

LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR PEACEBUILDING OPERATIONS

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Threats were specified and in mass in the past, and then are transformed to multi-directional, multi-dimensional, and volatile structure in early 21st century. Hence uncertainty and instability dominate operational area. Today, security is comprehended solely not military but political, economic, lawful, psychological, and technological in a holistic approach. Towards this end, global security environment may be defined with three key words: circulation, complexity, and contingency. Within this context, aim of the mission is to enforce peace and restore stability by proactive measures. However, it seems impossible to have fruitful results in peace building operations by training 21st century people with a mindset of pre-Cold War time. Hence, the study aims at revealing the need for change in curriculum of officers to get deployed in peace building operations. The study, therefore, proposes a unified body taking on nationwide responsibility to manage training operations, and lays out relevant programs and tools to be included in curriculum.

Key words: Military Leadership, Contingent Leadership, Operational Leadership, Leadership, UN, PKO, Peacebuilding

1. INTRODUCTION

Peacebuilding operations are missions to provide nations sustainable peace and security conditions aiming to aid in settlement of political stabilization (UN, 2008). We may categorize peacebuilding operations into three groups. Very first operations resolve conflicts between/among parties and secure peace agreements (Kühne, 1999). The United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF), the United Nations Peacebuilding Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP), and the United Nations Disagreement Observer Force (UNDOF) are classical missions (Sigri & Basar, 2014).

Unsuccessful operations following the end of Cold War are the turning point for peacebuilding operations (Kühne, 1999). It is renowned that the end of Cold War transformed the civil-military system (Kiss, 2000, p. xiii). Accordingly, the structure of peacebuilding operations changed from passive observation to active participation (Dandeker & Gow, 1997). The missions, aimed to establish sustainable peace environments by removing

root causes. The United Nations Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG), the United Nations Operations in Mozambique (UNOMOZ) and the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC) may be some examples in this sense (Sigri & Basar, 2014).

9/11 is another milestone that shaped international security understanding. Threats were specified and in mass, and then were transformed to multi-directional, multi-dimensional, and volatile structure following 9/11. Hence uncertainty and instability dominate operational area. Today, security is comprehended solely not military but politically, economic, lawful, psychological, and technological in a holistic approach. Dillon (2005) describes global security environment with three key words: circulation, complexity, and contingency. Within this context, aim of the mission is to enforce peace and restore stability by proactive measures. The United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR), the United Nations Mission in Haiti (UNMIH), and the United Nations Transitional Administration for Eastern Slavonia, Baranja and Western Sirmium (UNTAES) are first examples of this generation (Sigri & Basar, 2014).

In concordance with this comprehension, peacebuilding operations range humanitarian aid to relief, military-civic cooperation to riot, infrastructure reconstruction to reconciliation, counter insurgency to public relations. Peacebuilding operations have a proactive structure that strengthens fallen states, projects power to hinder terrorist attacks, and stabilizes environment bewildered by insurgents.

The success of peacebuilding operations heavily depends upon managerial skills (Sigri, 2015). Hence, leadership is a multiplier that missions easily and better adapt to changes. Contingency leadership is reshaped by imminent threats, uncertain characteristics of operational area, and ongoing peacebuilding operations. Dupuy (1979, p.39) lists leadership as well as training, morale, and logistics as major components of operational effectiveness. As McCall (1998) stresses that leadership development is aligned with strategy. National strategies do not focus threats required by military or diplomacy anymore; instead, a broader concept including employing intangible means is in use (Caudle, 2009). Yarger (2008) mentions politic, economic, socio-psychological, and military powers to protect national interests. Nations, thus, seek collaboration and cooperation with regional contingencies and other nations, to power projection prior to conflicts as deterrence.

Towards this end, it is unanimously contended that change in media, science and technology, the Internet, globalization, socio-cultural aspects, and environmental management leads to the need to revise qualifications of a peacebuilding operation leader. Also change of actors in the field is the fundamental reason of the need. For instance, non-governmental organizations, in particular, are a part of conflicts and nontrivial actors of resolutions (Caforio, 2013). Moreover, speed of change and degree of uncertainty is ever growing. However, leaders are still trained in conventional manner that they are not mentally, physically and psychologically ready

for contemporary peacebuilding operations. Operations other than war require extra commanding knowledge, skills, and abilities than conventional war concept. Moreover, peacebuilders have roles as a negotiator, a mediator, an information collector, a surveyor, and a facilitator differentiating themselves than traditional missions (Juvan & Vuga, 2011). Sigri & Topcu (2012) underlines the significance of training peacebuilders in order to gain mentioned competencies. Similarly, Day and colleagues (2009) highlight the need to give impetus to leader development. Öztürk (2015, p. 127) stresses deficiencies in competencies of militaries deployed in overseas missions.

Begec (1999) points that army leaders need to be ready to take on responsibilities in supranational contingencies. Sigri (2015) investigates convenient leadership skills for peacebuilders and recommends authorities to develop a pre-deployment training curriculum.

To the authors' best understanding; it seems impossible to have fruitful results in peacebuilding operations by training 21st century people with a mindset of pre-Cold War time. Hence, the study aims at revealing the need for change in curriculum of peacebuilders to take on deployments in peacebuilding operations. The study, therefore, proposes a unified body taking on nationwide responsibility to manage training operations, and lays out relevant programs and tools to be included in curriculum.

2. BACKGROUND

Following Cold War, there is an instable and uncertain environment resulting from micro nationalism, desire for independency, sovereignty demands, terrorism, ethnic cleansing, mass destruction weapons proliferation, radical Islam and fundamentalism. Due to changes in the threats, security is reconsidered all around the world. Transition to multi-polar world has long-term consequences for defense security systems all over the world (Heidenkamp et al., 2011). For instance, NATO modified its role aftermath dissolution of Soviets. Collective defense is

redefined and collective security is introduced. NATO accepts collective security as shared responsibility for international order. Another significant step is the change in UN manner towards peacebuilding operations (Yost, 1998). UN (1992) introduced its agenda for peace and stressed significance of preventive diplomacy that peace and security are not independent of humanitarian aid. This is very similar with NATO strategic concept including employing civil resources into peacebuilding process.

Future scenarios regarding conflicts and force generation are discussed by several

authors. For instance, Kaplan points failed states, scarce resources, and ethnic violence as sources of conflicts and focuses on peacebuilding to prevent war and slaughter. Likewise, Toffler stresses the gap between first wave culture and the rest and believes in that technical capacity and information retrieval raises awareness on asymmetric threats. On the other hand, Huntington highlights cultural conflicts at vulnerable countries such as Turkey, Russia, and Mexico and underlines identifying national interests to overcome threats, and war against terrorism. A comparison of discussion is given below.

Table 1. Future Scenarios regarding Conflicts and Force Generation (Snadgrass, 2000, p. 17)

	Sources of Conflicts	Expected Results	Recommendations for Force Development	Possible Missions Other than War
Kaplan	Failed States Scarce Resources Ethnic Violence	War and slaughter	Focus on peacebuilding	- Peacebuilding - Humanitarian Aid - Counterinsurgency - National Aid
Tofflers	Conflict among first and second cultural wave and third wave	Failed states struggle with third wave cultural dominance. Asymmetric threats arise.	Focus on technical capacity and information retrieving. Awareness on asymmetric threats	War against terrorism Armaments Control
Huntington	Conflicts between/among 7 th and 8 th region people	Cultural conflicts at vulnerable countries such as Turkey, Russia, and Mexico	Stress on identifying national interest to overcome threats, and war against terrorism	Security Support War against terrorism National Aid Armaments Control

It is clear that it is impossible to be successful in peacebuilding operations with a mindset of pre-Cold War time. We need to

redefine threats, operational area, and workforce requirements. As a good starting point, Caudle

(2009) lists the drivers of change in security concepts as follows:

- Diffusion of power instead of polarization
- Active role of non-state actors
- Proliferation of mass destruction weapons
- Natural disasters
- Espionage
- Migrations
- Scarcity of oil
- Pandemics
- Sustainability
- Climate change
- Economic crises
- Weaknesses in democracy
- Socio-economic vulnerability resulting from business world
- Poverty and income gaps

Following identifying the future warfare, problematic areas awaiting decision-makers, it is absolutely obvious that a proactive plan will be required. Thus some new operational areas are introduced. For instance; operations other than war (OOTW), proposed and declared by the U.S., are organized to restore regional stability, protect democracy, establish or sustain formal regime, provide humanitarian aid to the poor, advocate national interests, and assist governmental organizations. As conventional war aims to gain a victory by destruction of target's war fighting ambition and determination, OOTW has more political aims like deterring war, conflict resolution, building peace, and assisting governmental organizations (Tucker, 1998, p. 3).

By means of the concept of OOTW, civil-military relations are transformed. Civilians are considered major component of military since reaching hearts and minds of civilians is a prerequisite for the success (Kiss, 2000, p. 20). Civil work in peacebuilding operations includes local government's operations and functions. Civil-military cooperation (CIMIC) may review civil authorities' competence, communicate with civilians, control allocation of resources, and coordinate with international

organizations. CIMIC personnel are expected to have knowledge on local culture and languages (Hasskamp, 1998).

To this end, in addition to conventional skills, we may list capabilities of a deployed contingent to operate in OOTW.

- Facilitating returning displaced people,
- Establishment and sustainment of public security,
- Coordination of reconstructing economy and infrastructure,
- CIMIC equipped with technology and local language,
- Conducting psychological operations to assist implementing military and politic decisions
- Running PR center in the operational area
- Conducting media relations,
- Consulting higher HQs on legal issues,
- Regulating relations with host nation, and
- Providing support on political issues.

Aftermath, organizational structures of contingencies are changed. Post-modern perspective presents smaller and more professional bodies. Supranational and regional organizations are considered a must for nations to collaborate for international order and mutual future. Regional contingencies are, therefore, formed. For instance, Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe is reformed for more inclusive Europe in 1990. AFRICOM is another example to play a major role rather than international organizations, i.e. UN, NATO, and EU. Some other institutions such as SEEBRIG are established to further cooperate and work together prior to crises. Although, it is believed in that nations, as a part of conflict and located in the region, would find solution easily, this didn't work.

Kiss (2000) researches what lessons-learned of Kosovo war are and future directions are recommended to prevent possible difficulties for peacebuilding operations. Findings by Sigri and Basar (2015) confirm the need of revision of leadership training related to contingencies. The researchers interviews with military reveal that changes in asymmetric warfare necessitate

changes in training. Moreover, Smith (2015) lays out a more decentralized model in the exploration of leadership in peace operations.

Problems related to peacebuilding operations may be grouped into categories as follows (Kiss, 2000; Sigri & Basar, 2015):

- Military terminology;
- Cultural awareness on local area;
- Cultural awareness on deployed nations;
- History about host nation;
- Problem solving and decision-making;
- Effective communication skills;
- Civil-military relations;
- Logistics management;
- Budget management;
- Subordinates' irrelevant performance.

Leadership is the process of influencing and inspiring the others through a shared vision. To this end, leaders in peacebuilding operations need to know how to manage behaviors in multicultural environment, to manage motivation to succeed in volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous operational area, and to manage talents for an effective teamwork. Hence, leaders involved in peacebuilding operations require quite different skills to motivate subordinates. To overcome problems mentioned above, educational curriculum, training programs, and orientations need to be revised and are effectively conducted.

3. SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Education and training are effective tools to develop knowledge, skills, and abilities in leader development (Conger & Benjamin, 1999). Preece and Iles (2009) highlight five uncertainties related to executive development as knowledge, career, behavioral, personal, and contextual. Competence-based education is developed to fill the gap. as Reed and colleagues (2004) propose an adaptive model of curriculum development fed by field observations, lessons learned, studies, and researches. According to McCauley and

colleagues (1998), formal training is a part of leadership development experiences; therefore, formal education is complemented by lifelong learning programs.

It is certain that organizational effectiveness is positively related to high performance leadership. Key skills for high performance leadership are interpersonal relations and individual work performance.

It seems that there are two main challenges for leadership development: shift in leadership literature and change in operational environment.

Effective peacebuilding operations require additional knowledge, skills, and abilities on the following issues mentioned below (United States Congressional Budget Office Report, 1999, p.7):

- Recognition enforcement of human rights;
- Check points operations;
- Conducting negotiations and mediations;
- Disarming groups;
- Managing dislocated people;
- Civil military coordination;
- Maintaining public order;
- Effective interaction with media.

To this end, competency framework of leadership in peacebuilding operations may additionally include managing cultural differences, soft skills, managing crises, managing technology and innovation, and operating civil-military relations.

Managing cultural differences comprises cultural orientation for host nation, cultural orientation for deployed nations, and diversity management. Conflict with local authorities generally results from unawareness on local culture. Especially civil relations require effective communication and coordination skills that deployed people are not familiar with. In order to operate efficiently and effectively in the area, deployed people need to be equipped with adequate knowledge about local culture, history, language, and traditions. Sigri & Topcu (2012) finds out that critical factors for an effective management in highly volatile and complex environment are awareness on cultural differences and deep understanding of other deployed nations' cultures.

Otherwise, conflicts among contingencies are experienced due to share of scarce resources and cultural differences. Cultural integration methods are proposed by Sigri & Topcu (2012) to manage cultural differences.

Crises management addresses leading operations in volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous environment that advert circumstances into opportunities for creativity and flexibility. Change in policies, technology, economy, and society lead to high volatility (Heidenkamp et al., 2011). Operational areas are, therefore, more volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous if operations are performed in diverse regions with decentralized management under less political guidance. Communication, teamwork based on trust, and shared vision are the key performance indicators (Abidin, 2014).

Soft skills are related to interaction and socialization between leaders and others as Northouse (2004) considers problem-solving and social judgment as the heart of leadership skills. Communication problems led by personal deficiencies are highly reported in peacebuilding operations (Yapar, 2001, p. 68). Effective interaction and socialization improve effective communication between the leader and the subordinates. Sigri (2015) reveals that managerial skills required by peacebuilding operations are self-awareness, stress management, effective problem-solving, positive communication, motivation management, conflict management, delegation and accountability, and group dynamics management. Abidin (2014) highlights human dimension of leadership and researches how to improve interpersonal skills to increase adaptability of leaders. Canadian Forces Leadership Institute (2005) gives priority to participation, self-awareness, and influencing. Bartone and colleagues (1998) points out the significance of maintaining soldiers' psychological readiness during peacebuilding operations and make some recommendations on countermeasures. The researchers direct leaders through dealing with the feeling of

isolation, boredom, powerlessness, ambiguity, and danger.

Managing technology and innovation is a prerequisite asset for 21st leaders. New generations have far reached a capability using technological solutions to complex problems.

Problems and disharmony in civilian-military relations is the main challenge for peacebuilding operations (Sigri & Basar, 2014, p. 391). Challenges for military to sustain civil-military relations are difference in terminology, culture, concept, mission, and motivation (Metcalf et al., 2012, p. 29). However, they provide opportunities to use resources effectively and efficiently and to accelerate recovery duration (Braun, 2008). Therefore, George (2002) concludes that operations can be more proactive and cooperative in civil-military relations. Civil-military relations concentrate on governance, infrastructure, economy, culture, humanitarian aid, gender streaming, crisis management, and rule of law (Weezel, 2011, p. 15). Governmental agencies, NGOs, and international organizations make life difficult for military and cases more vague, uncertain, and complex. The more military are familiar with civilians, the more cooperative they are (George, 2002). Otherwise because of organizational culture, a military is reluctant to work closely with international organizations and nongovernmental organizations (Pollick, 2000, p. 59). It may be conceded that military had better start to cooperate with civilians in early phases of operations.

Missions are performed with close work with other nations and other organizations. Pollick (2000) states that 1700 civilian agencies had been active in Bosnia in 1996. Diversity in peacebuilding operations results from personnel with different ranks, services, and nations, local personnel, and people working for nongovernmental agencies. There are also differences in planning, decision-making and employing procedures among agents involved in operations. Although everybody has SOPs in the mission, each perception differs due to cultural differences. Diversity management seems to be a

must for leaders to get along with others and perform the mission.

Education and training programs consisting of above-mentioned skills, ability, and

knowledge for high performance leadership in peacebuilding operations may be grouped into five categories.



Figure 1. Education and training programs for high performance leadership in peacebuilding operations.

The first group is undergraduate education for people in uniform, i.e. military, gendarmerie, and police. The forces that change roles and responsibilities in an operational area come from many sources. In order to deal with the forces, well-educated leaders should be equipped with new competencies. Thus, there are three main pillars in undergraduate education system, i.e. academic lectures, physical education and field training. Lectures need to include operations management in stabilization, civil-military relations, humanitarian aid, relief, and counter insurgency. In addition to main lectures, case studies may be embedded in other classes such as leadership, military ops management, war history, and law. Topic areas for a contemporary operational leadership are shown in Table 2.

Basic training comprises the second group. The group aims at sustaining knowledge and equipping peacebuilders with a toolkit for operations. Thus, civil military relations, stabilization operations, counter insurgency operations, humanitarian aid operations, relief operations, riot operations, conflict management may be included in the curriculum.

Predeployment training is a key activity in the program. Official communication style (NATO, UN and host nation), law (engagement rules, international law, host nation law), cultural orientation for host nation and deployed nations, diversity management, group dynamics, effective leadership in uncertain environment and crisis management are the main tracks for a mission-oriented training .

Orientation training is another part of the program, which adapts leaders to the operational

area. Training within the group planned to be deployed would be more effective. Regarding diversity in missions, training prior to deployment is important. Leaders are observed how they treat translators, communicate with other contingents, and affect local people and opinion leaders. Scenario based training is the best methodology for leaders to gain effective soft communication skills, i.e. communication skills.

On-site training is not the final part of the program, but a dynamic and ongoing activity in the program.

Cultural orientation for host nation and deployed nations are repeated on the site upon deployment. Newcomers may be trained by incumbents on the job for a couple of days for more effective results.

Table 1 Topic Areas for Undergraduate Education

Topic Area	Grade	Topic Area	Grade
Leadership History Review	1	Organizational Development	3
War History	1	Human Resource Management	3
Management and Organization	1	Crisis Management	3
Organizational Behavior	1	Conflict Resolution and Negotiation Management	3, 4
Risk Management	1	Innovation Management	3, 4
Stress Management	1	Mindfulness and Resilience	3
Efficient Communication Skills	1, 2	Social Media Management	4
International Law	1, 2	Mentorship and Facilitation	4
PR and Media Management	1, 2, 3	Diversity Management	4
Positive Psychology	2	Cross-cultural Studies	4
Training Management	2	Expatriate Management	4
Strategic Management	2	Contemporary Leadership Theories	4
Change Management	2	Public Diplomacy	4
Social Responsibility and Sustainability Management	3		

4. CONCLUSION

The success of peacebuilding operations heavily depends upon leadership skills. Hence, leadership is a multiplier that can easily and better be adapted to changes. Peacebuilding leadership is reshaped by imminent threats, uncertain operational area characteristics, and ongoing peacebuilding operations. To this end, it is unanimously contended that change in media, science and technology, the Internet, globalization, socio-cultural aspects, and environmental management leads to the need to revise qualifications of a leader. Also change of actors in the field is the fundamental reason of the need. For instance, non-

governmental organizations, in particular, are a part of conflicts and nontrivial actors of resolutions. Moreover, speed of change and degree of uncertainty are ever growing. However, leaders are still trained in conventional manner and they are not mentally, physically and psychologically ready for contemporary peacebuilding operations. Operations other than war require extra commanding knowledge, skills, and abilities than conventional concept. Furthermore, peacebuilders play roles such as negotiator, mediator, information collector, surveyor, and facilitator.

To the authors' best understanding; it seems impossible to have fruitful results in

peacebuilding operations by training 21st century people with a mindset of pre-Cold War time. Hence, the study aimed at revealing the need for change in educational and training programs for peacebuilding operations. Keeping the need in mind, a curriculum is developed for undergraduate education and some issues are recommended for other types of trainings.

The study introduces an integrated model for leadership training for peacebuilding operations. Future scenarios indicate that overseas deployments will increase and operations at uncertain and volatile areas will be routine. Therefore, we need to revise our training programs in order to have reliable, result-oriented, creative and innovative leaders on the job.

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