Decision making	**Improving***
Confidence	**Values**	**Skills "Know"**		- Developing
Intelligence	Loyalty; Duty; Honor;	**Interpersonal***	**Conceptual***	- Building
Initiative	Respect; Integrity;	Training; Teaching	**Technical**	- Learning
	Selfless service;	Counseling;	**Tactical***	
	Personal courage	Delegating;		
		Motivating		

* The resulting tactical skills are different for the direct, organizational, and strategic leaders.

The driving forces behind leadership actions are the need for achievement, the search for power, the drive to become wealthy, the desired to be recognized and the urge to attain inner satisfaction (Hamilton, 1990). It is crucial that the leaders have the predisposition to be leaders (Hunt, 1991).

Among the limitations of the trait approach, we can find the difficulty to select leaders and managers (Mitchell & Larson, 1987) and the ignorance of the effects of subordinates upon leaders, the involving environment and the situation itself (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1990).

Leadership Styles

The leadership styles is concerned to what the leader does or allows to be done and how he actually does it (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1990). It is based on the premise that efficient leaders make used of a set of particular behaviors to influence the individual and the group to reach certain goals, resulting in a greater productivity or efficacy, and increased moral (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1990). The style approach suggest that leaders "can learn how to be effective leaders" (Chmiel, 2000). However there is not a single technique that "is the best for every situation" (Hamilton, 1990). The competent leaders show mixed elements from all styles (FM 22-100, 1999).

Based upon several studies (being those carried out at Ohio's and Michigan's Universities the most referred), it is possible to present a synthesis of the most known leadership

styles (see Table 6) (Cf. Hamilton, 1990; FM 22-100, 1999; Szilagyi & Wallace, 1990; Yukl, 1980).

Table 6 - Leadership Styles

Styles	Most suitable	Least suitable
Autocratic Forceful, directive, commanding	On emergency; when time is critical; with junior leaders in hierarchy.	In emerging, complex, or ambiguous situations.
Participative Involves an exchange leader-follower	In emerging, changing and problem-solving situations.	In structured, rigid and emergency situations. With lowers leaders in hierarchy.
Democratic Between autocratic and participative leadership. The leader takes his employees' views in account.	For situations that are difficult to diagnose; at the beginning of new methods.	In centralized networks and large groups
Task-oriented Similar to the concept of autocratic leadership	Idem autocratic style; when it is possible to make a close supervision.	Idem autocratic style; and with subordinates insufficiently prepared.
Follower-oriented Idem style participative	For short-term projects.	Idem autocratic style; when the environment is not favorable.
Consideration-oriented	In conjunction with task-oriented approaches.	When the confidence is weak, there are time constraints, and the environment is hostile.
Inductive Leaders encourage the work process allowing maximum degree of self-government and self-discipline.	In conjunction with consideration-oriented and task-oriented approaches.	For executives who are autocratic by nature.
Delegate, or management by objectives Freedom to pursue the objectives.	In higher echelons; when there is agreed upon objectives.	With the rank and files employees

Sources: Adapted from Hamilton, 1990; FM 22-100, 1999; Szilagyi & Wallace, 1990; Yukl, 1980.

Contingency Theories

In this approach the goal is to select the leadership style which better fit for the situation. On fig. 1 is presented the model of Tannembaum & Schmit (1973).

**Figure 1- Continuous of Leadership Behaviors**
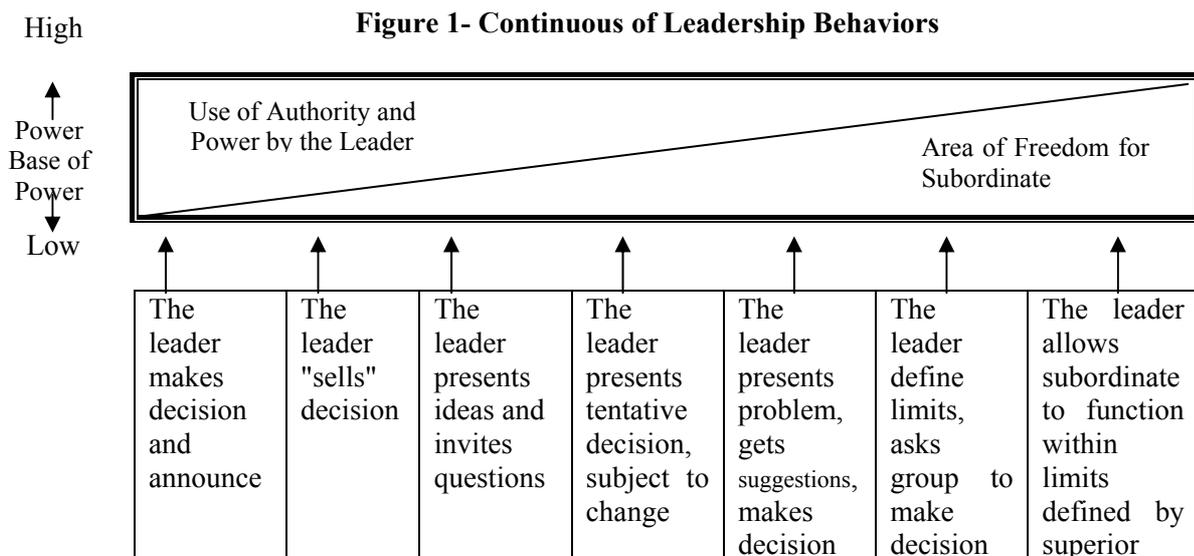
Sources: Adapted from Tannembaum & Schmit (1973).

Within this approach, the leader in order to diagnose a situation has to examine a) situational characteristics of him/herself and of the subordinate; b) group factors; c) organizational factors. Although it offers the leader a range of seven options to choose from

(Bothwell, 1983), this approach has as a disadvantage the fact that it has not taken into account the influence that subordinates' behavior may have upon the leader's (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1990).

Black and Mouton (1968) produced a management grid showing five managerial styles (fig. 2)

Figure 2 - The managerial grid
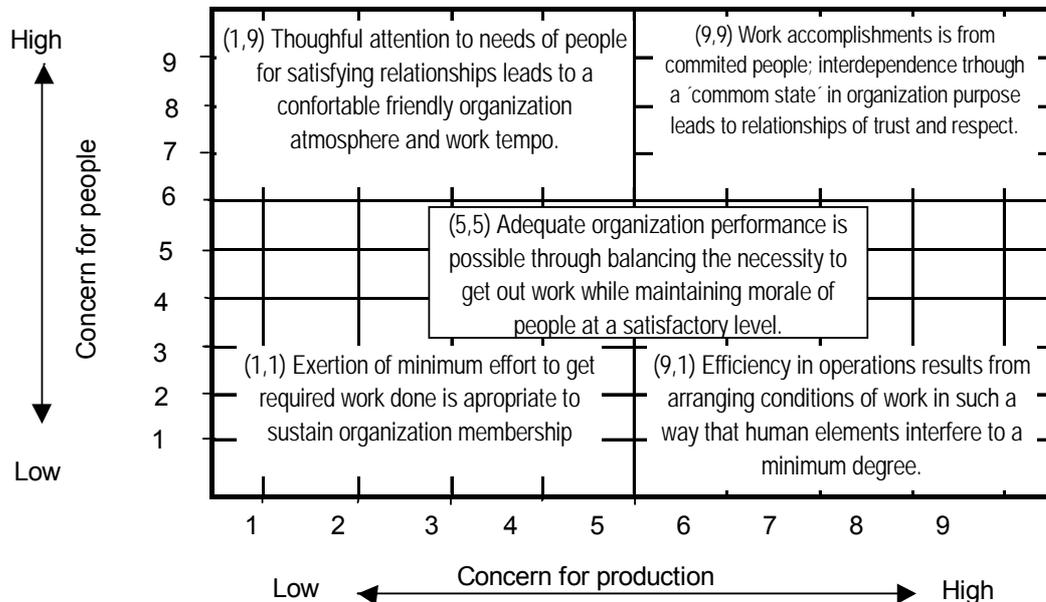
Source: Adapted from Black & Mouton (1968)

The five "pure" styles the authors identified are the following (cf., Bothwell, 1983):
1.1- Impoverished or laissez-faire.
1.9-Country club management
9,1-Task management or authority/obedience management
5,5-Middle-of-the-road management
9,9-Team management. This balance between personal needs and work musts is highly desirable. It is, however, very difficult to reach this condition (Rees, 1991).

Fidler's contingency model (1967), which defines leadership's efficacy through team's efficacy, is probably the most extensive research program on situations' contingent traits approach. Base on the leader's attitude towards the "least preferred coworker", the "task structure", the "power position" and the "leader-group relations" this model is concerned with two leadership orientations: the task-oriented-style and the relationship-oriented style.

Fiedler´s theory received some critics on the account of its simplicity and for being too static. More recently Fiedler & Garcia (1987) introduced three news parameters: cognitive capacities, intelligence and stress.

The Means-End Path-Goal model (House & Mitchell, 1974) and the Situational Leadership model (Vroom & Yetton, 1973) suggest the use of different styles when in different situations or circumstances.

The field of situational theories is extensive (cf. Vroom, 1976; Andrissen & Drenth, 1998; Furnham, 1999). In a given situation, a more efficacious leadership depends upon the way the following factors are mixed and the degree of that mixture (Hamilton, 1990):
- There is a mutual respect between leader and subordinates
- The work process is specified and inflexible
- The power to reward or punish that is inherent to the leader's position

Being this combination relatively rare, research has shown that in most favorable or unfavorable situations, directive or authoritarian leaders are the more successful. In Armed Forces, however, nothing is clearly favorable or unfavorable to the leader. Uncertainty walks

side by side with roles, tasks and goals defined. In those actions, the leader that tries to reduce tensions, conflicts and stress is the more likely to get productive results (Hamilton, 1990).

Each leader must seek for the style that best fits him/herself and to the lived situation, and take in consideration that if in leadership there exists the leader *and* the followers, the leader's image must transmit balance and confidence. The leader's image can change between the following styles:

- φ Active/demonstrative VS. Passive/reserved.
- φ Distant/remote VS. Lose/warm styles.
- φ Status, ceremony, and prerogatives.
- φ Dependence VS. Overdependence
- φ Perfectionism VS. Excellence

New Leadership

The word charisma has been employed to describe someone who is flamboyant, who can persuade others of the importance of his or her message (Bryman, 1992). According to Weber (1962), the charismatic leader is treated as if he/she is endowed with some supernatural qualities or powers or, at least, specifically exceptional, and hostile to the persecution from the self-interest. Opposing to Weber's assertion, which he referred to as extraordinary charisma, Shils (1968) suggest the existence of attenuated charismatic figures, dispersed by all the society, which obey to the law and respect the collective authority.

An objective of who wants to be a leader may be to develop a dynamic and charismatic personality. In Table 7 are presented 10 qualities that any charismatic leader must develop (Brewer & Russel, 1998).

Table 7 - Qualities of a Charismatic leader

📖 Have a strong sense of humor.
📖 Build a mystique around yourself.
📖 Look like a winner and act like one.
📖 Be committed to what you are doing.
📖 Be interested in others and show kindness.
📖 Be known for the strength of your character.
📖 Prepare and work hard at every task you do.
📖 Have grace under pressure (J. F. Kennedy).
📖 Steadily advance in the direction of your goals.
📖 Have big dreams, a vision and reach for the sky

Sources: Adapted from Brewer & Russel, 1998

Efficacious leaders learn how to elicit the imputation of charisma by their followers. A common dimension for behaviors of charismatic leaders lies on self-denial and self-sacrifice, in a demonstration of their "the commitment to the transcendent values" (Faris, 1981).

A recent trend on leadership studies lies in the distinction between transformational leadership, that focus on the inspiration, the vision and the changing, and transactional leadership, that bring to focus the technical base of accomplishment and of rewards and punishment (Furnham, 1999).

Influence activities of transformational leaders amplifies the impact from transactional leaders (Deluga, 1991). According to FM 22-100 (1999), transformational style allows to take advantage from the use of the skills and know-how of experienced subordinates, whom can produce the best ideas on how to accomplish the mission.

Bain and Mabey (1999) defend the idea of *inspirational* leadership as well as of *checking* leadership. In inspirational leadership, the leader is very much visible and is a role model; checking leadership lies on organizational goals transparency.

Kouses and Posner (1988) identified 5 attitudes, which they called *behavioral methods* or *practices*, and 10 compromises that remarkable leaders have in common. Those attitudes are:

a) to defy the process; b) to inspire a shared vision; c) to prepare the others to act; d) to model the way; and e) to encourage the heart.

Much in the same way, Kinlaw (1989) identified 5 characteristics of *superior* leaders: a) establishing a vision; b) stimulation of new competencies; c) help in overcoming obstacles; d) leadership by example; and e) including others in their successes.

Penteado (1986) asserts that leadership is not teachable but can be stimulated. Much in the same way Linvingstone (1989) underlines how important it is for the leaders to have confidence in their capabilities to help followers to develop. Furnham (1999) considers the *Pygmalion effect* (the capability to develop the potential of followers) as very important. In a similar way Sims and Lorenzi (1992) point out that, in order to be a exceptional leader, one has to built an environment that lead the others to orient themselves. This can be done through self-management practice; by being an example of self-leadership; and by creating positive thinking patterns.

In a connective and interpenetrate era, when the connections between concepts, persons and environment are progressively more stretched, when physical and political barriers no longer protect against external attacks or constitute obstacles to locomotion and when a new sovereignity emerged, environmental sovereignity, Lipman-Blumen (1999) defends the promotion of a *connective leadership*, based upon the paradigmatic changes that, for this author, are now occurring on leadership (see Table 8).

Table 8 -Connective Leadership Model

Direct Group- dominates their own tasks.
Intrinsic style - exceeds.
Competitive style - surpass performance.
Power style - assumes command.
Relational group - contributes to the tasks of others.
Collaborative style - join forces together.
Contributive style - helps.
Vicariate style – mentor
Instrumental group - maximizes interactions.
Personal style - convinces.
Social style - establish nets.
Confident style - give power.

LEADERSHIP AIMING TO THE FUTURE

The journey to understand leadership is a never-ending one (Lipman-Blumen, 1999). According to Fachada (1991), based upon readings on the conclusions extracted from recent studies and research, one has the feeling that efficacy, production and gains are much more valued then persons, values and relationships.

In Portugal, and particularly in the Army, the word "Leader" is not much in use. More commonly it is used the word "Command". In the *Dicionário Universal da Língua Portuguesa*, a major dictionary, the verb "to command" means "to direct, to give orders, to lead, to be at the head of, to dominate". But what I learned through my career is that "to command" is not only "to give orders" but also "to be at the head of with others, with their collaboration and enthusiasm".

The Ayto's Dictionary of Word Origins, (1990) makes clear the subject. *Commandare* is a verb that came from the Latin, formed from the intensive prefix *com* (which means *together, in association, simultaneously*) and from the verb *mandare* /which means *entrust, commit to someone's charge,* and also *order*). *Commandare* is, then, to lead with the others, in the better order and not disorder and against the others. The greater difficulties that a leader faces are raised by human problems resulting from knowledge and from interpersonal relationship

Commandare, in our days, must be acted as a *humanize leadership*, and not only as a defense leadership of human rights or state superior interests, with two different weights and measures. This is extremely important in a time when the internationalization of the military

profession, and the opening of its traditional ethos to the dimension of globalism (Carrilho, 1999) may originate some values confounding.

When a *command* is exercised, humanize leadership is essential, in the words of Gardner and Lasking (1996). There is a need to better understand the arena where leadership occurs, that means, the human mind. The participants have a history, a message, an organization, and a technical knowledge that only is absorbed if credibility is gained and sustained. Leadership is a meaning-management process (Smith and Peterson, 1988).

Being leadership an observable process, constituted by observable techniques that may be learned (Kouses & Posner, 1993), it is important for futures leaders to be trained in several different competencies, taking advantage of Social Psychology, Organizational Psychology and Behavioral and Cognitive approaches (Pamplona, 1987, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1996; Pamplona & Costa, 1993; Pamplona & Oliveira, 1996), dealing with the art of *delegation,* of carrying on efficacious meetings, of problem-solving, decision making, counseling, assertiveness, anger control, empathy, moral reasoning, cooperation, and so on.

To know how to lead is crucial for the efficacy of all the organization. That is why it is important its identification at the different levels and to improve its potential (Bain & Mbey, 1999).

Leadership is "given" by the followers and the organizations of the future will make an exigency for leadership at all levels, and not only at the top level (Gardner, 1999).

In promoting leadership one can not forget that individuals aspire to be considered and recognized by them. Mentalities of today they do not easily adapt to the more traditional styles of *command* (Peyrelongue, 1993). But constructing leadership does not include only the face-to-face influencing process, but also the indirect influence, which implies education and instruction.

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