

# Officer, practise what you preach!

*Research on effects and interventions in military officer socialization  
at the Royal Military Academy*



S. Dalenberg

Typography & Design: Marcel Groenhuis  
Cover design: Mirjam Saris  
Printed by: Repro NLDA Breda  
ISBN: 978-90-88920-73-8

© Sander Dalenberg

*All rights reserved. Without limiting the rights under copyright reserved above, no part of this book may be reproduced, sorted in or introduced into a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means (electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise) without the permission of the author of the book.*

# **Officer, practise what you preach!**

*Research on effects and interventions in military officer socialization  
at the Royal Military Academy*

Proefschrift

ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor  
aan de Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen  
op gezag van de rector magnificus prof. dr. J.H.J.M. van Krieken,  
volgens besluit van het college van decanen  
in het openbaar te verdedigen op maandag 11 december 2017  
om 10.30 uur precies

door

Sander Dalenberg  
geboren op 8 oktober 1973  
te Celle (Duitsland)

**Promotor:**

Prof. dr. D.E.M. Verweij

**Copromotor:**

Dr. R. Moelker (Nederlandse Defensie Academie)

**Manuscriptcommissie:**

Prof. dr. J.A. Verbeek

Prof. dr. B. Beersma (Vrije Universiteit)

Dr. P.H.J. Olsthoorn (Nederlandse Defensie Academie)





## Acknowledgements

Writing a dissertation and endeavouring to obtain a PhD not only requires sacrifices from the PhD candidate, but also has an impact on one's social environment. Without the support and the opportunities provided by several colleagues, relatives and friends, I would not have succeeded in accomplishing this objective. Therefore, it is with considerable gratitude that I convey my appreciation to various people who were important to me during the process of writing this monograph.

First and foremost, the Netherlands armed forces for granting me the opportunity. Lifelong learning is the credo of the Netherlands Defence Academy. The personal development of officers never ends but when, in 1992, I started at the Royal Military Academy I never would have thought that my personal development would also comprise such academic achievement. After all, I joined the armed forces after finishing high school to combine sports, adventure and academic achievement, in all honesty, mostly because academic achievement was only a 'small' part of it (at least, as I understood it in those days). In 1995, after graduating as an officer, the idea that I would obtain a PhD seemed unimaginable.

Some of the people who inspired me to explore the field of academic work in my early stages as an officer are sadly no longer among us. I refer to Rudy Richardson and Ad Vogelaar, tutors during my initial officer education, and respected colleagues at the faculty of military sciences. I cannot find enough words to express my appreciation for their never-ending optimism, support and inspiration. They urged me to persevere in studying, to upgrade my officer's degree to a master's degree, and to strive for academic publications. As a second lieutenant cavalry officer, I fell under the responsibility of very inspirational commanders and as a military psychologist I worked with various professional colleagues. All inspired me to perform at my very best. Without such a stimulating environment, both operational and academic, my personal development would not have grown to this level.

Whilst writing my PhD I was thankful for Rene and his endless optimism and jokes, which with striking precision indicated the essence of my next steps (e.g. military men making plans and crossing start lines). I envy his talent to write a piece within such a short amount of time. Furthermore, I would like to thank Desiree for her inspirational attitude in keeping a critical eye on everything, and my own process and effects in particular.

Research and writing takes time. My gratitude therefore goes to various colleagues for being good sports, for giving me the opportunity to write and for helping me with the analysis (Gwen, Maurice, Manon, Tessa, Peter); for thinking about ethics, ethics training development and critical thinking concerning the Cadet Corps' introduction period (Jolanda, Eva, Marenne, Eric-Hans, Nadine); and just for nice chats and discussions round the coffee machine or in the train back to Gouda (Guus, Rob, Hans, Erik, Tom); and to my current colleagues (in particular Nicole, my buddy Maurice and my team members, you know who

you are). I must explicitly mention one other colleague, namely Jacco, without whose help and support I would not have made it. Jacco, your scrupulous comments, meticulous insights and, moreover, your kind and motivating words propelled me time and again to sit at the computer and get down to refining my manuscript.

The cadets who participated in my research also deserve credit. I refer not only to all the cadets who participated as respondents and acted as good sports during various interviews and discussions, but also those in particular who joined the coordination commission as chairmen (Jan-Willem, Stefan, Leon, Pieter-Bas). It must have been a hell of a job to work with a Lieutenant Colonel who made a habit out of asking difficult questions without offering any of the answers you longed for. Furthermore, recognition of effort is in order for various other cadets (Stan, Anne, Ilse, Marlies) who were working on their bachelor dissertations and by doing so assisted me with the literature survey and supported me with the distribution of questionnaires.

Others who must be mentioned are the colleagues at the Defence Recruitment and Selection Centre (Myckel, Jack, Robert) for their support and never-ending persistence in finding the right files. Without this support, the data of personality surveys would still be 'lost' somewhere in the crypts of a data graveyard.

Furthermore, my gratitude and appreciation go to family and friends. My close neighbours (Anne, Rudolf, Christian and Els) for their interest in the topic and, probably even without being aware of it, for re-igniting my motivation to write.

In general, and not only with regard to writing my PhD monography, but also for many achievements in my occupational career so far, I would like to express my gratitude to my parents for their general support, the pride they take in me, and, in particular, for encouraging me to be curious and to strive for accomplishments. They instilled into me the notion that you should finish what you started. This notion frequently crossed my mind, especially during the last part of the process of writing down my findings. It is an attitude I hope to pass down to my children, Joris and Merel. I am very proud of them and thankful that they played patiently while I was writing, (mostly) on Wednesday and Friday afternoons or even on weekends, and, moreover, for dealing with a dad on a seven-month mission in Afghanistan.

Last but surely not least, I owe unimaginable and great appreciation to Annemieke, for being a strong and powerful woman who is always supporting and firmly in charge of family business whilst performing very well in her own professional vocation. Thanks for being you, I love you.





*In loving memory of my grandmother*

*Manny Lemein-Weerts*

## Prologue: Like knows Like

My grandmother (1918-2014) was a very wise person. She never really judged, although I am sure that she did not lack a pertinent opinion. For a large part of my childhood she was present at my parents' home when my sister and I returned from primary school and even from secondary education. When I was approximately eight or nine years old, a calendar in our living room showed a picture of a father and son on a beach walking towards the sea. Both were just walking, hands behind their backs, without conversing, and the same foot forward. The caption said: Like knows like [In Dutch: 'ons kent ons']. After looking at the picture for a moment, little Sander Dalenberg looked at his grandmother and said: 'That is what we have as well, isn't it?' I obviously did not expect, at that age, that 'like knows like' would turn out to be of great importance when studying the topic of military socialization. In general, the meaning of 'like knows like' is simple and intuitive; the more similar a person is to oneself, the easier it is to get to know or understand that person, even without words. A second but related meaning of the phrase 'like knows like' is knowing through analogy. This usage goes back at least to the Pre-Socratic era, and especially with respect to Empedocles (Kamtekar, 2009). Though it might be used as a substitute for the phrase, 'it takes one to know one', 'like knows like' is not normally used critically whereas 'it takes one to know one' often has a negative connotation.

The concept of 'like is known by like' was a major philosophical doctrine. As far back as early in the 5th century B.C., Pythagoras taught that the extent or depth of our knowledge of the divine depends on us being like the divine, or on us assimilating the divine. The idea was that, to the degree that we have knowledge of the divine, we must have changed our own character from human to divine. The doctrine of 'like is known by like' was quite influential on later philosophical and religious schools of thought, especially on Neoplatonism.

One might also apply 'like knows like' from an ethical viewpoint to mean 'being good enables a person to know what good is'. The idea that virtuous behaviour somehow illuminates moral truth suggests that more virtuous people have a greater ability to know moral truth. It implies a community spirit, a sense of belonging and knowing people really well, although not necessarily always in a positive context. However, when imagining beneficial consequences, perhaps being good facilitates 'growing' the virtuous behaviour of newcomers (i.e. a child looking at his grandmother or new recruits looking at senior cadets). The notion that knowing each other well can lead to sharing the same virtues is one of the leading premises of this dissertation.

From August 2010 until April 2016, I worked as an assistant professor at the Netherlands Defence Academy. During that period, in an additional role, I was the mentor of the coordination commission. This is a group of cadets who are in charge of the Cadet Corps' introduction period, or, in other words, the Cadet Corps' initiation. With the purpose of contributing to the education of young aspirant colleagues, I started studying the Cadet

Corps' introduction period as a specific military officer socialization period and wondered whether 'like knows like' really is a helpful philosophy.

To be brief, although driven to improve and help the military organization, the inspiration for this dissertation and the motivation for finishing it stems, for a great deal, from my love for my grandmother and the way we understood each other, her curiosity, consideration and, foremost, her ability not to prejudge, to see beyond the superficial and to understand; in short, her wisdom.

# Contents

<b>Acknowledgements .....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>Prologue: Like knows Like.....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1. The problem .....</b>	<b>21</b>
1.1 Introduction.....	21
1.2 Initiation as socialization .....	22
1.3 Military officer initiation .....	22
1.4 Initiation at the Royal Military Academy .....	23
1.5 Problem Statement .....	25
1.5.1 Aim of the study .....	26
1.5.2 Research questions .....	27
1.5.3 Relevance and academic contribution.....	27
1.6 Thesis outline.....	30
<b>2. Theoretical framework .....</b>	<b>33</b>
2.1 Introduction .....	33
2.1.1 Socialization within military organizations .....	34
2.1.2 History and contemporary developments in the Cadet Corps.....	35
2.1.2.1 Historical developments Cadet Corps' introduction 1830-2011 .....	35
2.1.2.2 1830-1955: No rules .....	35
2.1.2.3 1955-1978: Development of rules .....	37
2.1.2.4 1979-1995: Searching for balance.....	39
2.1.2.5 1995-2011: Diversity of new recruits.....	39
2.1.3 Programme and purpose of the CCIP .....	41
2.1.4 Cadet Corps' ethos.....	43
2.1.5 Sub-Conclusion history and Cadet Corps' ethos .....	44
2.2 Theory on the socialization process and socialization effects:	
officer socialization at the KMA from the perspective of organizational socialization ..	45
2.2.1 Organizational socialization .....	45
2.2.2 The organizational approach.....	46
2.2.3 Military officer socialization .....	48
2.2.4 The CCIP in theoretical perspective .....	50
2.2.5 Adherence to values .....	51
2.2.6 The seven Cadet Corps' norms and values .....	55
2.2.6.1 The cadet's promise: Honesty, Loyalty and Obedience.....	55
2.2.6.2 Behave respectfully and honour traditions: Respect and Traditions.....	55

2.2.6.3 Be creative and show effort: Effort and Creativity .....	56
2.2.6.4 Bring comradeship and show collegiality: Comradeship and collegiality.....	56
2.2.6.5 Take responsibility for your actions: Responsibility .....	56
2.2.6.6 Dress and behave decently: Decency or integrity.....	56
2.2.7 Socialization effects; Goals of the CCIP.....	57
2.2.7.1 Enthusiasm .....	57
2.2.7.2 Organizational knowledge .....	58
2.2.7.3 Cohesion .....	59
2.2.7.4 Hardiness.....	60
2.2.7.5 Leadership .....	62
2.2.7.6 Adherence to ethos and moral competence.....	63
2.2.8 The officer socialization paradox.....	64
2.3 Theoretical underpinnings for optimization of the CCIP: officer socialization from the perspective of social learning and military ethics.....	65
2.3.1 Introduction .....	65
2.3.2 Social learning .....	66
2.3.3 Military ethics in education and moral competence.....	67
2.3.3.1 Ethics in officer education.....	68
2.3.3.2 Moral competence.....	69
2.3.3.3 Socialization of moral competence .....	70
2.3.4 Integrating military socialization, social learning and ethics to optimize the CCIP.....	71
2.4 Officer socialization at the KMA from the perspective of personality traits.....	74
2.4.1 Big Five personality factors .....	75
2.4.1.1 Neuroticism.....	76
2.4.1.2 Extraversion .....	76
2.4.1.3 Openness to experience .....	77
2.4.1.4 Agreeableness.....	77
2.4.1.5 Conscientiousness .....	77
2.4.1.6 Big Five: relevance for military officers .....	78
2.4.2 Proactive information seeking .....	78
2.4.3 Personal need for structure.....	80
2.4.4 Need to belong.....	81
2.4.5 Achievement motivation.....	82
2.5 Analytical framework.....	83
<b>3. Research methods.....</b>	<b>87</b>
3.1 Introduction .....	87
3.2 Research Design .....	88
3.3 Research approach .....	89
3.3.1 Participative observation.....	90

3.3.2 Action Research .....	90
3.3.3 Quasi-experimental longitudinal design .....	91
3.4 Procedure and participants .....	92
3.4.1 The quantitative procedure .....	93
3.4.2 Dependent variable questionnaires .....	94
3.4.2.1 Enthusiasm .....	94
3.4.2.2 Organizational knowledge .....	94
3.4.2.3 Acquaintance with other cadets .....	94
3.4.2.4 Cohesion .....	95
3.4.2.5 Hardiness .....	95
3.4.2.6 Leadership .....	95
3.4.2.7 Adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos.....	96
3.4.2.8 Moral competence.....	97
3.4.2.9 Dependent variables in relation to personality traits.....	98
3.4.3 Independent variable questionnaires.....	98
3.4.3.1 Big Five Personality dimensions.....	98
3.4.3.2 Proactive Information seeking .....	99
3.4.3.3 Personal Need for Structure.....	
3.4.3.4 Need to belong .....	99
3.4.3.5 Achievement Motivation.....	100
3.4.4 The Socratic Dialogue as procedure of intervention.....	100
3.4.5 The qualitative procedure .....	102
3.4.5.1 Interviews .....	102
3.4.5.2 Meetings and evaluations .....	103
3.4.5.3 Observations.....	104
3.4.6 The participants .....	105
3.4.6.1 The quantitative sample.....	105
3.4.6.2 Demographic variables .....	106
3.4.6.3 Samples for cross-sectional analysis.....	109
3.4.6.4 Targeted cadets for interventions: Change agents.....	110
3.4.6.5 Participants and procedure for the influence of personality on socialization effects ..	111
3.5 Validity and reliability.....	111
3.6 Statistical issues .....	116
<b>4. Socialization effects of the CCIP 2012.....</b>	<b>119</b>
4.1 Introduction .....	119
4.2 Results .....	119
4.3 Conclusion and Discussion for the 2012 sample.....	127

<b>5. Interventions towards 2013 .....</b>	<b>131</b>
5.1 The Socratic Dialogue .....	131
5.1.1 Example of the Socratic Dialogue as intervention .....	132
5.1.2 Practical consequences of the dialogues .....	135
5.1.2.1 A genuine start and end .....	135
5.1.2.2 Assignments fitting officer behaviour .....	136
<b>6. Results of interventions .....</b>	<b>139</b>
6.1 Quantitative results 2013 .....	139
6.1.1 Subconclusions socialization effects CCIP 2013 .....	145
6.2 Comparison of results 2013-2012 .....	146
6.2.1 Subconclusions comparison CCIP 2013 versus 2012 .....	159
6.3 Cross-sectional comparison .....	160
6.4 Qualitative results 2013 .....	165
6.4.1 Purpose, side effects and learning .....	166
6.4.1.1 Purpose .....	166
6.4.1.2 Negative side effects .....	167
6.4.1.3 Learning experiences .....	168
6.4.1.4 Contribution to conduct becoming an officer .....	168
6.4.2 Proximal effects .....	170
6.4.2.1 Enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps .....	170
6.4.2.2 Social Cohesion .....	171
6.4.2.3 Leadership .....	172
6.4.2.4 Adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos .....	172
6.4.2.5 Ethical behaviour .....	173
6.4.3 Subconclusions qualitative results CCIP 2013 .....	174
6.5 2014 and beyond: Evaluation and Evolution .....	175
<b>7. Results for the role of personality traits in socialization at the KMA .....</b>	<b>177</b>
7.1 Introduction .....	177
7.2 Means and correlations .....	178
7.2.1 Independent variables and control variables .....	178
7.2.2 Dependent variables .....	180
7.2.3 Correlations between antecedents and effect variables .....	181
7.3 Regression Analyses .....	185
7.3.1 Enthusiasm .....	185
7.3.2 Organizational knowledge .....	186
7.3.3 Acquaintance and cohesion .....	187
7.3.4 Hardiness .....	188
7.3.5 Leadership .....	189



7.3.6 Adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos.....	191
7.3.7 Moral Competence.....	191
7.4 Sub conclusions for the role of personality factors.....	192
<b>8. Conclusion &amp; Discussion .....</b>	<b>195</b>
8.1 Introduction .....	195
8.1 Main findings .....	196
8.1.1 Effects of interventions in the CCIP .....	196
8.1.2 The role of personality traits .....	198
8.2 Reflection and discussion on theoretical and methodological strengths and limitations..	200
8.2.1 Strengths and limitations of the theoretical framework .....	201
8.2.2 Methodological strengths and limitations.....	204
8.2.2.1 Triangulation and questionnaires.....	205
8.2.2.2 Participants.....	206
8.2.2.3 Method of intervention.....	207
8.3 Discussion, practical implications and directions for future research .....	208
8.3.1 Reflection on socialization effects.....	208
8.3.2 Practical implications .....	210
8.3.3 Directions for future research .....	213
8.3.4 In closing.....	215
<b>Summary .....</b>	<b>219</b>
Introduction and problem statement (Chapter 1) .....	219
History and Theory (Chapter 2) .....	220
Research methods (Chapter 3) .....	222
Conclusions (Chapter 8) .....	223
<b>Samenvatting [Summary in Dutch].....</b>	<b>227</b>
Introductie en probleemstelling (Hoofdstuk 1) .....	227
Historie en theorie (Hoofdstuk 2) .....	228
Onderzoeksmethoden (Hoofdstuk 3) .....	230
Conclusies (Hoofdstuk 8).....	231
<b>References .....</b>	<b>235</b>
<b>Appendix A: Results of the GLM Repeated Measures Analyses .....</b>	<b>253</b>
<b>Appendix B: Items (in Dutch) and scales .....</b>	<b>257</b>
<b>Appendix C: Observation list CCIP.....</b>	<b>263</b>

<b>Appendix D: Semi structured interview protocol .....</b>	<b>265</b>
<b>Appendix E: Gedragcode Defensie.....</b>	<b>267</b>
<b>Appendix F: Web sources .....</b>	<b>271</b>
<b>Appendix G: Drop-out analyses.....</b>	<b>273</b>
<b>About the author .....</b>	<b>275</b>



# The problem

*There is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct, or more uncertain in its success, than to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things.*

*Niccolo Machiavelli*



## 1. The problem

### 1.1 Introduction

I started my job as a military lecturer in leadership and ethics at the Royal Netherlands Military Academy (hereinafter KMA, Dutch abbreviation) in the autumn of 2010. Somewhat later, officer cadets involved with the socialization of new recruits as members of the Cadet Corps asked me to be their mentor. I hesitated, bearing in mind my own experiences with this socialization period. In 1992, I had experienced the Cadet Corps' introduction period (CCIP) as a physically and mentally stressful period. I felt full of uncertainty and ambiguity about what was expected of me as an aspirant member of the Cadet Corps and, moreover, as a future officer. Furthermore, although there are goals related to the socialization the CCIP is supposed to achieve, the way senior officer cadets behave during this period is considered by many (insiders and outsiders) to be controversial to say the least, not to mention the links the CCIP has to hazing (i.e. introduction events where physical and mental harm is inflicted on new recruits) (Pershing, 2006) and the fact that the CCIP is somewhat secretive in character for outsiders (Moelker & Richardson, 2003; Ramakers, 2003).

In addition, over the years the CCIP has resulted in various incidents which raised questions about its integrity; despite that, the programme has hardly changed due to arguments citing tradition and rituals (Ramakers, 2003). However, at that time, as a psychologist and teacher in leadership and ethics, I thought the CCIP could and should be a period in which leadership and ethical behaviour are of key importance. As an officer and teacher, I felt the urge to take responsibility and get involved with the traditions of this (for some) precarious period, precisely because it relates so closely to the topics of leadership and ethics. Consequently, I accepted the position of mentor on condition that we (the team of cadets and myself) could examine the actual effectiveness of the CCIP and, if necessary, suggest changes. Senior officer cadets as well as (junior and senior) officers elaborating on the purpose and effects of the CCIP are almost unanimously convinced that the CCIP serves several goals and is good for character building. But to what extent does the CCIP actually serve those goals? And what are those goals precisely? Is it possible to improve the effectiveness of this period? To what extent does the 'breed' of people selected to become officers have the disposition to adapt to the social mores of the Defence organization? These kinds of questions came to mind when I started my initial conversations with various cadets and officers. Their reactions were often evasive or even ambiguous, which lent support to my idea that this topic was worth exploring.

## 1.2 Initiation as socialization

In general, the process of learning appropriate conduct in line with written and unwritten rules and adopting normative attitudes, virtues, and social knowledge of an organization is referred to as organizational socialization (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Louis, 1980; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Although socialization is often considered an informal process that happens automatically when new people enter an organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), most organizations have some sort of introduction programme or induction course to facilitate socialization. Formal, fixed and collective socialization programmes fit the description of institutionalized socialization (Jones, 1986) of which military basic training is a specific example (Cable, Gino, & Staats, 2013). Although little is known about the details of officer initiation periods (Pershing, 2006), they are often criticized (Dodge, 1991; Ramakers, 2003) and related to hazing (Bracknell, 2011; Brooks, 2014; McCoy, 1995). If anything, most of the time officer initiation activities are not considered to be institutionalized socialization activities within officer education, but rather 'tradition' and 'initiation rites' (Soeters, Winslow, & Weibull, 2006; Winslow, 2004).

## 1.3 Military officer initiation

Research on initiation rites tends to focus mainly on civilian universities and often involves the concept of hazing (Canepa, 2011; Svaan, 1966; Waldron & Kowalski, 2009). Although there is some academic research on military initiation (Pershing, 2006), most of the literature on the subject is found in specific military journals (Bracknell, 2011; Poelman & Schwerzel, 2013; Ramakers, 2003; Steuber, 1999) aimed at the military in general, or officers in particular. Although it might not have been described that way in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century (see Section 2.1.2), institutional introduction or socialization (see Section 2.3) seems to be one of the main goals of initiation rites in the military. However, the methods used to socialize and introduce the newcomers to the traditions and social mores of the officers' corps have been criticized on account of their harsh character. Moreover, perhaps owing to the institutional and somewhat quarantine-like setting within the walls of the military academy, few questions were asked. In former times, the methods seemed somewhat more 'persuasive'. Nowadays, however, the necessity and effectiveness of adapting to those mores is one of the main arguments when discussing the reason for the existence of the introduction period at the KMA. Because organizations frequently draw on history as a resource for organizational identity and the concomitant virtues, one can argue that the social mores and customs of the Cadet Corps, as well as the method of organizational socialization, (e.g. the CCIP) are a reflection of the past.

In modern times, with the many rapid developments in military warfare and missions, the demands on junior leaders are high, especially during operational deployments. As

initial socialization within military organizations is often larded with historically-based values and activities, it is debatable whether the socialization practices of today fit the demands made of the future junior officer, particularly since in operational deployments demands on (moral) responsibility, leadership and mental hardiness expected from young officers have increased over the years. In order to meet those expectations, military institutions endeavour to develop the attitude and behaviour of the aspirant officers (i.e. the new officer cadets). Although this is what military academies have been doing for years, the developments in demands on young officers regarding operations and the developments within organizational socialization activities might be somewhat out of balance. The idea that hazing-like initiation events foster hardiness and cohesion is still a widely shared view among large numbers of military personnel. This idea, however, is inconsistent with theory, as no research has yet provided evidence of the beneficial effects of this kind of initiation rite (Van Drie, 2010).

The question therefore arises whether initial officer socialization activities generate the effects they aim to achieve. Moreover, the question of generating those effects with swift socialization periods (Ashforth, 2012) is important. Finding an answer to these questions might help with the professionalization of swift officers socialization at the KMA. Furthermore, developments in military professionalization indicate that the moral dimension of professionalism and responsibility has gained importance. Most socialization efforts aim at 'guiding' the behaviour of recruits to adapt to the customs, rules and regulations that are observed inside the organization. The permanent adherence to certain virtues can be seen as the development or shaping of character (Van Baarda & Verweij, 2004). Because character development is part of military socialization (Steuber, 1999) and good character is moral action demonstrated in all circumstances (Van Baarda & Verweij, 2004), the development of good character and, with that, the importance of ethics and moral competence seem to be obvious requirements for the development of responsible officers. Hazing would appear contrary to the moral objectives of professional officer education, which stresses values such as integrity and honesty (Caforio, 2003, p. 259). Hazing suggests behaviour by senior officer cadets that inflicts physical and psychological harm to new recruits; it indicates that moral boundaries are at stake. As the CCIP tries to advocate adherence to the values of the Cadet Corps and suggests fostering responsible behaviour, the question arises whether this actually results in an increase of moral competence.

#### 1.4 Initiation at the Royal Military Academy

The KMA started educating future officers in 1828, with the independent Cadet Corps' society being established in 1879 (Groen & Klinkert, 2003). Historically designed as a boarding school system, the KMA aimed at facilitating the creation of an enthusiastic, committed and cohesive officer corps. Since the early days, there have been many ways of initiating newcomers in the



ways of the KMA, most of which were rather aggressive, and which can only be identified as the hazing of new recruits by senior officer cadets or, if viewed in a more positive light, as initiation activities with the purpose of a transitioning ritual (*'rite de passage'*).

Since the twentieth century, much has changed under the influence of various Dutch Ministers of Defence (Cadettencorps, 1830-2015; Hoek, 2007). Moreover, the keen interest of leaders and politicians in the way newly arrived cadets are treated by older students is ongoing and has only increased. Over the years, there have been huge changes and turning points in the way values and norms are inculcated in newly arrived cadets. However, these developments and changes frequently resulted from external developments or reactions to incidents concerning detrimental behaviour.

Although fighting between cadets of different years was customary in the early 1900s, the rules became stricter, and more importantly, the educational institutes no longer tolerated excesses and incidents and demanded strict surveillance and safety precautions. However, the Cadet Corps (the fraternity-like society of cadets) still maintained a separate way of introducing their new members (i.e. new cadets) to the older members (i.e. senior cadets) and, subsequently, to the officer corps (i.e. all officers employed within the Netherlands armed forces). The Cadet Corps' introduction evolved during the course of approximately one hundred years, from a full introductory year of hazing activities running simultaneously with the regular curriculum into a full-time programme lasting for just a few days. Over the years, rules and regulations have been created to prevent excesses from occurring. However, from the days of old up to the present day, the introduction at the KMA and later on within the Cadet Corps has grown into a persistent tradition, which in essence has almost remained untouched by reorganizations (see Section 2.1.2).

The purpose and goals of the CCIP have been documented since the early 1990s and essentially involve attempts to enhance enthusiasm for and commitment to the Cadet Corps, to teach the military history of the KMA and the Cadet Corps, to create cohesion among new recruits, to develop hardiness and to create a sense of leadership. Nowadays, the first encounter with military life and leadership for new recruits at the KMA is their field training introduction or Military Introduction Period (MIP). This is an eight-day period, including a weekend, in which the main target is a gentle transition from civilian to military life and where they are afforded time for team building and group development. In addition, new recruits get used to their newly acquired uniform, outdoor sleeping and exercising, and they learn the basic skills of planning, executing and evaluating assignments, how to maintain personal hygiene under primitive circumstances, how to read a map and use a compass, etc. Working together under time pressure and openness for feedback during evaluations are key elements in the MIP. During this first encounter with military life, cadets work under the responsibility of a captain with non-commissioned officers in charge of their education. For most of the new recruits, the behaviour of these leaders is their first image and first experience of military character in their professional life.



After the MIP, the new recruits take classes in a range of military skills at the KMA for a number of weeks. The second fixed period involving active socialization is the cadets' CCIP; a period after which the new recruits acquire membership of the Cadet Corps. The exact time of the CCIP and its programme is somewhat secretive. Because uncertainty is a significant part of military life, it is an important issue that officer cadets have to face head-on. Dealing with insecurity and uncertainty (no sense of time, no telephone, and no sense of programme) has an impact on the mental well-being of the new recruits and they have to learn to deal with it. During all activities, the new recruits are under the guidance of senior cadets who are responsible for a specific group of newcomers. Besides the objectives related to specific activities, there are general objectives such as stimulating teamwork and group formation, stimulating leadership skills such as taking initiative and responsibility, and creating motivation for Cadet Corps membership. The senior cadets in charge have to achieve these objectives, which are specified for each day. The behaviour of these senior cadets is generally directive and daunting to newcomers. Although both the MIP and the CCIP are well developed and documented, it is not clear whether the influence of officer character and leadership behaviour on the new recruits' perception is fully appreciated by both the guiding cadre and senior cadets.

### 1.5 Problem Statement

With the growing focus on and importance attached to the effectiveness of education and professional and morally responsible behaviour, especially for members of the armed forces (given their power to use deadly force), the purpose and effectiveness of the introduction to the officer corps is likewise of great importance. Introduction periods or initiation periods often evolved over time with a decidedly conservative preference for tradition. Often, the 'old guard' inflicted their personal initiation experiences on new recruits without any critical thought. We have only scant knowledge about the effects of these kinds of institutional introductions for the purpose of adaptation to organizational values or virtues, professionalism, leadership and moral development. Although there are a few exceptions (Pershing, 2006; Poelman & Schwerzel, 2013), academic research on socialization effects by initiation is limited to student initiation at colleges and universities (Canepa, 2011; Waldron & Kowalski, 2009). Furthermore, hardly any of the literature available has addressed the subject of changing initiation rituals, except for the drastic solution of prohibition (Bracknell, 2011).

Military initiation rites are still considered to be an important part of socialization, but they are often a somewhat tacit, sometimes even secretive, part of the first months of the military introduction experience. These kinds of initiation rites are often related to socialization in total institutions. Although the sense of elitism is waning, in a way cadets still feel different to civilians (Van Schilt, 2011). Therefore, the KMA, with its boarding school system (in effect for at least the first three months of education), and its restrictions on new

recruits (not allowed to leave the barracks to go into town) still reflects the character of a total institution<sup>1</sup> (Moelker & Richardson, 2002).

However, the question of whether or not the CCIP as a socialization activity is effective has hardly been looked at. Rather, the CCIP has been considered a traditional part of the start of education at the KMA for every aspirant officer. Moreover, although every initiation is under the close attention of senior commanding officers and even politicians (in relation to serious concerns for excesses), investigations into the possibilities of increasing the effectiveness of this period and how that might affect the attitude and behaviour of the new (and senior) cadets are rare and, if they happen at all, mainly incidental. Therefore, the purpose and especially the effectiveness of military initiation should be soundly demonstrated and, if necessary, improved. Furthermore, no process has the same effect on every person. Taking into account the differences in persons as manifested by their personalities, the role of personality itself might help to improve the effectiveness of the CCIP.

### 1.5.1 Aim of the study

This study therefore primarily examines the effects of the CCIP in terms of organizational socialization (Fang, Duffy, & Shaw, 2011; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). The main goal and primary reason for this research is to establish a CCIP that is effective in achieving the goals related to officers' attitudinal and behavioural development at the KMA. Socialization is considered to have been effective if newcomers understand and adopt their new organization's values and norms (Cable et al., 2013; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979); the goal of the CCIP is supposed to achieve exactly that, i.e. to acquaint newcomers with the mores of the Cadet Corps. The question, however, is to what extent the current *modus operandi* is effective in achieving this goal.

Hence, the first aim of this study is to look into the effectiveness of the CCIP. Taking into account that no process is infallible and that improvement is always possible, the second aim of this study is to analyse the effects of the changes or interventions made to improve the CCIP. Furthermore, this study looks into the role of personality factors. A period of swift socialization (whether the process changes or not) will not be the only influential factor on the extent to which newcomers adapt to organizational mores. Personality might be an important factor too. The third aim of this study is therefore to explore which personality traits can be identified as antecedents for the effects of socialization efforts.

■  
1 See Goffman (1961) for a general examination of the characteristics of total institutions.

### 1.5.2 Research questions

To achieve the aims of this study within the scope of organizational socialization and the role of personality, the central question of this study is:

**What are the effects of interventions in the CCIP on the swift socialization of newcomers at the KMA and what role do personality traits play in that swift socialization?**

In order to investigate the effects of the CCIP, the first question that has to be addressed is whether the CCIP as a swift socialization period achieves the effects it aims for. Bearing in mind that every process can be optimized, the second question that has to be addressed is how the CCIP might be optimized. And thirdly, this study will attempt to answer what role personality traits play as antecedents for swift socialization. To provide answers to these questions, four specific research questions have been formulated:

- a. What are the effects of the CCIP before interventions?
- b. What are the effects of the CCIP after interventions?
- c. What is the difference in effects of the CCIP before and after interventions?
- d. To what extent do personality traits predict socialization of newcomers at the KMA?

Every sub-question implies, of course, various other theoretical questions (e.g. how is the CCIP organized? What are the effects the CCIP aims for? What personality factors are related to socialization?). More details about the research questions and a comprehensive elaboration on the research methods are provided in Chapter 3.

### 1.5.3 Relevance and academic contribution

The practical relevance of this study is primarily to contribute to more effective officer training at the KMA in general and to a more effective introduction to the Cadet Corps in particular. The effectiveness of short socialization periods is important, because military personnel and especially military officers encounter new working environments on numerous occasions throughout their military career. Imagine you have three to four weeks to prepare for a task somewhat unfamiliar to your own, with a team you do not know, in an organization you have never worked for. For officers in the armed forces of many a country, this is no fiction; rather, it is a common occurrence in contemporary military operations. Modern military operations are typically structured in a multinational way. NATO headquarters and UN operations, such as UNAMI, UNAMA and MINUSMA<sup>2</sup>, all provide, to some extent, organizational induction

■  
2 UNAMI: United Nations Assistance Mission for Iraq; UNAMA: United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan; MINUSMA: United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in Mali.

courses which attempt to achieve some kind of adaptation to the 'mission organization'. However, those organizations also rely just as much on soldiers, NCOs and officers who quickly adapt to their new jobs and new environment, which provides a strong case for the role of personality factors in relation to swift socialization.

For future members of the armed forces in general, and more specifically for aspirant officers, the ability to quickly adapt seems to be less important for their role as junior officers in national units. However, even for these young officers it is becoming more common to cooperate with or to be embedded in a foreign unit or even to participate in an individual mission (e.g. for the EU, UN or NATO). As there is limited time to become acquainted with the new organization, the new colleagues and the new task, officers should be well trained in adapting to new circumstances. Most of the time, handovers from predecessors, if any, take place in less than a week and, after that, officers are expected to perform the job. Moreover, most handovers concern practical job and task information and do not mention specific social behaviour and attitudes that may be expected of them. Provided that the CCIP is effective and executed in a moral and professional way, participation in socialization efforts such as the CCIP might contribute to the insights in how future officers should adapt to new situations and, moreover, how they may facilitate socialization of members of their future units.

On a theoretical level, this study aims to contribute to development of knowledge about swift socialization in general and about military socialization efforts in particular. Although there are various similarities between civil and military socialization, research on socialization within the military is scarce (Bachman, 2000; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Franke, 1999; Franke & Heinecken, 2001; Guimond, 1995; Mendee, 2012; Rennick, 2012; Soh, Chan, & Ong, 2000; Weber, 2012; Wintre & Ben-Knaz, 2000; Xiao, Han, & Han, 2011). Although there are a few exceptions (Bachman, 2000; Weber, 2012; Xiao et al., 2011), almost no longitudinal research on military socialization and the effects of short specific socialization periods exists. This study will specifically address the question of whether short socialization periods are effective. To what extent do those efforts contribute to enthusiasm, leadership, hardiness and adherence to an officer ethos? The study will explore the effects and shortcomings of a specific military socialization period, namely, the Cadet Corps' introduction period at the KMA. In a more general sense, this study will attempt to contribute to the academic discussion on military socialization in various ways.

First, research by Guimond (1995) is referred to as the main and possibly only source that specifically reports on the effects of military socialization on a personal change in values and virtues (Soh et al., 2000), which suggests that the topic needs more research. Although there is a vast body of philosophical studies concerning military virtues (Moelker & Olsthoorn, 2007; Olsthoorn, 2011; Toner, 2005; Van Baarda & Verweij, 2006; Verweij, 2010), empirical research addressing military virtues is scarce. Most of the time, such research addresses only one specific virtue or concerns a scale of 'military ethos', arguing that this scale reflects the dominant organizational virtues (Franke, 1999; Guimond, 1995). As such, examination

of the effectiveness of the CCIP will contribute to the academic discussion on the purpose of initiation periods, and contribute to academic knowledge about the effects of military officer socialization in particular and organizational socialization in general.

Second, military socialization efforts seemingly do not pay fundamental attention to ethical issues. Even though ethics education in military institutions is serious business, it is almost impossible to prove that it generates the effects it aims for. Robinson, De Lee, and Carrick (2008) argue that more thorough analysis of the implications of ethics education's impact (in this study: the impact of socialization efforts) on improving moral competence would contribute to an understanding of the effectiveness of the different methods used to that end. 'Does it change character or behaviour? Is it aspirational or purely functional' (Robinson et al., 2008, p. 200). In other words, is this about a profound wish to improve moral professionalism in addition to the objective of getting the job done, or is it merely an attempt to prevent incidents?

Third, by investigating the role of personality, this study contributes to insight into the way selection can add to the adaptation to organizational values. Personality factors and attitudes fostering organizational socialization might be interesting to look at during the initial application.

Finally, this study will endeavour to contribute to insight into the effects of swift socialization, meaning socialization within a short timeframe. Military socialization and initiation periods in general and, more specifically, the existence of the CCIP have for a long time been undisputed. Probably owing to cultural effects and a focus on tradition, the effect of this period in terms of the adaptation, enthusiasm and personal change within new recruits was (according to various cadets and colleague officers<sup>3</sup>) generally thought to occur a year or more after the socialization period. However, recent research (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Xiao et al., 2011) shows that the effects of socialization manifest themselves earlier. Finally, this study integrates insights from organizational socialization in general with the methods of the CCIP in order to improve socialization at the KMA.

Although military academies and military recruits are not characteristic of other organizations and their new members, it is possible to generalize the results of this study and apply them outside the military. Military academies often possess the characteristics of total institutions (Goffman, 1961, p. 16). The findings of research conducted within total institutions closely reflects the findings of social experiments. Although the educational settings at the KMA are no longer as isolated as they once were, some elements of the total institution persist (Moelker & Richardson, 2002). As such, it is possible to study behaviour within a fairly isolated setting. Developing more knowledge about the effectiveness of specific short socialization efforts, especially with settings such as in military education and military organizations, might therefore be beneficial to both civilian organizations and

3 'No Sir, I do not think that they [the new recruits] are enthusiastic about the Cadet Corps straight after the CCIP. But in a few months, or at least next year when they enter their second year, they will understand it all and be as enthusiastic as I am now.' (Chairman of the Cadet Corps' Senate 2011-2012).

college fraternities. After all, new personnel in initial organizational entry settings are, to some extent, exposed to conditions similar to military initiation at the KMA.

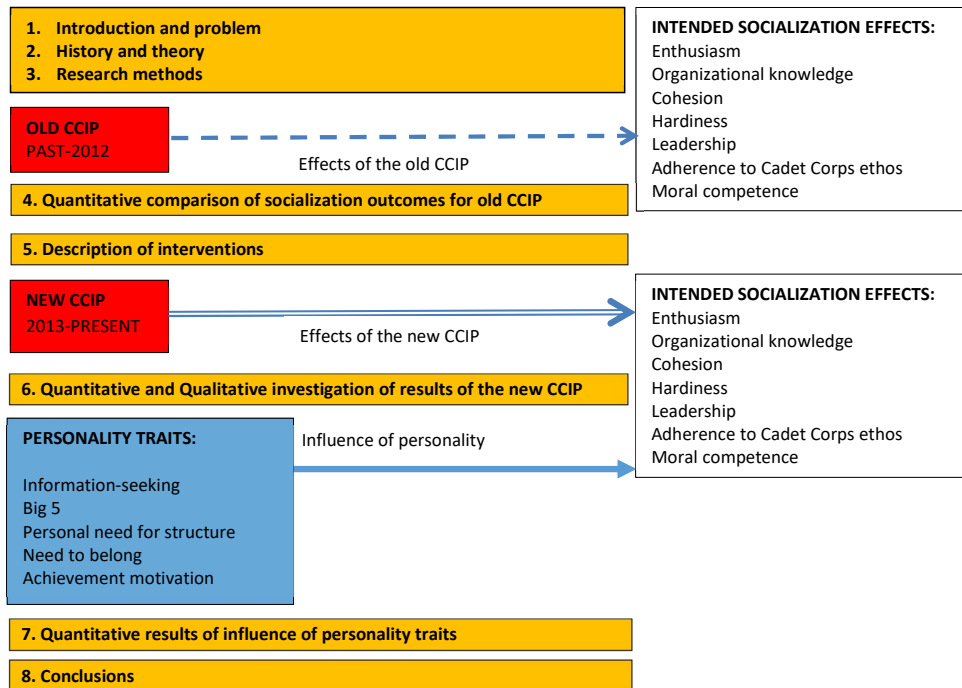
## 1.6 Thesis outline

As Figure 1.1 points out, the first part (Chapter 1, 2 and 3) of the thesis deals with the conceptual, theoretical and methodological issues of this study. Chapter two contains the main theoretical body of this research and can be divided into four main sections. The first section describes the historical development of the CCIP. The second section looks into the concept of organizational and military socialization and introduces the main concepts used in this study to analyse the effects of the CCIP. The third section, on the theoretical background, describes theory on social learning and Socratic Dialogue as a method for interventions or making changes. Theory on personality factors in relation to socialization is addressed in the last section of the chapter on theory. Chapter 3 provides an extensive methodical consideration of the study, as well as a description of the research population and the procedures used at the various stages of this research project.

The second part of this thesis deals with the results. Chapter 4 outlines the effects of the 2012 initiation period at the KMA. The Cadet Corps' initiation is embedded in socialization theory and the suggested proximal effects will be analysed with quantitative data. Chapters 5 and 6 address the results of interventions in the CCIP. The proximal socialization effects of the old and the new CCIP are compared in a quantitative analysis. Furthermore, quantitative and qualitative data will address perceived changes in the effects and purpose of the CCIP according to the perception of junior and senior cadets. Chapter 7 then explores the predictive value of personality data retrieved from the selection department for the adaptation of officer cadets. Personality traits such as the 'Big Five' as well as the personal need for structure and the need to belong will all be assessed as possible predictors for proximal socialization effects and adaptation to the ethos of the Cadet Corps.

The last part (Chapter 8) addresses the main questions of this thesis, followed by practical implications for officer education at the KMA and a general discussion. To answer the central research question about improvement of initiation efforts, this last chapter provides a comprehensive view on the effects of initiation and interventions, as well as an insight into the role of personality in swift socialization.

Figure 1.1 Outline of the study





# Theory

*Experience without theory is blind,  
but theory without experience is mere intellectual play*

*Immanuel Kant*





## 2. Theoretical framework

### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter firstly demonstrates that officer initiation draws international attention (Section 2.1.1) and, furthermore, the chapter outlines the history of a specific Dutch case (Section 2.1.2). Studying the developments spanning almost 200 years within the KMA and the Cadet Corps will help towards understanding the current state, mores and goals of the CCIP, and can identify possible avenues for interventions. This historical section clarifies how the CCIP has evolved over the years and what values the Cadet Corps adheres to.

The second section of this chapter introduces the concept of socialization in general and, more specifically, in military organizations. Insight into these concepts is necessary (see Section 2.2) with respect to this study in order to analyse the effects of socialization in the military and, in particular, the CCIP at the KMA. Moreover, knowledge of organizational socialization approaches and tactics (Section 2.2.2) is essential to identify possibilities to improve the CCIP as improvement is of no use when the goals are ambiguous or vague. Section 2.2.4 therefore puts the CCIP into a theoretical perspective. Furthermore, similar to organizational socialization, the CCIP suggests that it fosters a certain adherence to values (Franke & Heineken, 2001; Guimond, 1995). Section 2.2.5 illustrates and compares these values with the military values of various international nations. After that, in Section 2.2.6, the specific Cadet Corps' values are addressed as well as the specific socialization goals of the CCIP (Section 2.2.7).

The third section (2.3) addresses theory underlying possible interventions to improve the CCIP process. There is considerable debate whether organizational (sub) culture can be changed or has to be accepted as emergent (Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths, 2005). Merely accepting organizational culture as evolving over time but not tangible enough for interventions suggests that there are numerous difficulties to change an organizational culture. However, it also implies the existence of factors that might influence the development of the organizational subculture. As the main goal of many educational institutions is to equip students with tools and the ability to educate themselves throughout their lifetime (Bandura, 2002), the solution for many of the complications surrounding the change of organizational subculture might be found in the roots of social learning. Furthermore, one of the goals of officer education at the KMA is to create critical thinkers with high moral responsibility. Therefore, in this part, ethics in military education and the socialization of moral competence cannot be neglected as theoretical elements to improve the CCIP.

The last theoretical section (2.4) looks into the relation between socialization and personality traits. Research on the 'socializability' of newcomers (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998) often takes account of the role of the organization (Jones, 1986; Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983; Morrison, 1993; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanous, 1980). However,

personality traits or newcomer attributes also play a part in socialization effects (Fisher, 1986). The determination of certain personality traits as antecedents for swift socialization might help in gaining insight into the effects of military socialization.

### 2.1.1 Socialization within military organizations

Although addressed in historical overviews (Groen & Klinkert, 2003; Klinkert, 1998), academic publications on rituals at international military academies are relatively scarce. There are some scholars who specifically address formal and informal rituals (Burk, 1999; Evans, 2013; King, 2006; McCoy, 1995; Moelker & Richardson, 2002) and publications addressing initiation in military magazines (Bracknell, 2011; Steuber, 1999; Wilcox, 1997) and on the web<sup>1</sup>. Research on military culture reveals that various forms of rituals and hazing are viewed as a critical component of the (re)socialization process from civilian to military life (Firestone & Harris, 2003; Pershing, 2006). Recent literature plausibly seems to disqualify hazing as a proper socialization process because contemporary moral standards do not approve of exposing new recruits to physical and mental harm just to join a new organization. Moreover, empirical research addressing the beneficial effects of such rituals and initiation periods specifically is very hard to find.

However, when looking at several web-publications on prominent international military academies such as West Point and the Citadel (USA), Sandhurst (UK), Saint-Cyr (France), the 'Offizier Schule des Heeres' (OSH: Officer Academy of the German Army) and the Australian Defence Force Academy (ADFA: Australia) it is clear that all new recruits at those academies have to undergo a sort of transition ritual. For example, once the new recruits are cadets at Sandhurst, *'They find themselves targeted for a certain non-voluntary experience. Inside Sandhurst it was regarded as a rite of passage from the freedom of civilian life to the rigidity of military discipline. Elsewhere it was called hazing. At Sandhurst, a school founded for the training of 'gentlemen', hazing – officially discouraged - could be decidedly ungentlemanly'* (Johnson, 2008, p. 161).

These same rites of passage are part of officer initiation at US military academies such as West Point and The Citadel where new recruits are called plebes or knobs. The initiation period concerning the education of history and traditions at Saint-Cyr is called '*buhatage*' and only takes place after a full year of education (Weber, 2012). Although the web does not offer many 'hits' on hazing or initiation at the OSH, there are a few indications<sup>2</sup> that some kinds of rituals do happen for German cadets ('*Kadetten*'), as seen in several drawings and messages about maltreatment of new recruits in the OSH 'almanac'. Furthermore, an

1 Specifications of sources are found in the reference section under Web sources considering hazing and initiation.

2 <http://www.ethik-der-deutschen-offiziere.de/blog/archivierte-beitr%C3%A4ge/138-die-lust-am-qualen.html>;

internet publication on ethics for German officers reveals that tormenting ('*qualen*') is an issue to be taken into account for military officers.

What these types of officer education have in common is that the cadets, living in an institutionalized organization, are, to some degree, in charge of their own leisure and development in some sort of Cadet Corps organization. Furthermore, for all academies, the tendency is that higher management disapproves of hazing and initiation rites. Sometimes these activities are (for some periods) officially forbidden but, all in all, a form of Cadet Corps' introduction is still part of the package in almost all officer education academies owing to historical development and traditions. Whether it is in the first or second year, whether it is called 'hell week' or 'corps introduction', the purpose is the same: getting new recruits to adhere to the values, traditions and customs of their new 'pack'. To fully understand how the introduction period at the KMA developed into its current state, the history of the Cadet Corps and the CCIP is described in the next section.

## 2.1.2 History and contemporary developments in the Cadet Corps

### 2.1.2.1 Historical developments Cadet Corps' introduction 1830-2011

The focus of this study is on the Cadet Corps' introduction period at the KMA. The following description of historical developments helps to understand how this period evolved over time and what the purpose was, is, and possibly should be. This section deals with the CCIP developments from 1830, when the KMA was founded, up until 2011, the moment that I took up my position as mentor of the coordination commission.

#### 2.1.2.2 1830-1955: No rules

In 1830<sup>3</sup> the first almanac was published. It described the creation of the Military Academy. Until 1850, however, no official documentation of an introduction period can be found. In 1855 the story of a freshman cadet clearly depicts that there is a form of hazing '*... or do you think, weak person of the second year, that a freshman is not affected when he has to listen to your disdainful and vile remarks .....*' and '*....in your malicious condition, in your position between cradle and senior cadet, brutalizing suits you least. However, you are the most tempted to do it.*' (1855 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, pp. 50-51). These quotes show that some behaviour of senior cadets is experienced as harassing and suggested by the second part of the quote, not appropriate for second year cadets, as they only just experienced the officer initiation themselves. The 1855 story

<sup>3</sup> All Cadet Corps almanacs will have the reference Cadettencorps, 1830-2015; *Cadetten Almanak*; Koninklijke Militaire Academie 1830-2015. Breda: Broese & Comp. The date mentioned in front of this reference refers to specific year of publication of the almanac that is used for that specific quotation (e.g. 1855 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015 means that the 1855 Cadet Corps almanac was used)

suggests by the remark *'that you might forget the complete first year at the academy'* (p. 54) that the complete first year at the academy was full of tormenting activities. In this period the new recruits were called 'bares'. The etymology of this word is not ultimately clear but seems to originate from either the word 'baren' (1878 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, p. 87), which means in Old Dutch: *'those who are naked'*, or considering the Indonesian history of the Dutch Armed Forces, in Malaysian 'baru' means 'new'.

In 1920 the almanac mentions *'a fairly short but more intense'* bare period (1920 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, p. 141). That this period is concluded with a humble party *'like every year'* suggests that the bare period was already shorter in the early twenties. Since 1918 the bare period has officially been called the *'introductory period'* but cadets still kept referring to it as the hazing period<sup>4</sup>.

After the Second World War, on 14 July 1949, the Military Academy was officially reopened following its closure during the war (1949-1950 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, pp. 27-28). However, on 18 November 1948, the academy was already in operation and the Cadet Corps was reinstalled (1940-1949 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, pp. 21-24). The introduction of the new recruits seemed to take almost a month considering remarks in the cadet's diary, *'October- new recruits arrive senior cadets have work to do -- November- new recruits honour old tradition'*. To sustain the customs, habits, values and virtues of the Cadet Corps the introduction period (then called 'feuttijd' in Dutch, which is best translated as hazing period) was re-introduced.

The responsibility for this period was given to a special commission, the CAC<sup>5</sup>. This commission, comprising cadets assigned by the Senate (a board of cadets involved with management of the Cadet Corps), was in charge of all activities concerning the new recruits. The hazing period started with a warm-up lasting a number of weeks. Uncontrolled light hazing activities that were mostly spontaneously invented, were not written down in a programme (1953 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, pp. 116-118). After this warm-up, the real introduction period (still called hazing period) lasted for about three weeks.

This period involved a lot of noise, shouting and hazing. The new recruits were treated as though they were nobodies, most of the time they were not even allowed to stand up straight and they had to crawl or move around lying on their backs. They were smothered with grease, chicken feathers and rotten fruit (Hoek, 2007). During the daytime of this period the new recruits had to follow regular classes, during the night-time they turned into 'bares' and were required to consociate with senior cadets. Furthermore, during the hazing period, the new recruits had to do quite a lot of assignments that were denigrating, for instance walking around with a bucket on their head, and they were exposed to a lot of verbal abuse.

Apparently, there were not many rules, or none at all, concerning the safety of new recruits and their engagement in strenuous physical activity. This lack of rules caused many physical injuries, such as broken legs and twisted ankles, and in 1952 this resulted in an untimely ending of the introduction period. Furthermore, especially for second year cadets,

<sup>4</sup> in Dutch 'feuttijd' literally means hazing period referring to the 'embryonic' state of the freshmen

<sup>5</sup> Commissie voor Algemene Coordinatie: Commission for General Coordination

‘the line between hazing and the introduction of the mores of the Cadet Corps seemed to be very thin’ (Groen & Klinkert, 2003, p. 322).

### 2.1.2.3 1955-1978: Development of rules

The impact of the hazing period led to criticism amongst cadets and from officers involved with education at the Military Academy. As early as 1953, there were initiatives from the CAC to prepare a more mental hazing period instead of the usual emphasis on severe strenuous physical activity (Hoek, 2007). This initiative did not have a huge effect, considering the resistance of the cadets involved in carrying out the hazing activities, as reported in the minutes of the Cadet Corps’ meeting (Hoek, 2007). An unwritten rule during the hazing period only allowed the senior cadets (third year or higher) to be involved in hazing activities. As of 1956, second year cadets were allowed to teach the new recruits the customs, traditions and etiquette. In this way, second year cadets became involved in the hazing process so they could learn from the third year cadets’ behaviour (Hoek, 2007). In 1957, a rule was implemented stating that hazing activities had to be mental, and that hazing with physical exertion was allowed for third year cadets, but only after approval from the CAC. In the 1957 hazing period, the CAC was disbanded and the Senate took upon itself the responsibility for the introduction period<sup>6</sup>. This development is remarkable and suggests that extreme incidents occurred during that year or the previous years.

Because regulation of the senior cadets’ behaviour during the plebe period limited the possibilities of senior cadets to diverge from the described programme, it brought about transparency about the CAC’s plan and its goals. In 1960, the schedule still was not very fine-grained and only roughly sketched the day-by-day programme but in 1968 there was a programme mentioning all specific events (1960, 1967 and 1968 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015). In this period, only senior cadets were allowed to inflict physical punishment for the purpose of correcting the behaviour of new recruits who had done something wrong (still in the eyes of any senior cadet).

In 1964, rules were developed which took the use of vulgar or blasphemous language into consideration. In 1965 the concept of mentor was introduced. A group of cadets with high Cadet Corps’ seniority (i.e. fourth, fifth or even sixth year cadets) were summoned by the Senate to act as a father figure to the freshman; if a freshman could no longer withstand the hazing, the mentor could take the freshman aside for a private conversation to boost the poor freshman’s morale for a moment<sup>7</sup>.

Accidents and incidents (i.e. physical and mental harm) still occurred during the introduction period and more rules were imposed by the commanding officer assigned by

6 Minutes of the corps meeting 16 July 1958

7 Archive Cadet Corps documentation map 1960-1969 [Feuttijd 1963 & Bepalingen geldend voor coördinatie periode t.a.v. kandidaat leden]

the Ministry of Defence as governor, and whose task it was to revise education at the Military Academy. The rules were changed in order to guarantee sufficient hours of sleep and enough food. Furthermore, the commanding officer explicitly stated that any excess would end the plebe period immediately and forever<sup>8</sup>.

In 1969, the Senate distributed a questionnaire among cadets about the impact of the plebe period. The results indicated that most members of the Cadet Corps wished for a softened or tempered introduction period. The mentor system was appraised and appreciated by the Cadet Corps and physical exertion was criticized<sup>9</sup>. The impact of the policy recommendation of this study, however, was negligible; the goal of the introduction period was reformulated to; make new recruits a member of the Cadet Corps<sup>10</sup> and the period was reduced from 21 days to 18 days. Furthermore, some sub-goals were added to the primary goal (e.g. to contribute towards cohesion, comradeship and building character appropriate to an officer).

In 1973, the aforementioned changes led to a formal change in the name of the introduction period. The period formerly known as the 'hazing period' was henceforth called the 'coordination period'. The hazing police was renamed the coordination commission. New recruits were no longer called '*bares*' or '*foetuses*' but '*bulls*' referring to their herd-like behaviour instead of the expected responsible individuals full of initiative.

Despite the name change, the specific events and the schedule hardly changed at all. The formal 18 days' programme seemed too long to keep senior cadets committed to the introduction of the new recruits. Moreover, civilianization of the military was on the rise, meaning that the Cadet Corps and society no longer were strongly separated. The way senior cadets imposed their mores on the new recruits was subject to discussion, not only in the Cadet Corps, but also among officers involved with education at the Military Academy and in society.

In 1976, a new survey showed a rift between members of the Cadet Corps about the growing interconnectedness of Cadet Corps, military education and society. This led to a debate between cadets and staff members at the Military Academy. The debate resulted in an extremely softened coordination period (Hoek, 2007), which was reduced to one week, rules concerning the use and abuse of alcohol were developed and the mentor system was improved. Basically, from this moment, the coordination period remained unchanged until 2012.

■  
8 Archive Cadet Corps documentation map 1960-1969

9 idem

10 idem

#### 2.1.2.4 1979-1995: *Searching for balance*

Not many changes took place during this period. In 1981 a lot of media attention<sup>11</sup> focused on an incident where one cadet ended up in hospital and nine others had to visit the military doctor. As a result, the importance of the role of mentors was upgraded. They were no longer the stress-free father figure, but were given responsibility for the well-being of the 'bulls'. Furthermore, the mentor should reflect on the behaviour of the senior cadet involved in coordination activities (the coordinator). The length of the coordination period varied from seven to ten days. Sometimes this was fulltime, and sometimes it was part-time, with military education during the day and coordination activities during the evening and at night.

Over the years there were a few incidents, some clearly attracting the attention of national media<sup>12</sup> and some even leading to questions in the Dutch parliament. Until 1992 the coordination period hardly changed. Some events were withdrawn, some were new. The coordination commission and the Cadet Corps seemed to be searching for a situation that would acknowledge the interests of all parties involved. The introduction of personal computers at the KMA in the mid-1980s made it possible to document the programme in great detail. This is probably one of the reasons why there is a wealth of detailed documentation available starting from 1986. Furthermore, the use of strenuous physical activity was allowed again in 1986, which made the coordination period in 1986 far tougher than in previous years (1988 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015; Hoek, 2007).

#### 2.1.2.5 1995-2011<sup>13</sup>: *Diversity of new recruits*

Since the establishment of the Military Academy in 1826 as an institute producing officers for the armed forces, the residents of the fourteenth-century castle have been called cadets. Cadets in the nineteenth century were much younger (15-16 years old) as the academy was post primary school education. In the beginning, military education was for the elite (those who could afford it) and for those able to ride a horse (sons of farmers). Later on, as the Military Academy became a higher education institute that could be entered after secondary school, the diversity of cadets increased a bit. Nowadays, cadets have to finish higher secondary education, or even first obtain a bachelor's or a master's degree, before they may enter the Military Academy.

Until 2005, the KMA was not the only institute that produced officers for the Armed Forces. There were several other locations and different institutes. The Military Academy was (through the eyes of some) seen as the institute that delivered 'bookish' officers in contrast to the more 'pragmatic' officers who completed other officer education. Around

11 i.a.: Leidsch Dagblad Sept 15 1981

12 i.a.: Trouw July 23, 1994; De Stem November 2, 1995

13 In 2011 the researcher started as mentor of the coordination commission. This point in time marks the start of this study.



the millennium, owing to budget cutbacks and other Defence policy developments, the KMA was chosen to deliver all kinds of officers for the army, air force and military police (Marechaussee), and even some naval officers are educated at the KMA, although the majority are still educated at the Royal Institute for the Navy. This change influenced both the diversity of educational models at the KMA and the diversity of the population of cadets attending the KMA.

In the time frame spanning 1995 to 2011 hardly any incidents were mentioned. However, strenuous physical activity was a point of debate throughout the years, probably owing to excessive activities and resulting injuries and strains. In 2000, physical assignments were completely forbidden by the academy military staff, only to be introduced again in 2002<sup>14</sup>. Furthermore, the use of alcohol was, eventually, prohibited for everyone involved with the ‘coordination’ of new recruits during the coordination period. This measure probably evolved from the notion that many behaviours that would be considered ‘on the edge or beyond’ evolved from the shift of social boundaries as a result of the use of alcohol.

Very characteristic for this period was the introduction of an education based on short-term officer contracts at the KMA<sup>15</sup>. The suspension of compulsory recruitment for military service and the introduction of the professional armed forces in 1997, together with developments in society such as more focus on individuality, de-institutionalization and the growing trend for informality (Veldheer & Bijl, 2011), consequently led to a different set of officer cadets. Choosing an occupation as an officer within the armed forces was no longer choosing employment for life, but rather opting for individual development, a challenge and, increasingly, a choice for a short period of time (i.e. 6 years).

Since 1995, two main groups of cadets can be distinguished. On the one hand, you had cadets aspiring to a career for life within the armed forces, who followed the three to four-year educational model. On the other hand, you had cadets applying for a short-term contract of three to six years, who followed the shorter one to two-year educational model. In 2000, the first set of short-term contract officers entered the KMA. For this latter group, the short time they spent at the KMA simply made it difficult to participate in the Cadet Corps. The way in which this new kind of officer cadet was supposed to participate in the corps and the coordination period was subject to many debates. At first, this group only participated for two days of the coordination period. Some refused to participate, and for several years this group was denied access to activities of the Cadet Corps.

Various other concepts were tried out but, eventually, this group had to participate in the regular coordination period. However, the short educational model starts twice a year. As a consequence, this finally led to the implementation of a second introduction period. The initial introduction period used to be in September or October, a few weeks after the arrival of the new recruits. Now, a new coordination period for cadets taking the short educational

<sup>14</sup> Documentation map of the coordination commission: [werkgroep introductieperiode 2000: Intern memorandum geïntegreerde introductie periode cadettencorps]

<sup>15</sup> Short-term contracts for officers did exist from 1960 onwards, but they received their education at other institutes



model was introduced in February or March of each year. In February, the participants all belong to the 'short model', whereas in September cadets taking either the 'short' or the 'long' model jointly participate in the same coordination period.

Since the start of the twenty-first century, there has even been a third group of cadets consisting of experienced military personnel, mostly non-commissioned officers, who applied for an officer contract. They also have to follow (part of) the short educational model. These cadets, who are generally somewhat older, were also exposed to a regular coordination period at first. This did not work out very well. It transpired that the way in which the coordination period was organized contained somewhat 'student-like' behaviour that was out of keeping with the military experience and attitude of this group of experienced cadets. The coordination commission therefore decided to develop a separate two-day programme for this group.

In 2005, the coordination commission explicitly emphasized that the focus was on learning the mores and customs. The coordination period took place without physical assignments. Remarks in the cadets' almanac made it clear that cadets did not approve of this development: *'far too soft'*.

Furthermore, the number of cadets entering the KMA in the period 2000-2010 increased drastically. Before the year 2000, approximately 100-150 new recruits would enter the KMA per annum. In the new millennium, this amount doubled. The expansion of group size of new recruits, and the imbalance between the numbers of 'long model' senior cadets and 'short model' new recruits, hampered the focus on learning. The groups of new recruits kept growing larger and consisted mostly of short model new recruits. Owing to this large number of newcomers and the lack of experienced senior cadets, the cadets involved in the CCIP just kept on imitating behaviour they themselves had experienced during their own initiation period.

Tight schedules were simply executed as prescribed without any critical thought about the effects they were supposed to achieve. There seemed to be little opportunity for change or improvement. In 2011, the group of new recruits decreased to 80 in August of that year owing to dramatic budget cuts for the Dutch Armed Forces. Although the will to reflect critically on the CCIP amongst the senior cadets was very low, the smaller groups of new recruits inevitable shaped the possibility to reconsider the current state of the coordination period as well as its structure, purpose and programme.

### 2.1.3 Programme and purpose of the CCIP

History shows that since 1973 the goal of the CCIP was to make new recruits new members of the Cadet Corps. Later on, in the late 1980s and early 1990s, this was specified as delivering enthusiastic new members to the Cadet Corps, with sub-goals as regards cohesion,

comradeship, hardiness, leadership and building character appropriate to an officer. Since then, the goal and sub-goals have hardly changed.

Although the CCIP is normally scheduled in the first five weeks after the military introduction period, the exact moment and programme of the CCIP is somewhat secretive. Because uncertainty is a large part of military life, it is by far one of the most important issues an officer cadet should be confronted with. Dealing with insecurity and uncertainty (time pressure, no contact with the outside world, no information (no phone), and no sense of programme) has an impact on the mental well-being of new recruits and they have to learn to deal with it and just accept the way it is. As this study investigates the effectiveness of the CCIP, it is necessary to create a bit more clarity about the CCIP programme. In a nutshell, activities taking place during the CCIP and their corresponding objectives are presented in Table 2.1.

Next to the objectives pertaining to specific activities, there are general objectives such as: stimulating teamwork and group formation, stimulating leadership skills such as initiative and responsibility and creating motivation for Cadet Corps' membership. The senior cadets in charge have to achieve these objectives, which are specified for each day. Furthermore, all activities are, or should be, performed in light of the education of the Cadet Corps' norms and values. As one of the key issues in this study is adherence to these norms and values, they will be explained in more detail.

Table 2.1

*CCIP activities and objectives*<sup>16</sup>

Activity	Objective
Dinners	Learn etiquette
Physical activities and sports	Develop endurance and hardiness; bonding
Singing	Foster bonding, cohesion and a sense of history
Unpleasant surprises	Develop hardiness and flexibility
Gathering sessions	Make acquaintance with senior cadets
Information carousels and presentations	Gain knowledge about the history, traditions, locations of the KMA and possibilities of leisure and development within the Cadet Corps
Value and norms carousels	Create a sense of identification with the values of the Cadet Corps.

<sup>16</sup> There are several sources for programs, activities and objectives of the CCIP. The most formal ones are found in the documentation map of the coordination commission: [werkgroep introductieperiode 2000: Intern memorandum geïntegreerde introductie periode cadettencorps] and the 2009 & 2011 syllabus of the coordination period.

### 2.1.4 Cadet Corps' ethos

Within the Cadet Corps, the norms and values have been formulated ever since the end of the nineteenth century. The norms and values were first published in what was known as the 'Blue Booklet', a universal manual for etiquette, which prescribed all the rules and regulations to the last detail. Since 1995, the norms and values have been published in 'White on Black' ([Wit op Zwart] Stolp, 1994). This new publication revolved around the idea that cadets would and should be able to think for themselves and know how to act according to the norms and values. In contrast to what the 'Blue Booklet' set out to do, 'White on Black' was more of a guide to appropriate behaviour than a book prescribing all behaviour in all situations. However, the core of both publications was the cadet's promise and the values of the Cadet Corps. Taken together, they can be regarded as the Cadet Corps' ethos. The following section explains the content of the Cadet Corps' ethos and the relevance for future officers according to 'White on Black'.

First and foremost, there is the cadet's promise; ***'I promise on my cadet's word, to always be honest, loyal to the Cadet Corps and obedient to the Senate, that's my promise.'*** This promise has to be exclaimed as newcomers are inaugurated in the Cadet Corps after the CCIP. The cadet's promise is a guideline for the behaviour of cadets and officers. Secondly, there are the seven rules, which are regarded as the norms and values of the Cadet Corps.

Table 2.2

*Cadet Corps' norms and values*<sup>17</sup>

1.	Behave according to the cadet's promise
2.	Behave with respect and tolerance towards others
3.	Honour traditions
4.	Be creative and show effort
5.	Bring comradeship and show collegiality
6.	Take responsibility for your actions
7.	Dress and behave decently

The Cadet Corps formulates its values as depicted in Table 2.2. Although some of the norms and values lean more towards the specific Cadet Corps' environment, all of them are also applicable to officer occupations. Behaviour in accordance with the norms and values of the Cadet Corps should result in collegiality, comradeship and a sense of unity ([Wit op Zwart]

■  
17 (Stolp, 1994)

Stolp, 1994)<sup>18</sup> in general, and in the Cadet Corps in particular. In essence, the norms and values are a combination of basic civil decency, officer oaths and leadership, and the cadet's promise. The seven Cadet Corps' norms and values are explained in further detail in Section 2.2.6.

#### 2.1.5 Sub-Conclusion history and Cadet Corps' ethos

The historical overview of the Cadet Corps and the introduction period shows that this period underwent changes several times. Most of the changes were accidental and were often imposed by higher management at the Military Academy, or by the Senate of the Cadet Corps. However, despite the growing diversity of aspirant members, the coordination commission and other senior cadets did not seem to accept the urgency of the proposed changes (2005 and 2009 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, pp. 96-99 resp 99-101).

From 1968 to 1973, the Cadet Corps initiated changes to reduce the intensity of the hazing period. Although this is an example of the Cadet Corps showing that it could be critical of its own process, since then hardly anything has changed. Moreover, although physical contact was eliminated, harshness and hazing persisted. Since 1995 the growing diversity of education offered by the KMA caused a huge variety of groups of new recruits. The variety between these groups seems to be long-lasting because of labour market forces, recruitment and selection issues and the individualization of society, which has resulted in demands for tailor-made officer education. Although officers who started their careers in those days at the KMA would probably argue differently, it is remarkable that the programme and intentions of the coordination period have changed so little since 1993. Changes that occurred mostly involved capturing the programme in a more structurally documented way to ensure that each and every CCIP would be the same, whereas it would have seemed more likely that the CCIP would change accordingly, given the growing diversity of students and types of education. Moreover, apart from internal developments and increased diversity, there were also developments in society such as individualization, de-institutionalization and growing informality (Veldheer & Bijl, 2011). This makes it even more interesting to look at what the CCIP contributed with respect to the suggested goals and effects, especially in light of organizational socialization and military ethics. And, not in the least, to assess whether such a short initiation period might be considered as a swift socialization effort.

<sup>18</sup> [Wit op Zwart] means White on Black and refers to the cadets' manual of etiquette and customs. White on Black refers to the fact that not everything concerning proper behaviour can be put in 'black on white'.

## 2.2 Theory on the socialization process and socialization effects: officer socialization at the KMA from the perspective of organizational socialization

In the fields of sociology and anthropology, ‘the general process of acquiring culture, that is, adapting to the social norms, values, priorities in life and customs shared by specific groups of people’ (Soeters et al., 2006, p. 238) is referred to as socialization. In order to integrate into a group it is necessary, most of the time and to some extent, to conform to the norms and roles required by that group. For a new-born child, cultural socialization is imposed involuntarily as there is no choice in where one is born. Socialization in an organization, however, is in a way a combination of self-imposed rules (the individual chooses to be a part of the group), externally imposed rules, and the expectations of others. Broadly defined, in the ‘*process of organizational socialization an individual learns the cultural perspective of an organization. Socialization therefore focuses on how individuals learn the beliefs, values, attitudes, orientations, behaviours and skills necessary to function effectively within an organization*’ (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211).

Research on socialization processes is generally divided into three approaches: organizational, individualistic, or interaction based (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012; Fang et al., 2011; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). An organizational approach involves examining the organizational socialization tactics that organizations use to structure a newcomer’s socialization experience. An individualistic approach focuses on newcomer characteristics such as, for example, information-seeking behaviour and proactivity. In interaction-based research, attention is paid to the influence socialization tactics have on the newcomer’s development. To get a clear view of the role of personality traits and the influence of the socialization efforts, both of which fall within the scope of this study, the next section will explain the general theory on organizational socialization processes and tactics. Thereafter, this chapter will elaborate on theory concerning military socialization, which largely can be considered as an interaction study.

### 2.2.1 Organizational socialization

Basically, the process of socialization is described as organizational entry followed by a period of socialization, resulting in newcomer adjustment (Fang et al., 2011). Organizational socialization scholars are particularly interested in understanding socialization processes, because effective socialization is related to sizeable practical organizational implications such as turnover, job satisfaction, commitment and productivity (Fang et al., 2011; Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). For instance, ineffective socialization is an important reason why organizational newcomers quit or are discharged (Vandenberg & Seo, 1992) or choose to leave voluntarily (Louis, 1980). Turnover (intention) influences work performance and decreases productivity (Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005), and costs organizations their investments in recruitment, selection, and training (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

On the other hand, successful socialization resulting in positive adjustment is mutually beneficial to both person and organization, for it predicts career effectiveness (Blass, 2003) and rapid adaptation (Xiao et al., 2011).

The process of adjustment by socialization is often divided into three stages (Robbins, Campbell, & Judge, 2010; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). During the first stage, the pre-arrival stage, the new member tries to obtain information about the organization (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Orientation on attitudes, norms and values and information seeking are the main activities of the new member. Stage two is the actual socialization phase. The new member learns the ins and outs of the new organization and has to accept reality. Often this is accompanied by a reality shock, destabilization of personal beliefs and expectancies (Rothacher, 1980), resistance to change and uncertainty about the task description. At that particular time, there is no gradual exposure and no real way for the new member to confront the situation a little at a time. The newcomer's senses are simultaneously overwhelmed by many 'unfamiliar cues' (Louis, 1980, p. 230). It may not be clear to the newcomer just what constitutes a cue, let alone what the cues refer to, which cues require a response, or how to interpret and react to them. In the third stage, the outsider becomes an insider. There is mutual acceptance between newcomer and organization, the newcomer is 'transformed' into an organizational member, or in other words, he or she has learned how to behave and, what is more, how he or she is expected to perform.

### 2.2.2 The organizational approach

Many socialization strategies have been found to influence socialization effects (Louis et al., 1983). The first and most developed model of socialization is the typology of socialization tactics (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Van Maanen and Schein suggested six tactics that organizations can use to structure the socialization experiences of newcomers and claimed that socialization tactics affect the role orientations that newcomers adopt (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) argued that each of their six socialization tactics consists of a bipolar scale (see Table 2.3). The tactic of *collective* socialization refers to grouping newcomers and putting them through a common set of experiences, rather than handling each newcomer alone (*individual*) and putting him or her through a more or less unique set of experiences. *Formal* socialization is the practice of segregating a newcomer from regular organization members during a defined socialization period, as opposed to not clearly distinguishing a newcomer from more experienced members (*informal*). The *sequential* tactic refers to a fixed sequence of steps that leads to the assumption of the new job role, compared to an ambiguous or changing sequence (*random*). *Fixed* socialization provides a timetable for the assumption of the role, whereas a *variable* process does not. A *serial* process is one in which the newcomer is socialized by an experienced member that assumes a similar kind of position, compared to a process in which a role model is absent (*disjunctive*) (e.g. a

black firefighter entering an all-white firefighting company). Lastly, *investiture* affirms the incoming identity and personal characteristics of the newcomer rather than denying them and stripping them away (*divestiture*).

Jones (1986) proposed that collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture tactics encourage newcomers to passively accept pre-set roles and thus maintain the status quo of the organization and, as such, structure institutionalized socialization. Opposite to institutionalized socialization, individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics encourage newcomers to question the status quo of the organization and develop their own approach to their roles, referred to as individualized socialization (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) argued that the fixed and investiture tactics should rather be elements of an individualized role orientation, as a fixed programme provides beginners with the security they need to deviate from the status quo, and investiture allows new recruits to retain their personal characteristics.

Table 2.3

Socialization tactics (according to Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1997, p. 201)

Institutionalized	Individualized
<b>Collective</b> – group wise	<b>Individual</b> – alone
<b>Formal</b> – segregated	<b>Informal</b> – included
<b>Sequential</b> – sequence of steps	<b>Random</b> – changing sequence
<b>Fixed</b> – timetable	<b>Variable</b> – no timetable
<b>Serial</b> – role model	<b>Disjunctive</b> – no role model
<b>Investiture</b> – acceptance of incoming identity	<b>Divestiture</b> – rejection of incoming identity

According to Jones (1986), investiture tactics are elements of institutionalized socialization because organizations more ‘likely prefer to build on the capabilities and values that new members have presumably acquired during their education rather than strip them away and start anew’ (Ashforth et al., 1997, p. 211). In swift socialization, organizational induction courses and especially military initiation, rejecting and stripping away incoming identity seems to be just the *modus operandi*.

Time is suggested to be a crucial factor for the process of socialization (Gómez, 2009). Organizations with little time available will choose to socialize on the job and reduce formal institutional socialization programmes. Therefore, short formal training programmes are the main socialization effort (Anderson & Thomas, 1996) in many organizations. And while so-called formal induction courses are, most of the time, short periods in which the one (PowerPoint) presentation follows the other, formal training sessions are not perceived to be very effective as they lack the right ‘social context’ (Fang et al., 2011) that socialization efforts

should entail. In other words, if socialization efforts are not related to practical working situations (i.e. looking at a presentation versus actually participating in assigned tasks with a group) it is likely that those efforts will not lead to any result. Military socialization generally tries to uphold the connection between socialization efforts and military practice.

### 2.2.3 Military officer socialization

Military socialization (Guimond, 1995) differs from civil organizational socialization, mainly because of the different objectives, functions and effects (Wanous, 1980). The gap between civil culture and armed forces culture is relatively large (Moelker & Richardson, 2002). A newcomer's confrontation with military reality causes the socialization process at military academies to be much more intensive compared to an average civil socialization. The degree to which the recruit experiences the socialization process as a nightmare indicates the degree to which divestiture processes are operating. Goffman (1961) argued that '*total institutions*' are commonly thought typical in this regard in the deliberate '*mortification of the self*' which divestiture tactics involve.

But, even in total institutions, socialization processes will have different meanings to different recruits. Thus, the way a recruit experiences the process as a divestiture or investiture is, in part, a function of the recruit's characteristics and orientation. 'Perhaps Goffman and others have been over impressed with the degree of humiliation and deviation of self that occurs in institutions. Even in the harshest of institutional settings, some recruits will undergo a brutal divestiture process with a calculated indifference and stoic nonchalance' (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 63). Some recruits will have been through divestiture processes so frequently that new socialization attempts can be undergone rather matter-of-factly. On the other hand, 'total institutions' sometimes offer a recruit a sort of 'home-away-from-home' that more or less complements the newcomer's self-image. In other words, the newcomer feels comfortable within the culture of the organization because the culture of the organization appealed to the new recruit's personality in the first place (Moelker & Richardson, 2002).

Transforming into a soldier requires more change than just entering a new (civilian) organization (Caforio, 2003). As military personnel are supposed to act in dangerous situations, often fighting for a political cause not intrinsically their own, it is not hard to argue that certain organizational values will be in conflict with the personal values of the new recruits. Courage, resilience and loyalty, for instance, often require personal sacrifices from members of the military. Military initiation periods therefore are supposed to break the new recruits' civilian identities and enable internalization of a new set of norms and a military identity (Rothacher, 1980). This kind of institutionalized socialization was commonplace in international officer education over the past decades.



However, modern-day educational characteristics at the Military Academy do not seem to fit the 'total institution' completely (Burggraaf, 1988; Van Schilt, 2011). After the first few weeks, for example, new recruits are not completely isolated from their home front owing to the availability of social media. This development makes it less urgent to adapt to the imposed institutional values and easier to maintain one's personal identity to a greater extent. A new balance must be found between giving up one's own identity and adapting to the group identity. Moreover, cadets are told to be authentic and to develop a personal leadership style that also fits the organization. It is very important, therefore, that cadets do not completely lose their own identity during the different socialization processes. Although it is far from simple, the way socialization is organized can contribute to the balance between individuality and adaptation to organizational identity.

Military officer education does not start with performance on the job, it starts with a transition from civilian to soldier, or for those already enlisted, from soldier to officer. Socialization might therefore be considered to occur in different stages (Lammers, 1963), all with different intentions or socialization effects. Although under pressure because of the discussion about their purpose and effectiveness, these formal introduction programmes still exist in most military officer academies. This is probably because new recruits are expected to stay in the organization for a longer period (Gómez, 2009) and these programmes also mark the transition from civilian to military.

In the first few weeks, new recruits will encounter important events that will serve as indications of their future military life. The time needed to achieve proximal or distal effects has not been clearly described and varies between three to four months (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002) and one year (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012). For longitudinal research, three month intervals are suggested in order to analyse socialization effects (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Bauer, Morrison, et al., 1998), neglecting the possibility of how specific activities might affect socialization within the first three months. Klein and Weaver (2000) showed that formal training programmes help newcomers to make sense of their new environment; however, formal orientation did not relate to personal change and adjustment (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Daskalaki (2011) suggests that induction courses for newcomers are more related to task and professional socialization than to organizational or institutional socialization which, in turn, is often the focus of socialization at military officer academies.

As mentioned above, most scholars agree that the first three months are critical in adjusting to military life, as soldiers encounter a serious number of difficulties and uncertainties in this period (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Xiao et al., 2011). If the new recruits adjust within this first period to the mental and physical exertion, they will continue to adjust throughout military training. Otherwise they will report having a hard time in adjusting or they will simply fail. However, mental and physical hardship are hardly mentioned as being specific goals of socialization.

#### 2.2.4 The CCIP in theoretical perspective

Reflecting on the way the CCIP is organized and what the goals are (see Table 2.1), it is conceivable to regard the CCIP as a socialization attempt rather than merely a rite of passage or worse, plain hazing. A ritual may reveal ‘values at their deepest level’ (Turner, 1969, p. 6), have the function of transition (i.e. in this study; from civilian to soldier or from soldier to officer cadet embodied by the CCIP) and mark the liminality and confusion of identity (Turner, 1969, 1987). This wider and more anthropological scope, which evidently also applies to the introductory ritual the CCIP, should not be neglected. However, to view the CCIP merely as a ritual of transition does not respect the complete purpose of the current CCIP, whatever critical remarks can be made about the way in which that purpose is achieved. Furthermore, it is within the aim of this study to improve and thus change the ‘ritual’ in contrast to describing and understanding the process. Therefore, the theoretical perspective of this study is more of an organizational and psychological kind. The process of the CCIP in this study is qualified as institutional socialization (Jones, 1986), seeing as the programme is collective, formal, sequential, fixed, and serial. However, new recruits already went through a firm selection process before entering the Defence organization. During this period their personality and their physical and mental well-being is assessed. Although a wide variety of recruits makes it through these selections, a lot more do not make it. Considering the shared motivation to apply for an officer occupation within the Dutch Defence and the preference for mentally stable and physically fit recruits, it is likely that the selection process fosters the intake of, at least somewhat, ‘alike’ identities with a rather high predisposition to commitment to the new organization (Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday, 1992). Yet, although the new recruits are somewhat similar, the intention of military socialization commonly is to impose new mores on those recruits. Therefore, the swift socialization effort of the CCIP seems to fall more into the category of divestiture than investiture.

Theory on socialization effects and the goals of the CCIP show overlap to a great extent. In a comparative meta-analysis of organizational socialization research, Saks and Ashforth (1997a) defined proximal and distal effects of socialization efforts. Proximal effects that have been researched are, among others, role clarity, person-organization fit, skill acquisition, social integration and identification, motivation, personal change and role orientation. Distal effects that have been researched are, for instance, stronger culture, higher morale and cohesion and stable membership on organizational and group level. On the individual level, distal effects are lower stress (Ashforth & Saks, 1996), higher organizational commitment, higher role conformity and higher organizational citizenship behaviour. Most of those proximal and distal effects are confirmed by other more contemporary research (Fang et al., 2011). The goals of a specific organizational socialization process depend, quite rightly, on the nature of the organization and the nature of the people who are recruited. For military organizations, therefore, there are some specific socialization effects. These specific effects for Dutch military officers are closely connected to the norms and values

that are formulated by the Cadet Corps (Section 2.1.4). The next section clarifies the concepts connected to the socialization goals of the CCIP from the perspective of adherence to (new) values.

### 2.2.5 Adherence to values

The emphasis on the specific values of the Cadet Corps is closely connected to the military ethos. To understand and perhaps validate that connection, it is necessary to take a closer look at military values and virtues. Although values are not exactly the same as virtues, the terms are often interchanged, especially in military literature (Olsthoorn, 2011). Virtues are those dispositions which: 'help us to sustain certain practices and achieve good outcomes by enabling us to overcome the harms, dangers, temptations, and distractions which we encounter and by increasing our self-knowledge and knowledge of the good' (MacIntyre & Dunne, 2002). MacIntyre (1981) also contends that virtues must be applied and exercised in practice. In essence, virtues represent 'desirable characteristics of individuals' such as courage or loyalty, whereas a value is 'the ideal that a community cherishes' such as freedom or equality (Van Iersel & Van Baarda, 2002, p. 193). Morality is a set of virtues, mostly related to time and place, which also has to be cultivated through practice (Jeong & Han, 2013). This set of virtues is also referred to as ethos (Franke, 1999; Guimond, 1995).

Following Olsthoorn (2011) and De Vries (2013), the term virtues is closest to what is meant by the description of the various characteristics depicted as moral sound behaviour and good leadership within the military. However, the CCIP and the Cadet Corps use values as a key conception of the virtues they impose on or expect of the new recruits. Moreover, the set of values used by the Cadet Corps, and which might be considered as the Cadet Corps' ethos, relates to a larger extent more to the term virtues than values. In conclusion, the concept of 'virtue' is something between 'trait', 'characteristic' and 'value', and 'in this intermediate position it cannot be defined without coming to terms with a certain inherent ambiguity' (Robinson et al., 2008, p. 2).

But why, then, this specific set of virtues? Plato's four cardinal virtues (Plato, 2008; Riggio, Zhu, Reina, & Maroosis, 2010) prudence (discretion/wisdom), temperance (self-restraint), justice and courage are of serious importance for most people and especially those who have a lot of responsibility, such as officers in the armed forces (Toner, 2005; Verweij, 2010). However, with the exception of courage, in most literature concerning military virtues it is not prudence and temperance nor justice that is brought up (De Vries, 2013). Olsthoorn (2011) argues that ethics education within the military for the most part concerns learning to exercise self-restraint. He mentions honour, courage, loyalty, integrity and respect as five key military virtues, but also puts forward several arguments for different virtues as key to military leaders. De Vries (2013) is somewhat more specific and extensive on the key

military virtues. He defines loyalty as comradeship, and integrity as responsibility, and adds competence, resilience and discipline.

Referring to Plato's cardinal virtues, it is possible to argue that military virtues would accordingly be quite similar across different countries, but apparently cultural differences do matter (Haidt & Joseph, 2004). Table 2.4 shows several sets of virtues for various countries with different cultures, as well as the Cadet Corps' ethos. The Netherlands armed forces' code of conduct<sup>19</sup> consists of professionalism, teamwork, responsibility, integrity, respect and safety and not presented in Table 2.4 because it has large similarity with the Cadet Corps' virtues. Although the various sets differ slightly, it is obvious that the key virtues of integrity, respect, responsibility, discipline and loyalty are present or are represented by similar concepts. Moreover, in international missions most of these countries have to work together and largely adhere to Canadian, US and UK virtues in practice. Even the Afghanistan National Army embraced virtues, which are, for a country with such a different culture, surprisingly<sup>20</sup> similar to Canadian and US virtues. The Norwegian Defence Forces (NDF) seem to have a somewhat different approach as they attempt to stimulate their soldiers to reflect on the consistency and applicability of their own individual particular set of virtues, but in the end the NDF mentions respect, responsibility and courage, and these are defined as specific for the NDF which is not that different from other nations' Defence Forces such for instance the UK army and the Australian Defence Forces, which are not mentioned Table 2.4 (see Robinson et al., 2008, p. 7).

Most of the time countries define the responsibilities or virtues together, or support them by virtues, in order to get more 'criteria for good behaviour'. Canada, for instance, defines respect and dignity for all persons; serve Canada before self; and obey and support lawful authority as responsibilities which are supported by the six obligations (Desjardins, 2008). Furthermore, a lot of Defence Forces (e.g. Australia, The Netherlands) defined central virtues, whereas the individual services such as Army, Navy and Air Force, still maintain sets of virtues specific to their branch. Thus, although several different virtues may not really be in conflict with each other, one can choose to identify with, for instance, Army virtues whilst rejecting general Defence virtues.

In essence however, as Table 2.4 shows, an analyses of the virtues defined by different countries all contain integrity, courage, selfless service, loyalty and respect as overarching virtues which cover other virtues such as honesty, discipline and honour. Some virtues really are different. In Australia, for example, there is also innovation, a concept none of the other countries in Table 2.4 mention. Other virtues seem to be different at first sight, but are more or less the same. France, for instance, mentions initiative, which implicitly is embedded in some explanations from other countries, such as professionalism, leadership or (self) discipline (i.e. it is the professional responsibility of a leader to take initiative). Some virtues are alike but are given a different label; comradeship and loyalty, for example, are

19 See Appendix E for the Netherlands armed forces' code of conduct.

20 This may also be obvious, considering the major effort of US and Canadian Forces in the NATO Training Mission Afghanistan.

identified as related virtues (Robinson et al., 2008) with the remark that loyalty might be a somewhat wider concept. This might indicate that virtues are not defined in the same way by the various countries, let alone how individuals themselves understand the meaning of virtues. Another critical remark on the list provided by Table 2.4 is that almost all virtues have a very inward-looking focus (Olsthoorn, 2011; Robinson et al., 2008) and seem to reflect the virtues necessary 'for a soldier to be effective in a functional sense' (Robinson et al., 2008, p. 6).

Altogether, internationally, most military ethos seems to be constructed with more or less the same virtues. From a military praxis point of view these virtues are more or less consistent with the key virtues mentioned by Olsthoorn (2011) and De Vries (2013).

**Table 2.4**  
*Military virtues in several countries*<sup>21</sup>

US Army	Canada	Israel	Afghanistan	Japan	Germany	KMA Cadet Corps	Overarching virtues
Integrity	Integrity Honesty Responsibility	Professionalism Credibility Responsibility	Integrity	Fulfillment of responsibility	Moral values	Honesty Responsibility Decency	Integrity (honesty, responsibility, professionalism)
Courage Sacrifice	Courage	Lead by example	Courage		Valour		Courage
Selfless Service Duty		Discipline Mission perseverance	Commitment	Strict observation of discipline Awareness of mission Japan	Discipline Democracy Duty	Obedience Effort Creativity	Selfless Service (obedience, discipline, duty, country)
Loyalty (teamwork)	Loyalty	Comradeship	Loyalty	Strengthening of solidarity	Loyalty	Loyalty Collegiality Comradeship	Loyalty (team, comradeship, solidarity)
Respect Honour	Fairness	Respect for human life Purity of arms	Honour			Respect (for others and traditions)	Respect (for others and traditions)
				Individual development			

21 (Dalenberg, 2014; De Vries, 2013; Olsthoorn, 2008; Robinson et al., 2008; Van Baarda & Verweij, 2010)

### **2.2.6 The seven Cadet Corps' norms and values**

The Cadet Corps' ethos, although it does not explicitly mention courage and honour, does not differ greatly from the mainstream military ethos. The seven norms and values actually address ten virtues that are more or less intertwined and connected, both mutually, as with the virtues mentioned in general military ethos. Honesty and responsibility are virtues that are often mentioned in relation with integrity (Becker, 1998; Robinson et al., 2008), loyalty and comradeship are both mentioned, obedience is often related to discipline when discussing military culture (Burk, 1999), and respect is related to honour (Olsthoorn, 2011). The Cadet Corps adds creativity and effort which, from a leadership and problem-solving perspective, relate to responsibility (Reiter-Palmon & Illies, 2004), but in turn are surely also related to mission perseverance. Furthermore, decency and etiquette are thought to be critical for the Cadet Corps, as officer behaviour ought to be reputable and impeccable. Impeccable and reputable behaviour in turn relate to trustworthiness and reliability, which are often related to the integrity of leaders (Trevino, Hartman, & Brown, 2000; Wouters, 1995). Nevertheless, what is important for this study is the way cadets understand these seven (or ten) specific virtues. Therefore the next sections describe the seven Cadet Corps' norms and values as presented in their booklet 'Black on white' (Stolp, 1994).

#### **2.2.6.1 The cadet's promise: Honesty, Loyalty and Obedience**

By exclaiming the cadet's promise, the new recruits acknowledge that they want to be a reliable colleague and leader. Reliability and trust is key within the armed forces, especially given the life-threatening missions and the possible use of deadly force these young officer cadets might encounter. Honesty refers to refraining from lying and cheating, but also to being honest about personal capacities and responsibilities. Reliability and trust are also closely connected to loyalty. Loyalty towards each other but, moreover, loyalty to the organization and organizational goals. Loyalty to organizational goals implies a kind of obedience. Being an officer or an officer cadet in the armed forces implies commitment to the goals (and subsequent missions) defined by the political leadership.

#### **2.2.6.2 Behave respectfully and honour traditions: Respect and Traditions**

Integrity, proper behaviour and zero tolerance towards offensive, indecent, discriminative or belligerent action are all subsumed under the concept of respect towards each other. The legitimacy and public support of the armed forces depends on the image that all soldiers, but especially officers, generate in society, because officers are leaders and Defence policy makers. Furthermore, respect goes beyond mutual respect. It also applies to respect for customs and

traditions. History is, for an important part, fundamental to some of the structures and procedures within the armed forces and at the KMA. To know and understand these historical developments makes it easier to connect and identify with corresponding behaviour. History and traditions are often highly appreciated within the Defence organization.

#### **2.2.6.3 Be creative and show effort: Effort and Creativity**

Initiative and proactivity are important traits for officers. Proactive leaders take responsibility for tasks before they are even told to do so. They think ahead and work on things that are not necessarily their job. By doing so their unit and organization improves. Creativity is needed when young officers encounter new or difficult situations. Problem solving and improvising is an important part of military leadership. The need for junior leadership to show initiative and creativity has only grown stronger over the past decade.

## 56

#### **2.2.6.4 Bring comradeship and show collegiality: Comradeship and collegiality**

Where loyalty implies a connection with the organization, comradeship and collegiality refer to relations between cadets and officers. Looking after each other should be second nature, mainly because most military tasks cannot be carried out individually. Mutual interdependence, responsibility for each other, and stimulating others to work together are important attributes of the behaviour of future officers.

#### **2.2.6.5 Take responsibility for your actions: Responsibility**

Leadership means being responsible. Junior officers in the armed forces are almost always caught between a senior leader and a group of subordinates. They are responsible for large numbers of servicemen and/ or valuable equipment at a young age. To acknowledge responsibility for your own behaviour is important in order to gain and keep the support of your team. Furthermore, taking responsibility means knowing why you did whatever you did, and, moreover, how to improve, if possible.

#### **2.2.6.6 Dress and behave decently: Decency or integrity**

In relation to image building, decency is important for (aspirant) officers. Most of the time, decent civil behaviour is sufficient, but on some occasions it is necessary to understand that the impression you make has to be better than great. Impeccable behaviour and supporting civil



society when needed is expected from all military in general, but from officers in particular. The first impression an officer makes might directly affect public opinion about the armed forces. Furthermore, to behave decently implies more than just appropriate behaviour under social circumstances. It refers to a great extent to the general conduct appropriate to aspirant officers. Integrity is the concept mentioned the most when addressing the topic of fair and just behaviour in a professional way.

### **2.2.7 Socialization effects; Goals of the CCIP**

Although adherence to the values of the Cadet Corps is one of the goals of the CCIP, the main goal and assignment which the Senate distributes to the COCOM (the commission of cadets involved with the organization of the CCIP) is to create enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps among new recruits. Other goals are: the transfer of knowledge about organizational and Cadet Corps' history, the stimulation of cohesion and the development of mental hardiness and leadership capacities.

To gain a clear understanding of all the aforementioned concepts, the next section will address each one. The following goals will be addressed as the proposed socialization effects of the CCIP in this order: enthusiasm, organizational knowledge, cohesion, hardiness, leadership and adherence to values and moral competence. Each concept will be defined and clarified with a brief theoretical body, explained in terms of relevance to military officers in general, and explained in practical relation to the CCIP (as socialization effort).

#### **2.2.7.1 Enthusiasm**

Enthusiasm is an important indicator for the success of the CCIP. Enthusiasm as an effect of socialization (Fang et al., 2011; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a) means willingness to participate in and cooperate with the organization (Taormina, 2008). When new recruits become acquainted with the Cadet Corps, the first impression can make or break their enthusiasm and, subsequently, their willingness to participate and put effort in the Cadet Corps. Enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps means that new recruits understand how they can benefit from the Cadet Corps and, moreover, that they are enthusiastic about participating in the various sports and leisure associations and clubs. Furthermore, as the CCIP strives to impose certain values and virtues related to the officer corps, enthusiasm for their future role as officer and leader within the Defence organization should be fostered.

Enthusiasm for a new organization goes hand in hand with identification, motivation and persistence. A sense of relevance, meaningfulness and seriousness seems to be important in creating enthusiasm and preventing disillusionment (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006), cynicism and distancing (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) from the new organization, task and

role. Furthermore, enthusiasm is related to motivation, morale (Van Boxmeer, Verwijs, Euwema, & Dalenberg, 2010) and identification with the new role and organization, whereas cynicism (the opposite of enthusiasm) has a disadvantageous relation with organizational identification (Frandsen, 2012).

Therefore, socialization practices should be explicitly clear about why and how enthusiasm is stimulated. This implies a certain ‘intensity of meaning and some amount of emotionality relating to anxiety, enthusiasm and involvement’ (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002, p. 16). For new recruits at the KMA this should mean that they have to be confronted with realistic but inspiring expectations and they should have something to gain in earning membership of the Cadet Corps. Socialization efforts to foster enthusiasm might, to a greater extent, achieve more by internalizing the roles and responsibilities and identifying with them (e.g. Pierce, Lydon, & Yang, 2001). Furthermore, meaningful work facilitates identification with roles and responsibilities and, as such, kindles enthusiasm.

#### **2.2.7.2 Organizational knowledge**

Organizational information facilitates the knowledge that newcomers have about their organization in a broader context (Morrison, 2002). Besides historical context and organizational goals, Wang, Kammeyer-Mueller, Liu, and Li (2015) mention language as an important factor related to organizational knowledge. Knowledge of the organizational context (Fang et al., 2011) and knowledge of the new role or role clarity (Morrison, 2002; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a) are both considered to be an important effect of organizational socialization related to organizational knowledge.

During the CCIP, a lot of organizational context information is provided. New recruits have to learn history and traditions at the KMA and they are confronted with seniority amongst cadets. Knowledge of historical and traditional organizational context provides an avenue to understand the past, to reflect on the present and to predict the future. Traditions often are accompanied by ritual behaviour. This behaviour connected to military historical events strives to generate respect (for those who went before you), inspiration (to follow in their footsteps) and adherence to organizational ethos (Evans, 1997).

Teaching organizational knowledge in a short socialization period might seem easy. At first glance, it may seem to suffice to just tell the newcomers what they need to know. Making newcomers understand and behave accordingly, however, is another matter. Inspiring stories help to encourage newcomers to behave in conformity with the mores based on knowledge of, for example, traditions. However, if organizational knowledge is presented in an obligatory way without passion and acuity, newcomers will perceive the organizational knowledge that is being brought to their attention as hogwash (i.e. simply part of an initiation show and not relevant to their officer education).

### 2.2.7.3 Cohesion

Cohesion is often divided into social and task cohesion. Social cohesion refers to interpersonal bonds between group members and is independent of group tasks, whereas task cohesion refers to common commitment to a particular task that demands group cooperation to achieve it (Kirke, 2010). Although cohesion is one of the important distal effects in general (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a), in military socialization it is valued extremely highly and a great deal of effort is put into activities that foster unit cohesion as a proximal effect. Unit cohesion is of vital importance for military units, especially in uncertain situations. In the armed forces, social cohesion is often perceived as the key factor for morale (Kirke, 2010) and moreover, as the motivation to fight or to keep fighting when a situation gets tough, because of the friendships that have been formed. However, there are indications that the effectiveness of performance depends on task cohesion and not on social cohesion (MacCoun, Kier, & Belkin, 2006; Mullen & Copper, 1994).

Cohesion strived for at the Military Academy and in the CCIP is one of social cohesion and institutional bonding. The bonding of new recruits should sustain their will and commitment to each other, their unit, and the mission (Kirke, 2010). For the new recruits, task cohesion (i.e. the fulfilment of the mission) is not of great importance as the cadets will not have to perform as a professional team. Although they will be performing tasks and assignments together as part of their education and the CCIP, the purpose of those tasks is to learn and not to perform. The bonding the cadets develop is thought to generate long-term comradeship with mutual respect and trust as a consequence. Furthermore, social bonds can be seen as a social-support coping instrument, which may help the new recruits to maintain good hope during their education. Moreover, it is important for the new cadets to experience how cohesion (or the lack of it) influences group processes and individual relations during periods of uncertainty. That way, they will hopefully grow to understand ways of building group cohesion when they themselves become team leaders.

As far as the Cadet Corps is concerned, cohesion is specified as a form of institutionalized bonding. After all, there is no particular task that has to be performed and the collective group of individuals will each go their separate way after graduation. However, social cohesion between members of the same educational year (e.g. the new recruits) is supposed to be enhanced by the CCIP as a socialization activity. Although socialization research (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a) suggests that cohesion would be more of a distal effect, the intensity of the institutional socialization period is supposed to enhance feelings of cohesion and acquaintance with other cadets.

Military institutions depend on a level of social cohesion that is reached in few other social groups (King, 2006) and they often rely on collective experiences such as (unpleasant) initiation rites to foster team and institutional bonding (Bartone, Johnsen, Eid, Brun, & Laberg, 2002). Social cohesion in the military develops owing to the following: spatial closeness, intimate interaction and communication, protectiveness by leaders, and the

fulfilment of personal needs by the military organization and its activities, similarity in background and social characteristics, and successful performance and reward (Bartone, Johnsen, et al., 2002; King, 2006). However, despite the positive effects of cohesion, which are fully understood, there is a dark side. The costs of gaining membership through initiation rites might be higher than the benefits (Van Raalte, Cornelius, Linder, & Brewer, 2007), resulting in cognitive dissonance (Gerard & Mathewson, 1966) concerning the attributed value to group membership. Also, strong cohesion may lead to 'groupthink' (Esser, 1998) resulting in lack of personal initiative and critical thought (Verweij, 2002), which might endanger the moral quality of individual and group performance (Ellemers, Pagliaro, Barreto, & Leach, 2008; Graham, 1995).

#### 2.2.7.4 Hardiness

In most studies, hardiness is defined as a personality trait that provides a source of resistance to deal with stressful life events (Bartone, Eid, Johnson, Laberg, & Snook, 2009; Lo Bue, 2015) or the capacity for successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances (Bissonnette, 1998; Maddi, 2007). Hardiness or mental resilience is 'generally thought to comprise elements of commitment (versus alienation) control (versus powerlessness) and challenge (versus threat)' (Dolan & Adler, 2006, p. 110) and is supposed to protect against stress and is also considered to be a specific effect of military socialization efforts (Bartone, 1999). Regular organizational socialization theory (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a) considers lower stress owing to information acquisition and role clarity as distal effects, but hardiness in itself refers more to dealing with stressful situations that cannot be relieved by information acquisition or by role clarity (Bartone, 1999; Lo Bue, 2015; Maddi, 2007).

Part of the military socialization aims to increase the cadet's mental toughness. Although often questioned, this could be in line with socialization efforts to prepare the future officers for working in stressful environments. By means of previous experiences cadets will anticipate the expected behaviour of a new environment and in turn be less vulnerable to the imposed stress of the new context (Wintre & Ben-Knaz, 2000). To stay calm in difficult situations may contribute to a clear situational awareness, for operational purposes but also for keeping sound moral judgement under extreme circumstances. Research provides evidence that the hardest recruits are more likely to make it through basic training (Lo Bue, 2015; Maddi, 2007). The military notion that hardiness development is necessary is largely based on evidence showing the buffering effect that hardiness has on stressful episodes (Bartone, 1999; Maddi, 2007). This evidence is supported by studies proving the beneficial effects of hardiness, such as in parenting styles in early childhood, for example (Bissonnette, 1998). Hardiness is often considered to be a personality trait, but it can be developed through training (Maddi, 2007).

Organizational entry might involve a stressful experience for new recruits, especially when they are expected to adapt rapidly and to adjust to the new organizational culture and customs. The role of hardiness in military socialization might therefore be twofold. Firstly, it might help new recruits to face the challenges during their first entry. Secondly, most military socialization periods aim at stimulating the development of hardiness. When done properly, hardiness training will increase the ability of military personnel to turn what otherwise might have been experienced as stressful circumstances into growth (Maddi, 2007).

The CCIP aims at fostering hardiness among new potential members of the Cadet Corps. Military life in essence consists of various periods that are characterized by uncertainty, threat, physical exertion and time pressure (Maddi, 2007). Many military initiation periods which aim to socialize therefore consist of activities involving a high degree of physical and mental strain. The capacity to deal with physical and mental strain seems to be covered by the concept of hardiness and is basically divided into dispositions such as commitment (i.e. staying involved instead of pulling back and alienating), control (i.e. trying to maintain influence) and challenge (i.e. the feeling that change is part of life) (Lo Bue, 2015, p. 21; Maddi, 2007).

However, most of the CCIP initiation periods put people into mentally challenging situations with the objective that ‘surviving’ the process will result in increased hardiness. However, research indicates that hardiness in and responses to challenging situations are mediated by contextual person characteristics such as coping style and coping self-efficacy (Delahaij, Gaillard, & Van Dam, 2010). What the new recruits actually need is an experience giving the taste of success. If no success is forthcoming, the only thing left to deal with is the feeling of helplessness. To improve the development of hardiness in military initiation (i.e. the CCIP) therefore, hardship has to be followed by experiences of success and comforting efforts of the significant peers (i.e. senior cadets). The latter might have implications for military leaders as regards the way hardiness is developed. It seems to be insufficient to just expose new recruits to hardship. To develop hardiness, they should learn how to overcome these episodes successfully.

Similar to other concepts, hardiness might have possible disadvantages (Coutu, 2002). Although most research confirms the positive effects of hardiness on mental health, it is arguable that too much hardiness might result in recklessness owing to overestimation of personal capacities or to a lack of empathy and the will to be involved with the group. Furthermore, the reverse of hardiness is argued to be alienation, powerlessness and rigidity (Dolan & Adler, 2006). Hardiness or mental resilience is neither ethically good nor bad (Coutu, 2002). This notion is especially important for military officers who should keep a clear mind under pressure and prevent moral disengagement. For people who are hardy to the extreme, alienation and rigidity are likely to relate to a lack of critical thought or an incapacity to empathize, which, in turn, can lead to inappropriate action and behaviour.

Hardiness more or less seems to be a virtue of which neither too much nor too little is desirable. Considering the lack of literature on the dark side of hardiness, it seems that

research has not yet paid much attention to the disadvantages of hardiness. In military culture, the importance of hardiness seems to be highly valued and hardly questioned.

#### 2.2.7.5 Leadership

Leadership theory generally refers to the process of influencing followers to achieve a collective goal (Northouse, 2015). Research on leadership (see Yukl (2013) and Northouse (2015) for an extensive outline) evolved from 'great man' theory, which assumed that heritable components caused good leadership (great leaders are born) via trait and behavioural theories. These respectively explained important personality traits and actions of leaders in order to differentiate between poor and successful leadership, and also refer to contingency theories that attributed a great deal of importance to the context in which leaders had to perform.

Contemporary theories are best characterized as 'one best way' theories (Dalenberg, Folkerts, & Bijlsma, 2014; Horner, 1997) isolating one specific element and upholding that as crucial for effective leadership. Many modern variants of leadership with corresponding adjectives have been developed over the years, such as 'servant' (Greenleaf, 1977), 'authentic' (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), 'compassionate' (Grant, 2008; Martinek & Schilling, 2003) and 'spiritual' (Fry, 2003) leadership. Furthermore, military missions have increased in complexity, which has consequences for the perception of junior leadership responsibility in leadership from the edge situations (Vogelaar & Dalenberg, 2011). Leadership from the edge focuses on the actions of on-scene commanders in an ambiguous, fast-changing, and uncertain situation. They have to take initiative and accept corresponding responsibilities.

A divergent palette of leadership theory and styles has emerged over the years, providing the opportunity for leaders to endeavour and learn to use them all. However, it seems that most modern concepts of leadership development (at least within the armed forces) have a rather single-minded focus on leadership. For years the Netherlands Defence vision on leadership advocated situational and transformational leadership (Dalenberg & Vogelaar, 2012). It is only since 2013 that the Netherlands Defence leadership vision suggests that all leaders should be able to vary their leadership styles to be consistent with the demands of the context, their team and the task at hand (Dalenberg et al., 2014). According to the leadership vision, Dutch military leaders should 'act', 'be', and 'learn'. But what does that mean for leadership training at the KMA?

Although the vision suggests a need for a very broadly developed arsenal of leadership behaviours, the initial leadership education at the KMA still starts with situational leadership (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993) and transformational leadership (Bass, 1999) as a guide for leadership behaviour ('act'). The character of a leader ('be') is reflected by virtues (courage, integrity, loyalty responsibility and selfless service). Learning as a leader comprises the will to develop as well as the ability to reflect critically on one's behaviour. Formalization

of the last two elements ('be' and 'learn') as factors of the leadership vision supports the idea that there have been significant developments in military education concerning attention to the importance of ethics for leadership (Robinson et al., 2008; Verweij, 2010) in the past ten years. Moreover, ethical aspects of leadership are considered for the more traditional leadership styles (Ciulla, 2012; Kalshoven, 2010, p. 70).

Leadership development is core business for military academies as their main effort should lead to delivering adequate junior officers capable of leading small teams in military practice. The CCIP and the Cadet Corps therefore tries to enhance the effort of leadership development. Leadership development is argued to be a systemic process (Day & Halpin, 2001) and a deep learning form of change (Lord & Hall, 2005). Leadership development therefore cannot be seen as a single event. However, although this study does not contest the opinion that leadership development takes time, educational models tend to be limited in time owing to organizational and societal developments. The leadership capacities of junior officers will develop even further after graduation from the Military Academy. Organizational socialization research suggests that it is still possible to achieve beneficial effects on short notice (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a; Saks et al., 2007) and military socialization studies suggest that it is possible to achieve adaptation within a few weeks to months (Guimond, 1995, 2000; Xiao et al., 2011).

New recruits at organizational entry are primed with a view to what leadership behaviour is expected through contacts with cadre and colleagues. The important role of exemplary behaviour in the light of social learning (Bandura, 1971) and socialization (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a) theory is paramount in this case. If future leaders are presented with leadership behaviour of peers that might be considered as wrong examples (i.e. hazing-like activities or destructive/ toxic leadership (Reed & Bullis, 2009) during the CCIP), this might have detrimental effects on newcomers.

#### **2.2.7.6 Adherence to ethos and moral competence**

As mentioned earlier (Sections 2.1.3 and 2.2.7), one of the goals of the CCIP is to stimulate adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos. Although the seven rules referring to the Cadet Corps' values and norms suggest that there are seven values, there is, however, more to it than meets the eye. For example, the cadet's promise, which is the first 'value' of seven, consists of three virtues (i.e. honesty, loyalty and obedience). The six other values contain at least seven virtues such as: respect (for others and for traditions), creativity, effort, comradeship, collegiality, responsibility and decency. Together, these ten virtues can be considered to be the Cadet Corps' ethos.

Furthermore, striving for adherence to this set of virtues among new recruits can be seen as the development or shaping of character (Van Baarda & Verweij, 2004). Because shaping of character is a part of military socialization (Steuber, 1999) and good character is moral



action demonstrated under all circumstances (MacIntyre, 1981; Van Baarda & Verweij, 2004), the development of good character and subsequently the importance of ethics and moral competence seem to be obvious requirements for responsible officers.

Moral competence is the 'ability and willingness to carry out tasks adequately and carefully, with due regard for all of the affected interests, based on a reasonable analysis of the relevant facts' (Karssing, 2000, p. 39). Moral competence refers to situations in which people know what is expected of them and in which they (are willing to) act accordingly (Wortel & Bosch, 2011). Awareness of personal values, critical thinking, sound judgement and the will to act responsibly are key elements of moral competence.

Fostering good character by stimulating adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos should thus also enhance moral competence. At least, when done properly. However, instead of fostering moral competence among new recruits, most socialization efforts, and surely the CCIP, aim to simply 'guide' the behaviour of recruits to adapt uncritically to rules and regulations inside the organization. Moreover, the way values (or virtues) are imposed on the new recruits is merely by reciting and rehearsing the seven lines in which the values are mentioned (see Table 2.1 in Section 2.1.3 and Section 2.2.6).

#### **2.2.8 The officer socialization paradox**

Theoretical insights as presented in Chapter 2 are used to develop and construct this study. However, some problems may arise when theory and practice are combined. Enthusiasm, organizational knowledge, cohesion, hardiness, leadership and adherence to officer ethos are the intended effects of officer socialization at the KMA. The relevance of these constructs for a military organization has been pointed out explicitly. And, although all effects are considered to be important, they often require different approaches if they are to be achieved.

For instance, it is important to create enthusiasm and adherence to the officer ethos of meaningfulness of task and role, as well as to the understanding of organizational goals. If people are expected to acquire knowledge and to understand the meaningfulness of task and role, they generally need time and a calm and quiet environment. Junior leadership development requires initiative and courage from the newcomer, also preferably in unambiguous situations. To create social cohesion, people need the opportunity to talk. To create hardiness, however, uncertainty is key and, moreover, military tasks and roles are often connected to stress and uncertainty. Furthermore, rapid social bonding is often thought to benefit from collective (unpleasant) experiences. In most swift socialization periods such as the CCIP, time is limited and hence diverse activities to achieve the various goals are in stark contrast to the achievement of other goals. Therefore, striving for a diversity of goals makes it almost impossible to achieve them within a short period of time, let alone to achieve them at the same time. Methods intended to achieve one goal are counterproductive to achieving other goals.



A final paradox concerns the adherence to ethos and the goals it aims for. If cadets adhere to the Cadet Corps' ethos and behave accordingly, they are thought of as having good (officer) character. To arrive at that point they first have to conform to the Cadet Corps' values without asking questions. However, teaching ethics implies unlimited criticality (Robinson et al., 2008), which provides the means with which to be critical about the organizational ethos and the way in which this ethos is imposed on new members of the Cadet Corps. But senior cadets have all undergone the socialization process without explicitly asking questions. It would be a big leap for senior cadets to allow new recruits to ask critical questions. Reflecting on the method of socialization (i.e. the way the CCIP has been organized) over the past decades, this paradox is probably the reason why the CCIP was hardly ever criticized. It would also explain why ideas or methods to improve the effectiveness of the CCIP as a swift socialization period were incident-driven and produced no results, or, at best, only marginal results. The question emerges whether it is possible to achieve such a wide variety of socialization effects that seem intuitively and practically quite opposite effects, especially when it is associated with elements consistent with hazing. Therefore, this study looks into ways of improving the CCIP in a more structural way, which pays attention to the role of the senior cadets while focusing on the effects of the CCIP as a swift socialization period with a view to the following: enthusiasm, organizational knowledge, cohesion, leadership and adherence to the Cadet Corps' values. The next section (2.3) offers a brief overview of theoretical underpinnings that provide insight into optimizing the CCIP as a swift socialization effort.

## **2.3 Theoretical underpinnings for optimization of the CCIP: officer socialization from the perspective of social learning and military ethics.**

### **2.3.1 Introduction**

The CCIP in general can be described as a period in which mental and physical exertion are combined with high levels of uncertainty. Much of the behaviour of senior cadets during this period may be defined as hazing-like. New recruits may easily be under the impression that they are being coerced to carry out denigrating tasks, treated with disrespect or, at least, that their thinking is being manipulated. These are all factors to which people generally and plausibly respond to with apathy, opposition, or hostility (Bandura, 2002). Moreover, some of the tasks in the CCIP programme (for example, giving a speech in a noisy room) may be assessed as unfair or meaningless by new recruits. In general, when people do not believe they 'can produce desired results and forestall detrimental ones by their actions', they will not persist in the face of difficulties or uncertainty (Bandura, 2002). When people lack persistence to participate in the process, they will not be open to new experiences nor will they be capable of learning about their new organization. Taken together, the experience of

hazing-like unfairness<sup>22</sup> and the notion that people will not learn to an optimal extent under these conditions makes it highly likely that change in the socialization process is necessary. If not to improve the effects of the CCIP, then at least to optimize its effects.

Beer and Nohria (2000) propose that in essence there are two theories of change: ‘theory E’, with a focus on altering structures and work processes, and ‘theory O’, which ‘seeks to revitalize culture including beliefs and social relations’ (Huy, 2001). As the CCIP and its effects are part of the learning process of the cadets involved in organizing the CCIP, the focus of this study is mostly related to changing beliefs and, perhaps, even culture. However, changing beliefs in the end should generate structural changes in the process of the CCIP. Yet, although structural change is one of the goals, change generated by hierarchically imposed actions is presumed to encounter a lot of resistance because it often disregards the role of people in an organization and might fail to influence their deep beliefs (Huy, 2001) or fail to achieve enduring change. This therefore casts doubt on the chances of bringing about enduring change owing to imposed interventions. Moreover, the subject of change falls under Cadet Corps’ culture from the inside. Attempting to influence the moralities of a culture from the outside is very difficult. This is why the origin of change should stem from the cadets in order to get support from their peers.

New organizational members (i.e. recruits) look to significant others, their peers, for (ethical) guidance. If those peers (i.e. senior cadets) behave in a morally responsible way, for instance, social learning theory suggests that the chances are high that new members will adapt accordingly (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005). The CCIP as a socialization instrument is a means of obtaining adherence to specific virtues and thus hopes to foster virtuous behaviour in members of the Cadet Corps. By suggesting ways to optimize that effort, this study tries to generate change and improvement from a social learning perspective embedded in military ethics.

The next sections will first discuss a brief theoretical background of social learning. Thereafter, the role of military ethics in education and the development of moral competence will be discussed. In the last section, ethics and social learning will be connected to the CCIP in order to provide a foundation for the interventions presented in the results part of this study (see Chapter 4).

### 2.3.2 Social learning

As mentioned in the introduction, socialization involves learning. Social learning theory (Bandura, 1986) provides an important perspective on how initiation could and should be arranged. The climate of socialization (Wang et al., 2015) is an important factor influencing the degree to which newcomers will learn. Proposed interventions should therefore

<sup>22</sup> Which is, at the start of this study, based on experiences and opinions of colleagues and cadets and several publications concerning the CCIP (Moelker, 2003; Poelman & Schwerzel, 2013; Ramakers, 2003)

aim at changing the climate of the CCIP to facilitate learning. An important factor of the socialization climate is the ethical climate. The role of ethics in military education taking a Socratic approach (see Section 5.1) as a specific instrument is therefore of essential importance. Change Management and Human Resource Management theory (Boselie, 2014; Holt, Armenakis, Feild, & Harris, 2007; Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005) suggest that readiness for change (i.e. senior cadets believing that the new approach works) is necessary for the sustainability of interventions. Developing an intervention thus requires a certain amount of deliberation. This section provides a brief theoretical background from a social learning and ethical perspective.

Bandura's social learning theory is founded on the principle that much of social behaviour is learned by watching the behaviour of others (Bandura, 1977, p. 22). Gagné (1971, p. 10) also stated that this might especially be relevant to learning or developing a specific attitude, which is learned most effectively through the use of human models and 'vicarious reinforcement'. Social learning theory suggests that people can either depend on themselves, or on others, or on a group, in managing (learning in) their lives. 'In many spheres of life, people do not have direct control over the social conditions and institutional practices that affect their everyday lives and therefore they seek their well-being and valued outcomes through the exercise of proxy agency' (Bandura, 2002, p. 2). Proxy agency relies on others to foster desired learning effects. In a socialization setting, this proxy agency is an important factor for cultural transmission or learning. However, cultural transmission or learning is biased. People are likely to acquire some ideas or behaviour and neglect others, as individual learning depends on individual experiences (Tomasello, Kruger, & Ratner, 1993). Choices are often based on the observable attributes of a role model. Such a model-based bias (Schubert & Cordes, 2013) includes a tendency to imitate successful or admired individuals. If the admired role model acts properly (e.g. senior cadets behave according to the seven rules of the Cadet Corps), social learning provides a fair chance of socialization success.

Yet, as organizational entry most of the time is a period of confusion and uncertainty for the new members, it is also a period in which ethical conduct can be influenced both in a positive or in a negative way (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). The CCIP as a swift socialization period hopes to engender adherence to specific virtues and thus enhance morally responsible behaviour, in other words, to improve or optimize this adherence and eventually the ability to act responsibly, the social learning perspective on the effects of the CCIP needs to address the role of military ethics in education and subsequently the development of moral competence.

### 2.3.3 *Military ethics in education and moral competence*

As character building is part of military socialization (Steuber, 1999) and good character is morally responsible action demonstrated under all circumstances (Van Iersel & Van

Baarda, 2002), the development of good character and with that the importance of ethics and moral competence seems to be an obvious attribute of responsible officers. So, from a socialization point of view, one way to look at military ethics is to see ethics education as a kind of character building (De Vries, 2013; Robinson et al., 2008). Ethics education has the purpose of developing morally responsible persons and improving those person's moral competence. However, formal ethics education in the regular curriculum is rather scarce and on an academic level. Lack of experience makes it difficult for aspirant officers to really integrate the knowledge into their attitude and behaviour. In the light of recent military operations and given that military organizations are learning institutions, informal training by tutors and commanders is abundant (Mileham, 2008). Developments over the past years with operations in Iraq, Afghanistan and Mali imply (despite some incidents) that most international armed forces understand the moral dynamics of such difficult operations as the aforementioned very well. The need for formal training, however, remains of great importance. Informal training contains the risk of overemphasizing personal experiences and could devaluate to 'how things are in reality' according to an individual instructor.

### 2.3.3.1 *Ethics in officer education*

The difficulty for military officers is that, on the one hand, they should be able to think independently about orders they have received and should be able to apply unrestricted critical thinking (Robinson et al., 2008). On the other hand, they should obey orders immediately when necessary because it saves lives, and because the military is only the operational instrument of politics that is coerced by military force.

This paradox makes it even more important for military officers to be of good character in order to make the right choices. Acting morally responsible is all about accepting serious doubt and taking the risk of making mistakes, or else no action would be possible anyway (Werdelis, 2008).

Ethics courses at military academies should stimulate cadets to think critically about their role and responsibility as an officer and that way create the opportunity for doubt. The intellectual challenge of teaching this ability to young cadets is no easy task. An important follow-up within the development of these moral agents of the military organization is how they act in practice. Olsthoorn (2008) argues that a gap exists between theoretical and practical education at the KMA. Besides the actual academic part of the course at the Military Academy, other parts of the education (i.e. Cadet Corps and military exercise) should involve ethics training consistent with the virtue ethics approach, but focusing on actual (military) behaviour and somewhat less academic or philosophical (e.g. without mentioning the subject of ethics explicitly). In essence, ethics involves critical thinking and, consequently, although it aims for morally based action, it (in itself) has limited effects on actual moral

behaviour. For that matter, the pedagogical model presented (Berntsen & Rolfsen, 2008) makes clear that exercises and mentoring are important parts of ethics education.

Most academic approaches to ethics education are based on virtue ethics, at least within the Netherlands armed forces (Olsthoorn, 2008). Virtue ethics emphasizes the role of a trait, disposition or character which can be developed and acquired by training and practice and serves a morally right cause (Olsthoorn, 2011). Ethics education tries to foster virtuous behaviour amongst cadets and as such tries to turn students into virtuous officers. Virtue ethics is regarded as providing a foundation for military moral standards (De Vries, 2013).

A great deal of attention is paid to ethics in military officer education. It is increasingly becoming a vital aspect of military life (Robinson et al., 2008). Within the officer education at the KMA, and many other military academies, military ethics is generally taught in classic college settings. Books, lectures and courses are part of the academic curriculum (Olsthoorn, 2008). However, instead of theoretical education and contemplating on moral issues (which is, nevertheless, considered to be an effective strategy (Rest, 1986)), officer education should focus on morally responsible behaviour in practice. During the military part of the education (e.g. field exercises) moral responsibility is often neglected or at best referred to on the side. Moreover, moral responsibility is generally referred to as compliance to the rules (Olsthoorn, 2008) in military practice, in contrast to thinking about intentions and consequences. Attention to ethics in military practice is often concerned about adherence to time-honoured ethos (Deakin, 2008), which is generally imposed by senior cadets or senior (non-commissioned) officers. To develop morally responsible behaviour in (military) practice, the concept of moral competence offers specific steps to develop practical skills.

### 2.3.3.2 Moral competence

Developing moral competence suggests an improvement of moral awareness, judgement, action and responsibility. Following Verweij (2007) and Karssing (2000), De Graaff and Van den Berg (2010) distinguished five criteria of moral professionalism: (1) recognition of the moral dimension of a situation, (2) moral judgement, (3) communication about moral issues, (4) engagement in moral action and (5) taking responsibility for actions and decisions.

Describing moral competence, Wortel and Bosch (2011) add one criterion: (6) awareness of one's own moral values, which is in essence the first step. After all, being able to recognize the moral dimensions of a situation, and thus recognize what values are at stake, requires that people are aware of their personal values. The importance of becoming aware of their own personal values is the reason why this criterion is made explicit.

After developing the awareness of personal values (1) and the ability to understand the moral dimension of a situation (2), moral judgement (3) requires the ability to argue why something is right or wrong. This kind of moral reasoning is 'a psychological construct that characterizes the process by which people determine that one course of action in a particular

situation is morally right and another course of action is wrong' (Rest, Thoma, & Edwards, 1997, p. 5). Moral reasoning seems to be influenced by change or reorganization which reflects the individual's ability to construct new moral responses (Kohlberg, 1981; Rest, 1986). Moral reasoning requires the ability to contemplate on moral issues, to communicate (4) about and reflect on one's judgement. Thereafter, following Wortel and Bosch (2011), the will and ability to act according to one's judgement (5) and take full responsibility for those actions (6) complete the concept of moral competence.

### **2.3.3.3 Socialization of moral competence**

Although often addressed as moral professionalism, moral development or moral judgement, most scholars agree that moral competence refers to a combination of abilities. After all, adequate moral judgement and action is only possible if a person has the ability to recognize and assess values and interests at stake in the first place (Verweij, Hofhuis, & Soeters, 2007). The concept of moral competence (as defined in Section 2.3.7.6) therefore provides a good opportunity to address the moral mindset of new recruits.

Socialization efforts, however, are in practice largely based on more or less institutionalized reciting of specific virtues, rewarding behaviour compliant with those virtues and punishing behaviour not concomitant with them. Social cohesion and peer pressure as motivators are mainly fostered by the CCIP and have a significant drawback on military ethics (Olsthoorn, 2008, p. 126). Learning rules or norms by heart without thinking might lead to a more utilitarian, rule based or consequential approach of ethics in practice. Furthermore, most education in military ethics is designed to make personnel follow the principles of military ethics necessary for effective functioning of the military force, without attempting to change their character in a fundamental way (Kasher, 2008; Olsthoorn, 2011). This functional 'follow the principle' approach is inconsistent with the claim that military personnel are morally responsible professionals serving an important moral good. To do so, military personnel, and especially officers, should be critical thinkers who individually take responsibility for their decisions and actions. Creating better and more critical thinkers by using philosophical challenges would imply creating better moral reasoning and would possibly create moral agents within an organization. Military officer socialization puts a huge focus on certain organizational virtues, and common methods that are used to impose those virtues are to make new recruits recite them and learn them by heart. However, just knowing what the organizational virtues are is no guarantee for understanding what those virtues mean, nor will it guarantee moral professional behaviour. Moreover, simply reproducing values or virtues at best reflects the intention to comply, but is more likely a reflection of the wish to succumb to the pressure of the senior cadets. Actual appraisal of and adherence to the imposed virtues should be evident through the behaviour of new recruits, or at least through the mindset of new recruits.

As mentioned, the enhancement of moral competence starts with the stimulation of moral awareness or, more specifically, the individual awareness of one's virtues. Without this kind of awareness, it is almost impossible for anyone to detect moral tension in specific situations, dilemmas or issues (Reynolds, 2006; Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007). However, a great deal of moral competence is also related to the will to act in a morally responsible way and to a large extent is based on virtue ethics (Wortel & Bosch, 2011), because it strives for wise decisions in particular contexts. Given the rising complexity of modern military operations, enhancement of moral competence is more likely to contribute to effective and good leadership than mere adherence to some values or virtues. Therefore, in officer education it is equally important to strive for a combination of both: to know what your personal and professional virtues are, plus the ability to assess the morality of the complex situations you encounter as an officer.

#### **2.3.4 Integrating military socialization, social learning and ethics to optimize the CCIP**

At first sight, there are ample possibilities for optimizing the CCIP. Military ethics, especially with the focus on ethics in education, provides a bridge from socialization effects to the improvement of military socialization periods. There are indications, often implicit and sometimes not very academic, that it is time to redesign military socialization rituals and initiation rites (Bracknell, 2011; Poelman & Schwerzel, 2013; Ramakers, 2003; Steuber, 1999). Furthermore, changing morality in society calls for a different approach. Reflecting on trends of individualization, the question arises whether mortification (i.e. the process of separation from a recruit's former self and formation of an institutional self (Goffman, 1961, pp. 24-46)) of a new recruit's identity is necessary.

The behaviour shown by senior members of the organization during initiation rituals seems to be persistent and grounded in old traditions. But this approach might therefore be inappropriate in present times. It has been proposed to steer the development and improvement of the CCIP towards putting more attention on the professionalism and moral responsibility of both new recruits and senior members. Especially with regard to officer education, morally sound leadership is an important issue. Socialization efforts, including the initiation periods, should be developed in a way that is more coherent with the values they impose. After all, *'it has nothing to do with hurting or humiliating each other. It has everything to do with Marines exhibiting mutual respect, a strength of character and the willingness to sacrifice for one another'* (Bracknell, 2011, p. 16).

Virtues involve certain dispositions and attitudes. Aristotle suggests that while you cannot make yourself act upon a virtue on a particular occasion, you can over time become the sort of person who is virtuous on appropriate occasions (Aristotle, 2000). If the former is right, it is not absurd to create situations for new recruits in which experiences can lead them to become a certain sort of person.



Ethics education in the regular curriculum is few and far between, and it is difficult for aspirant officers to really integrate knowledge into their attitude and behaviour due to lack of experience (Mileham, 2008). According to Rest (1986), there is some evidence that spending more time contemplating issues is beneficial for the development of moral reasoning. Moreover, there is some evidence showing that integrative learning has a stimulating effect on moral reasoning. Students came to appreciate and understand different values because they were repeatedly asked to examine and discuss them across learning contexts (Mayhew, Seifert, Pascarella, Laird, & Blauch, 2012). These findings support the idea that an introduction period, or organizational socialization, indeed influences the perception of values and with that moral reasoning. However, programs that 'are discipline-oriented and information-laden' (Rest, 1986, p. 177), seem not to be effective whereas programs that are designed to foster personal development and include reflection rather than instruction are (Mayhew et al., 2012).

Looking into social learning theory, learning by example and proxy was marked as important. The question that emerges is how senior cadets can be educated in such a way that they will change their behaviour from aggressive and autocratic to proper examples of conduct becoming an officer. The answer to that question seems obvious, as it lies within the question. However, the virtues and the socialization processes are, most of the time, developed by people who are no longer present (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Traditions, common habits and teaching methods are followed blindly by present members and are presumed to be based on some kind of logic and latent assumptions underlying current practices.

Although the design of the CCIP (learning by proxy and group) is supposed to be consistent with social learning theory, the attitude of the role models indicates that the approach of the CCIP is not. Senior cadets behave like very autocratic persons and use disrespectful language. They shout on almost every occasion and most of the time initiative shown by newcomers is disapproved of. The focus of the senior cadets is to denigrate bulls, not to teach them. Although the programme describes a shift in this focus after a few days, in practice, observations show that senior cadets have trouble acting accordingly.

Furthermore, a fair share of the teaching behaviour of senior cadets towards bulls is based on verbal persuasion. This verbal instruction and persuasion aims to teach bulls the right way to act. Because this 'lip service' on values and norms is not consistent with the actual behaviour of the senior cadets, there is a gap, not to say a contradiction, between verbal and vicarious learning possibilities for the new recruits.

Therefore, in essence, the bottom line of social learning theory applied to the CCIP is that interventions should aim at stimulating exemplary behaviour and close the gap between 'preach' and 'practice'. If senior cadets act in a way they expect new recruits to behave, new recruits will naturally follow suit, whether it concerns social behaviour, leadership or ethical behaviour.



The role of ethics in a CCIP intervention can therefore be twofold. First, ethics could provide a way of discussing and contemplating the current approach and, subsequently, pave the way for a sustainable new approach. Second, contemplating issues is not only a way to discuss issues with the senior cadets, but might also create an opportunity to make new recruits more aware of the values and virtues they have to adhere to.

Moreover, as most individuals turn to other individuals for ethical guidance (Kohlberg, 1981), military leaders (i.e. senior cadets during the CCIP) might serve as ethical role models for their peers because their power, authority and status make them attractive role models (Brown et al., 2005). Given the fact that leaders hold this position as role models, it is important for the Defence organization that its leaders truly are examples of moral competence, starting at the KMA. In this way, new leaders learn from the very start to enhance moral competence within their unit by proxy.

As previously mentioned, the difficulty for military officers is that they should be able to think independently about orders they receive and think critically without restriction (Robinson et al., 2008) but on the flip side they should obey orders immediately when necessary because it can save lives and because the military are merely an operational instrument of politics. Accepting the situation one faces and committing to an assignment without question can be a beneficial trait for military personnel as regards safety and efficiency. However, it also inhibits critical thinking because soldiers are prone to accept their current situation and not to question it.

Studying collectivistic versus individualistic culture Soh et al. (2000) showed that newcomers change their virtues and beliefs in keeping with those of the military organization if the behaviour of superiors is consistent with the organizational virtues. In the light of divestiture versus investiture tactics this is not always for the better. After all, perceptions guided by traditional military value-orientations might be difficult to unlearn (Franke, 1999) and hence traditional virtues might be outdated but still very much 'alive' amongst young officers. Still, findings of Soh et al. (2000) and Guimond (1995) do support the possibility of successful socialization effects within military academies. However, Guimond (1995) also found that military personnel who had been assigned to more responsible positions changed their virtues pattern in a direction leaning more towards the military profession.

It remains unclear whether the change in virtue patterns is either an effect of socialization or an effect of the growing sense of urgency to perform responsibly in the upcoming job. Moreover, the internalization of values, and the proof of that in the virtuous behaviour demonstrated, is especially important in situations outside the walls of the total institution. Although, as previously mentioned, most military virtues have an inward-looking focus, to adapt fully to the virtues of the organization should, in the end, result in moral sound behaviour in every situation, not only within the military. The inward-looking focus of socialization is not the only problem military socialization encounters. All possible effects seem to be closely connected and, at times, paradoxically entangled with the method of socialization.

This paradox makes it even more important for military officers to be of good character in order to make the right choices. Acting in a morally responsible manner is all about accepting serious doubt and taking the risk of making mistakes since otherwise no action would be possible anyway (Werdellis, 2008). Socialization efforts should bring about understanding of the meaning of corporate values and virtues, and not just pay lip service to the words that go with them. Furthermore, from an ethical point of view, socialization should stimulate behaviour that is consistent with those values and encourage virtuous behaviour. Initially within the organization, but which eventually also goes beyond that scope and extends to the outside world. However, the influence of socialization efforts might be overvalued (Saks & Ashforth, 2000). Besides organizational factors, there are other factors that may play an important role in socialization effects, such as: personality traits, newcomer attributes or dispositions (Fisher, 1986). The next section provides the theoretical background, against which to study the role personality traits play regarding socialization effects.

#### 2.4 Officer socialization at the KMA from the perspective of personality traits

Socialization tactics and methods aim to achieve a change in a newcomer's behaviour and attitude. Research on the 'socializability' of newcomers (Bauer, Morrison, et al., 1998) often looks at the role of the organization; for example, the tactics used to generate socialization (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), the stages through which the newcomers progress (Morrison, 1993; Wanous, 1980) and the role of organizational insiders (Louis et al., 1983). However, the influence of organizational efforts tends to be overestimated (Saks & Ashforth, 2000). In addition to organizational factors, personality traits, newcomer attributes or dispositions may play an important part in socialization effects (Fisher, 1986).

In general, personality traits are fairly constant and predictable in different situations and throughout time (Phares, 1991). Traits vary in depth and significance. The innermost layer is the basis and considered as 'true personality', while the outermost layer is situation-bound and influenced by, for example, tiredness or stress. It is suggested that, for instance, mood and emotional expression of for instance a tired person might differ from his or her basic traits; in other words, their authenticity is under stress (Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Ilardi, 1997). On the contrary, it might be the case that when stress is high the true self becomes more visible in the outer layer or, so to speak, that people are more authentic when they are unable to inhibit certain behaviour owing to, for instance, time pressure, sleep deprivation or stress. Yet it has been suggested that a newcomers' 'felt authenticity is a good indicator for organizational integration' (Sheldon et al., 1997, p. 1381), which suggests that it would be wise to select new personnel who can remain authentic after entering the organization.

However, in different situations it might not be possible, or might be more or less possible, to observe personality traits and, moreover, personality may also develop over time (Phares, 1991, pp. 4-7). Profound changes in personality are usually the consequences of

major life changes or a deliberate choice (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 9). Other scholars suggest that changes which echo events and feelings during a person's life only affect the surface and not the essence of personality (Heinström, 2003). This is a statement which seems to disqualify every organizational effort to build character and change personality, or at least bring about a change in attitude to a certain degree. However, although the aim of the CCIP is to influence adherence to certain values and virtues, whether or not it is possible to change personality is beyond the scope of this study. Rather, personality is seen as a stable antecedent and is suggested as being an important factor which may have an influence on socialization effects.

It is important that individuals adapt to their circumstances in life whilst retaining the feeling of a solid inner core. Some changes in personality appear to be universal and follow a general pattern and suggest that the expressions of personality are dependent on age and maturity. Sensation seeking for example, is one example of a characteristic which diminishes over time from adolescence to middle age in all cultures (Costa & McCrae, 1980, p. 80). Neuroticism and openness to experience tend to decrease over time, while self-esteem, conscientiousness and agreeableness tend to increase (Heinström, 2003). However, as these changes in personality are related to age, life circumstances and maturity, the assumption in this study is that personality is a rather stable factor.

Considering the role of personality in general, the Five Factor Model (Costa & McCrae, 1992) or the 'Big Five' (i.e. neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness; (McCrae & Costa, 2004)) are identified as factors of influence when addressing socialization (Van Vianen & De Pater, 2012). Furthermore, more specific traits identified as important for the socialization of newcomers are included in this study such as sense making by proactive information-seeking behaviour (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2012; Louis, 1980) and the need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Sense making and the need for information are further conceptualized as the need for structure (Beersma, Greer, Dalenberg, & De Dreu, 2016; Neuberg & Newsom, 1993). Moreover, the need to belong to a group or a culture is closely related to the concept of achievement motivation (Martin & Dowson, 2009), particularly in military officer education where performance and achievement are highly valued. Perseverance in difficult (mental and physical) tasks contributes to the sense of fitting in or adapting to the military organization (Bartone, Kelly, & Matthews, 2013). Together this results in nine personality traits (Big Five, information seeking, the personal need for structure, the need to belong and achievement motivation) which will be outlined below.

#### **2.4.1 Big Five personality factors**

Most scholars agree that five factors are the main dimensions underlying all personality traits. The dimensions are usually labelled as neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience,

agreeableness and conscientiousness. Personality traits are often operationalized with the Big Five personality factors and measured with the NEO personality inventory (McCrae & Costa, 2004). Most studies that relate personality factors to organizational socialization effects agree that extraversion and openness to experience can be seen as positive antecedents (Van Vianen & De Pater, 2012; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Definitions of all five factors and their relevance to military officers will be described in the next sections.

#### **2.4.1.1 Neuroticism**

Neuroticism is a measure of affect and emotional control. Low levels of neuroticism indicate emotional stability whereas high levels of neuroticism increase the likelihood of experiencing negative emotions. Persons with high levels of neuroticism are reactive and more easily bothered by stimuli in their environment. The term neuroticism does not necessarily refer to any psychiatric defect.

A more proper term could be negative affectivity or nervousness (McCrae & John, 1992). Individuals with higher levels of neuroticism tend to have a more negative self-image and negative attitude to their environment and incline towards a negative interpretation of ambiguous situations (Watson & Clark, 1984). High levels of neuroticism are also related to brokerage behaviour (Fang et al., 2015; Van Vianen & De Pater, 2012).

#### **2.4.1.2 Extraversion**

Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000) illustrated the relevance of personality, specifically the dimensions of extraversion and openness, to the experience of socialization. Higher extraversion among the newcomers was associated with higher feedback seeking and relationship building.

The extraversion-introversion dimension shows either an outgoing character or a more withdrawn nature. Extraverts tend to be more physically and verbally active whereas introverts are independent, reserved, steady and like being alone. Extraverts are adventurous, assertive, frank, sociable and talkative. Introverts may be described as quiet, reserved, shy and unsociable (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 49). Various scholars have already proven that extraversion is positively related to socialization effects (Van Vianen & De Pater, 2012; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

### **2.4.1.3 Openness to experience**

Openness to experience is a measure of the depth, breadth and variability of a person's imagination and their urge for experiences. The openness factor relates to intellect, openness to new ideas, cultural interests, educational aptitude and creativity as well as an interest in varied sensory and cognitive experiences. People with a high openness to experience have broad interests, are liberal and appreciate novelty. The preservers with low openness to experience are conventional, conservative and prefer familiarity (Howard & Howard, 1995). Openness to experience is associated with higher feedback seeking and positive framing (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Openness to experience is also found to be positively related to organizational socialization in various studies (Chatman, 1989; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000)

### **2.4.1.4 Agreeableness**

The agreeableness scale is linked to altruism, nurturance, caring and emotional support versus competitiveness, hostility, indifference, self-centredness, spitefulness and jealousy (Howard & Howard, 1995). Agreeable people can be described as altruistic, gentle, kind, sympathetic and warm (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 49). Employees with a high level of extraversion and agreeableness enjoy socializing and developing relationships (Morrison, 2002) and likewise will be more open to adapt to the mores of the new organization and their new peers.

### **2.4.1.5 Conscientiousness**

Lastly, conscientiousness is a measure of goal-directed behaviour and amount of control over impulses. Conscientiousness has been linked to educational achievement and particularly to the will to achieve. The focused person concentrates on a limited number of goals but strives hard to reach them, while the flexible person is more impulsive and easier to persuade from one task to another (Howard & Howard, 1995). The more conscientious a person is, the more competent, dutiful, orderly, responsible and thorough they will be (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 49). Recruits with high levels of conscientiousness are dependable and have a high will to achieve (e.g., high achievement motivation and perseverance). Individuals with higher levels of conscientiousness tend to engage in active planning and problem-solving coping strategies (Watson & Hubbard, 1996).

#### 2.4.1.6 Big Five: relevance for military officers

In general, high extraversion and conscientiousness and lower agreeableness, neuroticism, and openness are related to military training and performance (Jackson, Thoemmes, Jonkmann, Lüdtke, & Trautwein, 2012). Obviously military personnel should not display very high scores on neuroticism. The ability to deal with uncertainty and mentally challenging situations (which might cause negative emotions) while persevering to execute one's task is one of the characteristics of the military profession. However, a very low predisposition to neuroticism may indicate the inability to be in touch with personal emotions. This may be a risk, while the experience of emotions and intuition are also related to the ability to act responsibly (Ben-Ze'ev, 1997; Haidt, 2001).

Although the results from various scholars differ and are far from conclusive (Bartone, Snook, & T., 2002; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002), in general most research agrees that for military officers, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness are considered to be important traits because they are often confirmed as antecedents to effective or successful leadership (Bartone et al., 2009; Judge et al., 2002; Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008). In addition, they are related to charismatic leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000), transformational and transactional leadership (Bono & Judge, 2004) and proactive behaviour (Crant & Bateman, 2000; Wanberg, 2012; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Other research proved that personality traits prospectively predicted the decision to join the Armed Forces. People lower in agreeableness, neuroticism, and openness to experience were more likely to enter the military (Jackson et al., 2012). This study therefore seeks out to what extent personality traits are related to, or even predict, the socialization effects aimed for by the CCIP. Although generally considered as the most fundamental traits of personality there might be other traits that are related to the socialization effects intended by the CCIP.

#### 2.4.2 Proactive information seeking

Proactive behaviour means initiative or anticipatory action taken by employees to affect their personal comfort and/or their environment (Grant & Ashford, 2008) and comprises the self-initiated active steps newcomers take to reduce uncertainty about their work environment (Ashford & Black, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b). Many socialization scholars have focused on newcomers' proactive behaviour as antecedents to adjustment or adaptation (Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Socialization (i.e. newcomer learning and adaptation) can be predicted by newcomer proactive behaviour and, more specifically, by their information-seeking behaviour (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a), at least after organizational entry.

Information-seeking behaviour is related to the process of developing relationships and social integration. Social integration requires information about the organization's culture and information about how one's social behaviour is being evaluated (Morrison, 1993). By proactively gaining normative information, newcomers are able to find out what behaviour is appropriate and what not (Louis, 1980; Morrison, 1993). Moreover, research provides evidence that information acquisition mediates the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and key socialization effects (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002) which might also apply for other personality traits. Some scholars even suggest that newcomer proactive information-seeking behaviour mediates the relation between personality traits and socialization effects (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

During the actual socialization process, especially within the institutionalized socialization settings of the KMA, the information that newcomers receive is shaped by the 'institutionalized' socialization tactics (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) of the introduction periods. Institutionalized tactics in effect provide newcomers with information which reduces the uncertainty inherent in early work experiences and reflect a more structured and formalized socialization process (Jones, 1986). Proactive information-seeking behaviour in the process might therefore become less relevant after organizational entry. However, before organizational entry during the 'anticipatory stage' (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012, p. 13), proactive information-seeking behaviour might indicate a higher motivation to gain knowledge about the future employer and work environment.

Proactive information-seeking behaviour and uncertainty reduction are considered to be important traits for military officers as they have to function in uncertain situations on a regular basis. In order to reduce the complexity of a situation, standard scenarios and drills are often considered to be the answer (Caforio & Nuciari, 1994). Information-seeking behaviour is often referred to as a strategy of anxiety and uncertainty reduction through sense making with the help of the acquired information (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Fang et al., 2011; Hurst, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Livingston, 2012; Louis, 1980; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). A high need for information and the drive to search for new information (and make sense of it) is highly related to the motivation to really understand the new situation. However, newcomers cannot receive all the information they need if they do not participate in the socialization process (Hurst et al., 2012).

Adaptation to Cadet Corps' values is a form of social identification. Personality factors are related to socialization effects such as identification with organization values, but also identify proactive information acquisition as a factor contributing to socialization. However, 'when newcomers enter a new organization they are faced with the task to create a new identity' (Hurst et al., 2012, p. 118) to a certain extent and institutional socialization tactics in themselves provide a lot of information (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b). This is why the link between information-seeking behaviour after organizational entry and socialization effects might shed more light on the relation between the socialization tactic of choice and identification with the organization.



In other words, institutional socialization presents the information before newcomers could or should acquire it proactively. As a consequence, this makes them passive absorbers of information instead of active information seekers. Moreover, information-seeking behaviour in effect often reflects the behaviour of newcomers after the initial formal socialization period, but does not reflect the information-seeking behaviour before organizational entry, which might have a positive effect on adaptation to organizational values. Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) showed that (although job related in their study) pre-entry knowledge is a significant predictor of adjustment. This study seeks out to what extent information seeking is related to or predicts the socialization effects aimed for by the CCIP.

#### **2.4.3 Personal need for structure**

A very specific and distinct personality trait is a personal need for structure (PNS) (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993; Rietzschel, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2007). Individuals with high levels of PNS long for simplicity and structure, view the world in less complex ways, and often rely on heuristic processing of information that is based on well-learned associations (Ten Velden, Beersma, & De Dreu, 2010). In contrast, people with low levels of PNS have less ambition to attain and process information and are more open to complexity of situations (Beersma et al., 2016; Ten Velden et al., 2010).

Although research on the specific relation between the need for structure and socialization effects is scarce, a personal need for structure (PNS) is highly related to openness to experience and information-seeking behaviour (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993; Rietzschel et al., 2007; Thompson, Naccarato, Parker, & Moskowitz, 2001). PNS reflects the extent to which people are 'dispositionally motivated to cognitively structure their worlds in simple, unambiguous ways' (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993, p. 114). Individuals high in need for structure prefer to organize information in simple ways, have lower openness to experience, and tend to rely on heuristic processing of information based on well-learned associations. In contrast, low PNS individuals tend to be open to more complex representations of the situation in which they find themselves, have high openness to experience, and tend to rely on systematic processing of information (Rietzschel et al., 2007; Van Kleef et al., 2009).

Officer initiation does not provide well-learned associations and instead is more likely to increase ambiguity. As regards socialization theory, PNS is a trait that bolsters swift socialization because it is a trait accompanied by understanding and interpreting information properly, and attempting to structure complex situations in order to gain a simpler understanding of them. Military socialization in general, however, focuses more on dealing with uncertainty in other ways than information processing. Furthermore, research suggests that personnel with high PNS are biased towards prototypical leadership (Leicht, Crisp, & Randsley de Moura, 2013), suggesting that they are likely to copy group (leader)



behaviour. Specifically, in the CCIP, the information flow is at such a rapid pace that it is likely to cause high levels of uncertainty for every participant, whether high or low on PNS. Personal Need for Structure might therefore be an important antecedent to various socialization effects.

#### 2.4.4 Need to belong

Thus far, socialization is suggested as being the result of organizational socialization efforts, general personality factors and information acquisition or traits closely related to information gathering (i.e. PNS). However, as put forward earlier, the need to belong and achievement motivation are also considered as playing an important role in predicting organizational socialization effects (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Both concepts suggest a motivation to fit in and do your utmost to be accepted as a member of the new group.

The need to belong relates to the social force within culture which identifies who belongs to the group and who does not. The concept is derived from self-object functions. Ornstein (2011) suggested three cardinal self-object needs that correspond to three axes of self-development. These needs were called needs for mirroring, idealization, and twin ship. The self-object need for mirroring is a need to be admired for one's qualities and accomplishments. Kohut (1971) argued that people (i.e. children) need a caregiver who appreciates them, revels in their progress, and applauds their accomplishments. Satisfaction of this need includes being valued by others and feeling pride in one's qualities and accomplishments.

The self-object need for idealization is a need to form an idealized image of significant others and to experience a sense of merging with these idealized objects. In Ornstein (2011) view, children need to hold an image of one or more idealized figures (i.e. parents) to whom they can feel admiration and with whom they can identify to the point of feeling they are associated with those people's admirable qualities. Through this kind of identification, children can proceed through development in a more secure fashion and internalize the ability to hold ideals and set high but realistic goals.

The need for twin ship is a need to feel similar or comparable to others and be included in relationships with them. According to Ornstein (2011), people (i.e. children) need significant persons to whom they are allowed to feel alike and with whom they are encouraged to feel 'part of' a group (e.g. family) that surrounds and protects them. Fulfilment of this need helps the adoption of community codes and the development of social skills, compassion, and a sense of connectedness.

Every person has a fundamental need for affective interpersonal relationships, this need for affiliation and belonging is even one of the key components of the motivational pyramid (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Maslow, 1943, p. 381). Belongingness is suggested as consisting of three factors: companionship, affiliation and connectedness (Canepa, 2011; Lee & Robbins, 1995), and although at least parts of the concept of belongingness initially are related to

early childhood and early adolescence, connectedness and social assurance appear to be a continuous part of adult life (Canepa, 2011).

In her study on factors related to hazing attitudes and practices among young adult college students, Canepa (2011) shows that various aspects of the need to belong are related to participation in hazing activities. The dynamics and apparent relations between the need to belong, social identification and adaptation to group values for newcomers are discussed by Doosje, Spears, and Ellemers (2002). The need to belong does not have to be fulfilled through interpersonal relations; it can also be fulfilled through group membership. People are 'quick to form strong group bonds and will sometimes behave in extreme ways to defend the integrity of only fleetingly experienced social bonds' (Hornsey & Jetten, 2004, p. 249).

Military officers are often confronted with new groups in which they have to perform their tasks, either because they were sent on an individual mission or because they were assigned a new function or given a new team. Having and creating a sense of belongingness within their new team or organization is beneficial to military leaders. Exclusion from valued groups, on the other hand, can be a highly aversive experience (Jetten, Branscombe, Spears, & McKimmie, 2003; MacDonald & Leary, 2005; Tajfel, 2010, pp. 67, 493), and people are prepared to withhold or change minority opinions for fear of social sanction (Asch, 1961). Moreover, new recruits at the KMA chose to be part of their new environment; they implicitly stated that they want to be part of this new organization and in a way cannot choose to decline membership of their new group (i.e. the Cadet Corps). Therefore, this study investigates whether the Need to Belong is an antecedent to the socialization effects of the CCIP.

#### **2.4.5 Achievement motivation**

Personality factors related to motivation might also influence socialization effects. The extent to which people want to be a member of the organization, the team, and the extent to which people want to perform well is thought to influence the way they adapt towards organizational values and norms.

Achievement motivation refers to the various positive and negative psychological processes regarding the will to persist in task-oriented performance and learning goals (Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliott & Dweck, 1988). An individual's perception to be unable to perform adequately, for instance, can lead to impaired performance, distraction or even withdrawal (Weiner, 1985) from the task at hand. In contrast, individuals who approach achievement situations with learning goals are likely to think about what it is that they need to do in order to improve their skills (Heyman & Dweck, 1992). In situations where people regard themselves as unable to perform, the learning-focused individuals will spur their effort through the perception that it leads to greater ability rather than impairment of their performance (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

With respect to military officers, a learning approach to performance (e.g. adaptive motivational patterns (Heyman & Dweck, 1992)) is highly valued. The variety and diversity of teams and organizations a military officer can be confronted by can also apply to most of the tasks to perform. Persistence, improvement and learning are key elements to performing well as an officer, and are likely to induce quick adaptation to a new unit or task (Heyman & Dweck, 1992).

Achievement motivation is sometimes perceived as an effect of socialization efforts (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992), or at least work motivation is indicated as an effect of organizational identification (Wegge, Van Dick, Fisher, Wecking, & Moltzen, 2006). Wegge et al. (2006) show that the correlation between achievement motivation and identification with the organization is moderate to strong. However, they argue that the organizational identification fosters work motivation, whereas in organizational settings organizational identification first has to be developed. Martin and Dowson (2009) also suggest that motivation and the need to belong are related, in a similar way to when people relate to each other and are thus more likely to work harder to achieve their goals. Although it must be acknowledged that work and organizational context could enhance work motivation, the innate achievement motivation that is needed to persist in an initiation period without prior 'reward' of organizational identification points out that achievement motivation in this study has to be considered as an antecedent to various socialization effects.

## 2.5 Analytical framework

Chapter 2 provided an overview of history and theory regarding the effects and optimization of the CCIP as a swift socialization period. Together, this body of theory provides the analytical framework for this study. Information about history and historical developments together with theory about organizational socialization, social learning, military virtues and moral competence provide the fundament for possible improvements of the CCIP. Theory about personality traits and the various concepts defined as effects of the CCIP provide insight in the antecedents and effects included in this study (see also Chapter 3, Figure 3.1).

The research questions in this study attempt to analyse the effect of socialization activities at the KMA, to examine the impact of interventions in an attempt to optimize the CCIP, and to analyse the role of personality in relation to initial military socialization effects. The core concepts used to understand and achieve the objective of this study are derived from theory on organizational and military socialization, virtue ethics and moral competence and theory on personality traits in relation to socialization. These concepts are related to specific and intended effects of the CCIP (i.e. enthusiasm, organizational knowledge, hardiness, leadership and adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos).

This analytical framework provided the theoretical fundament with which the CCIPs were observed and analysed and questionnaires were prepared for quantitative analysis, in the

end, with the purpose of contributing to knowledge about the effects and optimization of military introduction and practical applications for improvement. The analytical fundament of this study has implications for the view on socialization effects, the development of interventions and the scope with which the role of personality factors is analysed.

Socialization effects such as enthusiasm, organizational knowledge and cohesion are general effects (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). This study however also focuses on specific military socialization effects. Leadership development for example is core business in officer education and hardiness is an important concept for military personnel in general but even more important for officers as they make decisions and bear the responsibility in the long run. The intensified attention to the moral aspects of this responsibility makes it impossible to leave military ethics and moral competence out of the theoretical scope.

This study presumes that improvement or at least optimization is possible if not necessary. Whereas much of the behaviour of cadets up to 2012 was highly directive and focused on imposing the mores of the Cadet Corps, this study suggests that interventions should be based on a social learning perspective. The basic assumption that people learn what they ought to learn by looking at significant others suggests that the focus of intervention should be the behaviour of senior cadets. Furthermore, as the latter would imply that senior cadets behave in a responsible way that is congruent with the seven Cadet Corps' rules, insight into military ethics and moral competence is obviously necessary. The development of critical reflection on their behaviour was operationalized by means of the Socratic Dialogue (see Section 3.4.4 for more details).

As military socialization efforts are supposed to result in shaping the attitude and behaviour of future officers and socialization efforts are perceived differently by individuals, personality factors are important to add to the analytical framework. General personality factors (i.e. the Big Five), pro-active information seeking, personal need for structure, the need to belong and achievement motivation are all related to both military officer behaviour and socialization processes.

Together with the description of the intended socialization effects of the CCIP, insight is provided to answer the central question of this study through research on (military) socialization, virtues and moral competence and personality factors related to socialization. The next part of this study provides more clarity on the operationalization of the variables of this study and on various research questions that arose from the central question and the purpose of this study.



# Research Methods

*'If you cannot explain it simply,  
you do not understand it well enough'*

Albert Einstein





### 3. Research methods

#### 3.1 Introduction

With help of the analytical framework presented in Chapter 2, this study primarily aims to establish a CCIP that is effective in achieving the goals consistent with officer attitude and behaviour development at the KMA. To achieve this goal this study analyses the effects of interventions to optimise the effectiveness of the CCIP and the role of personality traits related to the effects of the CCIP. This chapter outlines the methodological issues that are relevant to the various research approaches.

This research aims to analyse if the CCIP achieves the effects it intends as well as to improve this short socialization period so it can reach its goals in a morally sound way based on social learning principles. This may be somewhat preliminary, because analysis of the socialization effects might indicate that there is no need to improve the effectiveness of the CCIP. However, taking account of various critical reviews (Governance & Integrity & Centrale Organisatie Integriteit Defensie, 2014; Ramakers, 2003) and the personal experience of the researcher, it is perhaps fair to suggest that the way the CCIP was carried out in 2012 gave ample possibilities for improvement.

As presented in Chapter 1, the main question of this research is:

**What are the effects of interventions in the CCIP on swift socialization of newcomers at the KMA and what role do personality traits play in that swift socialization?**

In order to investigate the effects of the CCIP in the first question that has to be addressed is whether the CCIP as swift socialization period achieves the effects it aims for. Bearing in mind that every process can be optimized, the second question that has to be addressed is how the CCIP might be optimized. And thirdly this study tries to answer the question what role personality traits play as antecedents for swift socialization. To provide answers to these questions, four specific research questions are formulated:

- a. What are the effects of the CCIP before interventions?
- b. What are the effects of the CCIP after interventions?
- c. What is the difference in effects of the CCIP before and after interventions?
- d. To what extent do personality traits predict socialization of newcomers at the KMA?

After a sound assessment of the effects the CCIP had in 2012 (answer to question a), the study will focus on possibilities for improvement based on the analytical framework (see Figure 3.1). In the main, interventions are based on social learning theory, the Socratic approach, and theory of ethics education in the military. Several large and small interventions were

made in advance to the 2013 introduction period and subsequent CCIPs. This part results in a threefold comparison. First, as a consequence of various interventions, the differences in programme and approach between the 2012 CCIP and the 2013 CCIP are described. Second, the effects of the 2013 CCIP are analysed and third, the results of the effects of the two CCIPs are compared.

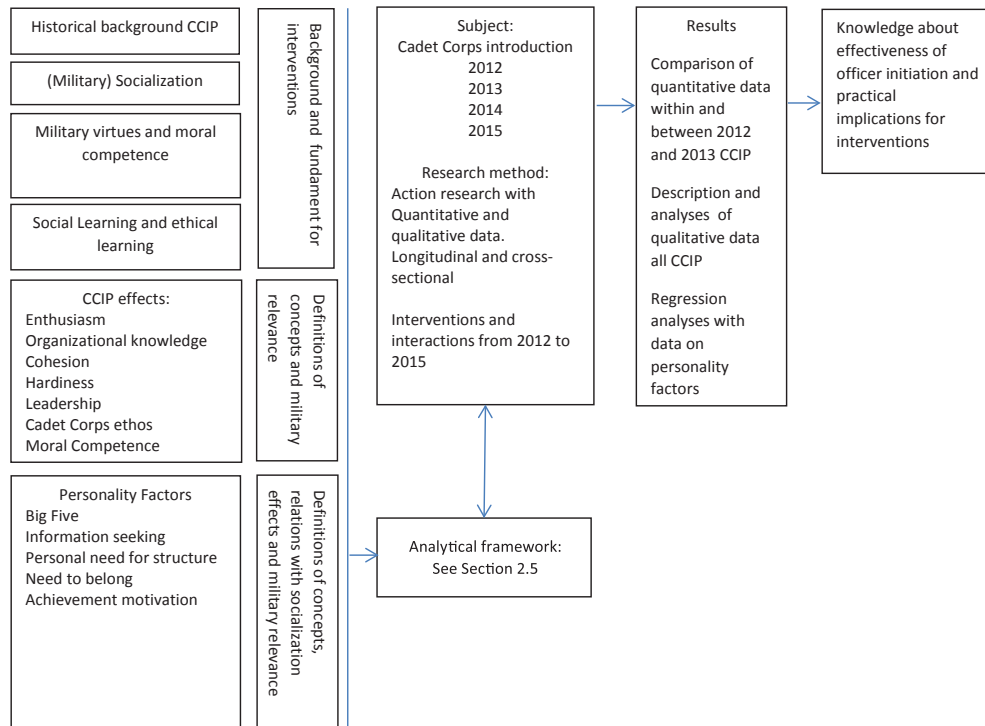
The extent to which newcomers adapt to their new situation obviously does not only depend on the effectiveness of the CCIP. Among several other factors of influence, personality traits are of specific interest and may explain why some newcomers adapt more easily than others. Chapter 2 already provided the theoretical foundation for the answer to the question of which personality traits are likely to influence socialization effects. The last part of the study therefore investigates to what extent personality factors facilitate swift socialization.

### 3.2 Research Design

Figure 3.1 presents the research design as a process map that leads to increased knowledge about the effectiveness of officer socialization. In short, the analytical framework, which consists of several theoretical approaches, is used to develop instruments for questionnaires and observations of the CCIPs from 2012 to 2015. After analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data, interpretation of the results should provide answers to the central question in this study. This will in turn provide knowledge on effective officer socialization and, moreover, practical implications for interventions in socialization activities in general.



Figure 3.1



Research framework

### 3.3 Research approach

In essence this research is a case study (Bryman, 2012; Yin, 2003) with the CCIP as subject and central focal point. However, various research methods were used in order to grasp the complexity of the CCIP and the suggested effects. Therefore, this study is more a combination of a quasi-experimental design and a participant observation method than just participant observation with moderate-to-active participation (Spradley, 1980). As such, this study qualifies as action research (Brydon-Miller, Greenwood, & Maquire, 2003; Whyte, Greenwood, & Lazes, 1989) or participatory action research (Thiollent, 2011). With regard to this study, all relevant research approaches will be discussed in the next sections.

### 3.3.1 Participative observation

To begin with, and as mentioned before, during the research period (2012-2015) the researcher was a mentor of the coordination commission. In this position the researcher was able to observe all initiation periods (two each year) from a close distance. This form of participant observation (Bryman, 2012; DeWalt, DeWalt, & Wayland, 1998) made it possible to develop a clear and extensive view of all planning and executing activities before and during the CCIP. Moreover, interactions between new recruits and senior cadets, new recruits among themselves and senior cadets among themselves were observed during the CCIP. Every CCIP in the research period was documented with personal notes and evaluations by the researcher, notes and evaluations from at least three assistant mentors, and evaluations by the coordination commission after the CCIP.

Joining the groups of cadets involved in organizing the introduction period meant that the researcher of this study was present at almost all meetings and on a continuous basis during the CCIP. This way of conducting research is often described as participant observation (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2002). However, with the exception of a thirty minutes' brief about the connection between the Cadet Corps and the officer corps, the researcher did not formally join in with or participate in activities that involved socializing new recruits. So, although the researcher's participation was to some extent limited and consisted mainly of an advisory role, the senior cadets were not exactly told what to do. They were asked questions any 'critical insider' would be able to ask them. Minutes of meetings were collected, discussions recorded and during the coordination period notes were made of behaviour by senior cadets and new recruits alike.

### 3.3.2 Action Research

The role of the researcher goes beyond participant observation. The interaction and social processes between the researcher and the coordination commission is best described as action research (Kemmis, 1993; Touraine, 1985). Action research seeks to 'bring together action and reflection, theory and practice, in participation with others, in the pursuit of practical solutions to issues of pressing concern to people, and more generally the flourishing of individual persons and their communities'; moreover, the aim of action research is to change practices which maintain irrationalities (Reason & Bradbury, 2001, p. 1).

Social research and interventions in social mechanisms are generally connected to social movement. The intention of the researcher to initiate improvements is consistent with action research as a

*‘practical expression of the aspiration to change the social (or educational) world for the better through improving shared social practices, our shared understandings of these social practices, and the shared situations in which these practices are carried out. It is thus always critical, in the sense that it is about relentlessly trying to understand and improve the way things are in relation to how they could be better. But it is also critical in the sense that it is activist: it aims at creating a form of collaborative learning by doing (in which groups of participants set out to learn from change in a process of making changes, studying the process and consequences of these changes, and trying again).’ (Kemmis, 1993, p. 3).*

Participant observation and action research provide mainly qualitative data. One of the main challenges of qualitative research, especially participant observation and action research, is that it is hard to express what exactly is measured (Flick, 2009; Moore, 2014). Another challenge is keeping the balance between autonomy and commitment. Getting too closely involved and becoming ‘one of the guys’ may make the researcher blind to confounding elements or else the opposite, keeping too great a distance, may prevent the researcher from fully understanding what is being observed (Bryman, 2012; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2002; Moelker, 2014). Therefore, a combination of participant action observations with some more qualitative and quantitative methods was used (i.e. collecting minutes of meetings, recording discussions about the purpose of the coordination period and interviews or email conversations with new recruits and senior cadets after the coordination period).

### 3.3.3 Quasi-experimental longitudinal design

The research approach outlined above makes it evident that this study is not a clear-cut randomized experiment such as found in medical treatment, which has a control group without medication and an experimental group with medication. Psychological and sociological research that measures changes in a recruit’s behaviour or attitude owing to social processes in the field is difficult to design as a classic experiment (Bryman, 2012). Moreover, changes in the social processes (i.e. the MIP and the CCIP) are carried out by people who, almost by definition, will not act exactly the same. The people in charge of the ‘experiment’ (i.e. the senior cadets) are not robots and their behaviour will be influenced as well. Therefore, the design of this study is called a quasi-experiment.

The analyses of the effects of the CCIP in 2012 and 2013 can, in the most simple way, be described (see Table 3.1) as a one group pre-test - post-test OXOXO design (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002) with proximal socialization effects (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a) as observed (O) pre- and post-test factors and the military introduction period (MIP) and the CCIP in turn as interventions or experiments (X). Therefore, although lacking a control group, this research meets the criteria of longitudinal design (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010), which demands that change in a specific variable can only be measured with three (or more) moments of measurement in order to avoid methodical bias.

However, as optimization or improvement of the CCIP is also within the scope of this study, there is another quasi-experimental design to be addressed. The 2012 CCIP and effects compared with the 2013 CCIP and effects after an intervention can also be seen as an OXO design regarding the quantitative data. Both experimental designs (2012 and 2013) lack a significant control group and although the 2012 group is not exactly a ‘no treatment’ control-group for the 2013 group, the complete experimental design of this study is best defined as a non-equivalent control group design (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Shadish et al., 2002). However, the groups of cadets participating in the study are comparable, and the MIPs in 2012 and 2013 were basically organized the same way, suggesting realistic possibilities to draw valid conclusions.

**Table 3.1**

*Quasi-experimental research design<sup>a</sup>*

			O	X	O	X	O
Quantitative and qualitative data	O	2012	T <sub>1</sub>	MIP	T <sub>2</sub>	CCIP	T <sub>3</sub>
	X	Intervention					
	O	2013	T <sub>1</sub>	MIP	T <sub>2</sub>	New CCIP	T <sub>3</sub>
Qualitative data only	X	Intervention					
	O	2014					
	X	Intervention					
	O	2015					

<sup>a</sup>At T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub> and T<sub>3</sub> in 2012 and 2013, research consists of both quantitative (surveys) and qualitative data (semi-structured interviews and observations). Research in 2014 and 2015 consists of qualitative data (observations and semi-structured interviews).

In line with action research, this study also did not stop after the quantitative data collection in 2012 and 2013. The iterative approach suggested by Kemmis (1993) was applied over the four years in which research continued. Qualitative data of observations and semi-structured interviews during those years are included in this study.

### 3.4 Procedure and participants

As a mentor of the cadets involved with the CCIP, the researcher participated in and observed all CCIPs in the 2012-2015 period, with the exception of one (March 2014) owing to a UN mission he was sent off on (from October 2013 to May 2014). The procedure of the research consisted basically of three parts. A quantitative part, the interventions and a qualitative part. To clarify how this research was conducted, these three parts will be addressed first before going into detail about the participants involved in this study.

### 3.4.1 The quantitative procedure

Data for the longitudinal quantitative part was collected in 2012 and 2013 at T1: (week 0) before or on the first day of organizational entry, T2: (week 3) a week before the CCIP and T3: (week 6) a week after the CCIP. Those three measures should provide a firm and reliable grip on the effects of the CCIP. For the first measure, the Defence department of recruitment and selection provided the names and addresses of all applicants for the officer education course in 2012. For this sample, the attrition rate was high; they were all (546) sent a questionnaire to their home address in the month before entering the Military Academy, and only 175 officer candidates responded. Response rates declined to 145 at T3 with 45 cadets participating at all three moments, 67 at T1 and T2 and 74 at T2 and T3 (see also Table 3.4 in Section 3.4.6).

This low response was mainly owing to uncertainty among the participants about whether they would be admitted to the KMA. Only 41% of the respondents already knew they had secured a place at the KMA, 10% was rejected and the majority (49 %) was waiting to hear the final result a month before the course started. Given the uncertainty among those who did respond, it is likely that non-responsive participants changed their minds about their education of choice, backed out or did not make it through their high school exams and hence did not bother to fill out the questionnaire. Large attrition and non-response rates of Navy officer cadets in particular in the second wave made this study focus on Army and Air Force cadets at the KMA. Therefore, for further research in 2013 and 2014, officer cadets at the naval academy were no longer approached. Furthermore, to prevent such high attrition in 2013, the questionnaires were distributed and collected on the first day all recruits entered the KMA. For the second and third measure, the commanding officers of the cadets were asked to distribute the questionnaires, consequently improving the response rate.

For the 2013 sample the recruits were approached at day one of entry to the KMA. Response rates varied at T1, 2 and 3; 77 recruits participated in all three moments, 129 at T1 and T3, 88 participated at T2 and T3. The high attrition at T2 in 2013 was caused by a field exercise of the complete platoon of Air Force officer cadets. Sadly, that specific unit was not able to cooperate with the research during this exercise. In 2013, a questionnaire was also distributed to senior cadets of all educational years. For the new recruits of 2012 this meant their fourth time of filling out the questionnaire (T4). For the cross-sectional part this means that the data of new recruits at T3, the second year cadets at T4 and all higher educational years can be compared with each other. Cross-sectional comparison between educational years may, for instance, be of assistance in developing further insights into the actual attribution of effects to the CCIP concerning socialization effects and also probably will disclose some alternative explanations for the conclusions in this study. Lacking a proper control group, the cross-sectional measure of socialization effects might be the best possibility to put the longitudinal findings into perspective.

In 2013, surveys were also distributed at T3 to cadets of other educational years providing the opportunity to analyse socialization effects over a longer period of time (up to the fourth

educational year). This cross-sectional approach adds insight into the CCIP socialization effects over time and might show to what extent the effects of initial socialization are persistent, bearing in mind that all cadets in this sample were part of the 'old' method of CCIP.

### **3.4.2 Dependent variable questionnaires**

Effects of the CCIP as a swift socialization period are described extensively in Section 2.2.7. In practice, it seems that most senior cadets are mainly concerned with the new recruits' adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos. Yet the primary goal and assignment of the coordination commission is to deliver enthusiastic potential new members to the Cadet Corps. Furthermore, it is suggested that organizational knowledge, cohesion and hardiness are to be fostered. As a leadership institute, development of leadership and moral competence are effects that might be aimed for, but in practice probably do not catch the attention of senior cadets. The next sections (3.4.2.1 to 3.4.3.5) provide a brief overview of how the variables were measured. Details on scales, references of the scales, items, response options and psychometric qualities for all times of measurement are presented in Appendix B.

#### **3.4.2.1 Enthusiasm**

To measure enthusiasm about the Cadet Corps, a 4-item 5-point Likert scale was developed (e.g. I am enthusiastic about the Cadet Corps; I would like to participate in the Cadet Corps; I want to be a member of the Cadet Corps; I would like to make a contribution to the Cadet Corps).

#### **3.4.2.2 Organizational knowledge**

To measure knowledge about the Cadet Corps prior to organizational entry and after the CCIP, a 5-item 5-point Likert scale was developed (e.g. I know the cadet's promise by heart; I know the history of the KMA; I know the traditions of the Cadet Corps; I know the customs and habits within the Cadet Corps; I know the Cadet Corps' values and virtues).

#### **3.4.2.3 Acquaintance with other cadets**

In order to check whether the new recruits get to know each other, a 3-item scale was developed to check to what extent people (already) know each other (e.g. I know people in

my platoon; I know people in my educational year; I know senior cadets). Reliability analysis were inconsistent and revealed an obvious gap between getting to know unit members in the first days and getting to know members of other educational years. Therefore, this study uses only single items for knowing peers and one item for knowing senior colleagues.

#### 3.4.2.4 Cohesion

To measure group cohesion, this study uses a 5-item scale based on morale research (Van Boxmeer et al., 2010) which is partly social and partly task oriented. (I am friendly with my group members; I feel responsible for my group members; I am proud of my group members; I think morale is high in my group; I would take extra risks for my group members if necessary).

#### 3.4.2.5 Hardiness

To measure hardiness, a self-constructed scale of 19 items based on the Netherlands Defence Guide of Mental Hardiness (IK 2-16) (Defensie, 2012) has been developed. Examples of the items are 'I remain calm under time pressure'; 'I accept setbacks without complaining'; 'I finish difficult tasks even though they do not work immediately'.

The construction of a new scale was preferred because this way hardiness is operationalized according to perceptions that are consistent with mental hardiness in the Netherlands armed forces. To validate the construct within this new scale, correlation analysis with another hardiness scale was conducted. In general research, hardiness is often measured as a trait belonging more to disposition. The Dispositional Resilience Scale (DRS-15) used by Hystad, Eid, Johnson, Laberg, and Bartone (2010) is suggested to measure this more general hardiness trait. This hardiness scale consists of 15 items (e.g. 'I prefer daily schedules to be mainly the same').

In the 2012 questionnaire both scales were measured. The self-developed Mental Hardiness Scale correlates significantly ( $r = .53$ ,  $p < .001$ ) with the DRS scale. This suggests that the self-constructed resilience scale measures the same construct as the academically validated DRS. This research therefore uses the self-developed resilience scale as effect variable because the content of that scale appeals more to members of the Netherlands armed forces.

#### 3.4.2.6 Leadership

Leadership is measured with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x) (Antonakis, 2001; Avolio, Bass, & Zhu, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1997) which measures a broad variety of

leadership styles. For this study we used the items that measured transformational and transactional leadership.

Next to the classic leadership paradigm, this study also measured ethical leadership based on the Ethical Leadership at Work scale developed by Kalshoven (2010). This scale, consisting of 26 items, represents six ethical leadership behaviour subscales: fairness (3), people orientation (5), role clarification (5), ethical guidance (6), power sharing (3) and integrity (4).

#### **3.4.2.7 Adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos**

Creating an instrument to measure the preference for and adherence to certain specific values as against others seems to be a delicate task. Especially when the focus is on single virtues. Therefore, taking different approaches, scopes and definitions of values into consideration, this research included the values that constitute the ethos of the organization (Guimond, 1995), because the purpose of the CCIP is to facilitate adherence to a set of organizational values. Most research on values, virtues or organizational ethos gives participants the opportunity to attribute equal importance to every single value or virtue on the list provided. Measuring change in adherence to those values or virtues might therefore be compromised because of how the items are measured.

To assess the change in adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos, a list of 40 virtues was drawn up. Thirty virtues came from existing lists in psychological journals and from course material related to military leadership, ethics and virtues (Franke & Heineken, 2001; Guimond, 1995; Olsthoorn, 2011; Robinson et al., 2008; Schwartz, 2012; Verweij, 2010). Specific Cadet Corps' values were added to the list to ensure that they could be chosen as well (Stolp, 1994) (i.e. honesty, loyalty, obedience, respect, effort, creativity, comradeship, collegiality, responsibility and integrity) and the Netherlands Defence leadership values (honesty, courage, responsibility and selfless service) were included as well.

The Cadet Corps' values were randomly distributed among the other values. Consistent with psychological research on values, and with the intention of identifying the more dominant or extreme values (Beatty, Kahle, Homer, & Misra, 1985) of the participants, a ranking procedure (Alwin & Krosnick, 1985; Reynolds, J., & Jolly, 1980) was used. All respondents had to choose 10 values out of the list of 40. They were instructed on paper to rank these 10 most important values from 1 to 10. The more important the value, the higher the number credited to it. For example, if Respect is the second most important value after Health, the respondent should attribute 9 points to Respect and 10 to Health. The mean of the scores given to the important values was used to analyse the effects of the introduction period with regard to adherence to the Cadet Corps' values. Virtues that were not regarded as important (and hence did not receive a score) were attributed a zero.

To assess the improvement or decline in adherence to the specific set of values of the Cadet Corps, the scores of all ten Cadet Corps' values are summed up to create a measure for



'Cadet Corps' ethos'. The maximum score for this 'ethos index' is 55 points when a recruit gives a score for all specific Cadet Corps' values (10+9....+3+2+1), and the minimum score for this index is 0 when a new recruit does not attribute importance to any of the Cadet Corps' values. The measure for adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos is no Likert scale. Therefore, scale reliability is difficult to obtain. Nevertheless, this kind of measurement provides a better and more valid picture of which values are important to new recruits than the values reported in a 'Likert scale' type, because all virtues would then be considered as important and, as such, no differentiation between virtues would occur.

More than the extent to which respondents adhere to all specific values, the ranking type of measure used in this study to indicate adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos could, suggested by Thurstone (1928), be best described as their attitude towards the Cadet Corps' ethos. The concept of Cadet Corps' ethos only exists because it consists of those virtues together. To assess the reliability of such a ranking scale (Thurstone, 1928, p. 553) suggests 'assessing the correlation of a person's attitude between two moments of measurement'. However, within this study these two moments of measurement also might reflect changes in attitude towards the Cadet Corps' ethos owing to the experiences in between.

The correlations between the ranking of Cadet Corps' ethos before and after the CCIP were not significant in 2012, suggesting inconsistency, and very significant in 2013 ( $r = .54$ ,  $p < .001$ ), which suggests high consistency between the two moments of measurement. To approach the kind of correlational reliability suggested by Thurstone as closely as possible, respondents in the 2013 sample were asked to rank the virtues from their personal point of view as well as from their point of view as an officer cadet resulting in a significant correlation ( $r = .58$ ,  $p < .001$ ). As part of the cross-sectional sample, 59 respondents of the 2012 sample also filled out the questionnaire (for the fourth time) and the correlation of their adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos from the two perspectives was significant although rather low ( $r = .28$ ,  $p = .03$ ).

### 3.4.2.8 Moral competence

Based on moral competence theory (Grassiani, 2009; Rest, 1986; Wortel & Bosch, 2011) and the moral potency questionnaire of Hannah (Hannah, Avolio, & May, 2011), together with TNO, a questionnaire for moral competence was drawn up (the MCQ was developed for other research; (Oprins, Dalenberg, De Graaff, & Boxmeer, 2011).

The scales in the questionnaire are: awareness (e.g. 'I am aware of my personal values'), recognition (e.g. 'I know when I am persuaded to do something against my own values'), judgement (e.g. 'I have a clear opinion about behaviour that crosses the line'), discussing opinions (e.g. 'I discuss within my unit which behaviour is tolerated'), taking action (e.g. 'I report misbehaviour') and responsibility (e.g. 'I feel bad when I have done something that went against my personal values'). After a first satisfying test of the questionnaire in

operational settings (n=881) in 2010, reliability analysis resulted in a Cronbach's alpha = .93 (Oprins et al., 2011). After deliberation with subject matter experts (Wortel & Bosch, 2011), six items were added for this research to create a better theoretical fundament for some of the subscales to increase the validity of the test. The resulting 28 items are rated on a 7-point rating scale.

#### **3.4.2.9 Dependent variables in relation to personality traits**

For analysis of the role of personality traits, the focus lies on the prediction of change. For all dependent variables goes that the change (either increase or decrease) from before the CCIP to after the CCIP is of main importance. Therefore, as actual dependent variables, the differences between the mean at T3 minus and the mean at T2 are used as a measure of analysis.

#### **3.4.3 Independent variable questionnaires**

The conceptual model of this study suggests that personality traits are independent variables related to effects of a swift socialization period (i.e. the CCIP). The measures for all variables used are described in the following section. The 'Big Five' personality factors and achievement motivation were measured during the selections procedure, which for most respondents happened about three to six months prior to organizational entry. Proactive information seeking, the need to belong and personal need for structure were included in the self-report questionnaire and were thus measured at T1.

##### **3.4.3.1 Big Five Personality dimensions**

The authorized Dutch adaptation of the NEO-PI-R (Hoekstra, Ormel, & Fruyt, 1996) is a translation of the NEO-FFI as the most comprehensive 240-item self-report questionnaire on personality (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003) that assesses 30 specific traits (or facets), six for each of the five basic personality dimensions (or domains). The five major domain scales: neuroticism (N), extraversion (E), openness to experience (O), agreeableness (A), and conscientiousness (C) are each composed of six facet scales, designed to measure lower order traits. For example, 'neuroticism' is composed of the facet scales N1: anxiety, N2: hostility, N3: depression, N4: self-consciousness, N5: impulsiveness and N6: vulnerability. Items are balanced to control for the effect of acquiescence and scored on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The psychometric properties such as reliability and validity of the instrument and the factor structure of the Dutch/Belgian

NEO-PI-R closely resemble those of the American NEO-PI-R. However, because the selection department did not deliver all raw data, but supplied computed subscales and overall scores for OCEAN, the reliability is presented per basic personality dimension in Table 3.2 and, therefore, Cronbach's alpha in this study is based on the subscales and not the single items of the questionnaire. For this sample the reliability of openness to experience (.56) is somewhat questionable. However, the NEO-FFI is a prominent instrument and all other factors show highly reliable alphas. Therefore, it is acceptable to use the scale provided some caution is exercised in interpreting the results.

**Table 3.2**

*Personality dimensions and the poles of traits they form. (Costa & McCrae, 1992, pp. 14-16, 49)*

Personality dimension	Cronbach's $\alpha$	High level	Low level
Neuroticism	.85	sensitive, nervous	secure, confident
Extraversion	.76	outgoing, energetic	shy, withdrawn
Openness to experience	.57	inventive, curious	cautious, conservative
Agreeableness	.78	friendly, compassionate	competitive, outspoken
Conscientiousness	.86	efficient, organized	easy-going, careless

### 3.4.3.2 Proactive Information seeking

Information-seeking attitude was measured with a five-point Likert scale consisting of five items (e.g. 'I think it is important to obtain information about my future job' and 'I think it is important to obtain information about future expectations of me').

### 3.4.3.3 Personal Need for Structure

Participants completed a validated Dutch version of the 11-item Neuberg and Newsom (1993) PNS scale (Rietzschel et al., 2007). Examples of items are 'It upsets me to go into a situation without knowing what I can expect from it', and 'I enjoy having a clear and structured mode of life'. The reliability in the current sample is consistent with earlier PNS research (Thompson et al., 2001).

### 3.4.3.4 Need to belong

The need to belong is measured with the Self-Object Need Inventory (SONI), which is a 38 item self-report measure in which participants read each item and rate it on a 7-point Likert scale. Items were loaded onto 5 predetermined Factors, which reflect self-object needs

(Canepa, 2011). These include 1: Hunger for twin ship, 2: Hunger for idealization, 3: Hunger for mirroring, 4: Avoidance of idealization and twin ship needs, 5: Avoidance of mirroring needs.

All five subscales indicating a part of need to belong are separately calculated. The positively phrased items result in 'hunger for... scales' and the negatively phrased items result in the avoidance scales. For the analysis in this study, the 'hunger for' scales were used because the reliability of those scales is consistent (although somewhat lower) with earlier SONI research (Banai, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2005; Canepa, 2011).

### 3.4.3.5 Achievement Motivation

The Dutch Achievement Motivation Test (Hermans, 2004) measures personality dispositions which are important for work attitude and productivity. The facets are: achievement motivation, facilitating anxiety (i.e. a fear of failing in task situations which are stressful or lack a clear structure, a fear which has a *facilitating influence* on performance in such situations) and debilitating anxiety (i.e. a fear of failing in task situations which are stressful or lack a clear structure, a fear which has a *debilitating influence* on performance in such situations) (Hermans, 1970, 2004). The questionnaire consists of 90 propositions, to which the respondent has to choose one of the possible answers. The scores are calculated to subscales for the three facets. Dispositions to positive fear of failure indicate that high work pressure and responsibility motivate the respondent to achieve better results. All scales have a range from low (1) to high (9). To be clear, facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety are evidently correlated (with a negative sign) but are not the ends of a single scale. Data of the AMT was provided by the Defence Selection Department, therefore for this scale no reliability analysis could be conducted.

### 3.4.4 The Socratic Dialogue as procedure of intervention

The Socratic Dialogue provides insight into the participants' (and mentors') ways of thinking, the values that they hold and the preconceived opinions they might have. What is more, for the participants, it can be a learning process: people often believe things that, after really learning to think about them, turn out to be incorrect. The ancient Greeks called this process *elenchus*, which means rebuttal or embarrassment (Verweij & Becker, 2006). In asking people to state and defend the moral intuitions which underlie their actions and their way of life, Socratic Dialogue inevitably also reveals something about their character. In a Socratic context it is impossible to defend a position at odds with one's behaviour since this position is always related to a concrete experience; it relates to 'what is' rather than to 'what one ought to say' (Seeskin, 1984).

Becoming aware of the values underlying the core statement and rules points to another important process, which follows the process of elenchus, and which is referred to as maieutic (midwifery). The facilitator's role is, like a midwife, to give birth to the participant's thoughts by asking questions (Chesters, 2012; Mitchell, 2006; Nelson & Brown, 1949). To stimulate these two processes, and in order for Socratic Dialogue to be successful as an intervention method, the Socratic attitude is of great importance. In practice, it is recommended that the Socratic Dialogue be organized as an hour-glass model and the following attitudes are prerequisite for the participants (Wortel & Verweij, 2008).

- Gentle: give people time to think
- Sensitive: listen to what is said and how it is said; listen carefully
- Critical: be prepared to challenge what is said; for instance, when dealing with inconsistencies ask questions
- Engaged: familiarize with the culture and associated sensitive issues
- Take your time. A dialogue is a form of slow thinking aimed at depth
- Don't concentrate on solutions. Examine underlying reasons, values and views by analysing concrete, real-life examples
- Do not impose one's own views, instead ask as many open questions as possible.

The Socratic Dialogue is a formal method by which a small group (5-15 people), guided by a facilitator, finds a precise answer to a universal question whilst discussing a concrete example (e.g. 'What is happiness?', 'What is integrity?', 'Can conflict be fruitful?' etc.). Socratic Dialogue is not to be confused with the so-called Socratic (or elenchus) method, developed in Plato's writings, by which Socrates often helped people discover contradictions in their attempted definitions of universals. By contrast, Socratic Dialogue helps a group to discover what something is, as opposed to what it isn't. In general, it is a method to make people think with each other instead of against each other. Using a concrete example that is experienced as being fruitful for discussion by all participants yields commitment to the process.

Gose (2009) argues for a Socratic approach in educational settings in which the teacher uses five communicative strategies derived from the way Socrates acted during instructional and informative discussions.

- Ask probing questions about the ideas and issues being discussed
- Ask expansive questions about the relationships among ideas
- Utilize the devil's advocate role and other comic relief
- Spend time on group maintenance and the group process; and
- Take advantage of positions and roles taken on by others in the discussion.

Although it is argued that these techniques are only beneficial in educational settings, their usability for the support and development of the cadets involved with the CCIP seems appropriate because the positions those cadets have in the Cadet Corps, although involving a lot of responsibility, also considerably contribute to their personal learning process. Implementing the Socratic approach into the practice of cadets, however, needs to be done in a tentative way.

### **3.4.5 The qualitative procedure**

In order not to be completely dependent on the statistics of quantitative data, and to gain deeper understanding of what happened and happens in the minds and attitudes of the bulls and senior cadets, it was decided to also interview new recruits, senior cadets and colleague officers. Furthermore, every CCIP is evaluated with the new recruits by the COCOM and these evaluations are a valuable source of information for the assessment of the effects of the CCIP. Qualitative data used in this study consists of semi-structured interviews, minutes of meetings and the researcher's evaluations and observations.

#### **3.4.5.1 Interviews**

Several new recruits and senior cadets were asked to participate in semi-structured interviews after the CCIP (in the 2012-2014 period). The interviews with the new recruits focused on the effects the CCIP is supposed to achieve (see Appendix D). Table 3.3 presents the numbers of the interviews and evaluations. All of the cadets who participated in the quantitative part of the study were invited by email, and all the cadets who gave affirmative replies agreed to participate on a voluntary basis. Most interviews lasted thirty minutes, based on a list of topics created in advance. The topics concerned the following: enthusiasm, knowledge of history, traditions and mores, cohesion, hardiness, leadership, ethical behaviour and Cadet Corps' values. Furthermore, each freshman or senior cadet was asked to address situations or topics that were not accounted for and they were encouraged to talk freely about things they experienced as really positive as well as really negative. Senior cadets were asked about their perspective on learning with respect to the bulls and themselves, and in 2013 they were also asked for their opinion about the changes made in the CCIP. Notes were taken during the conversation and transcribed immediately after. The NVivo software program was used to explore and code all transcribed data. Following qualitative data analysis procedures (Miles & Huberman, 1985) an open coding system was used which provided nodes of key words and clusters of nodes that evolved to general topics; the content of the interviews and evaluations was processed into topics that reflected largely the pre-fabricated topic list. In all fairness it

must be mentioned that open coding procedures might be somewhat biased whilst having a topic list. Still, some surprising new topics arose from the qualitative data.

**Table 3.3**

*Number of interviews and evaluations*

	After CCIP 2012	After CCIP 2013	After CCIP 2014	After CCIP 2015
New recruits	5	19	12	4
Senior cadets	10	9	13	5
Officers	3	3	2	4
New recruits Platoon evaluation	4	4	2	3
Total	22	35	29	16

The colleague officers who were interviewed were also closely involved with the CCIP. They were either part of the team of mentors or they were the new recruits' commanding officer. In one case, in 2013, one of the officers was both commander and mentor at the same time. The interviews with colleague officers consisted of two elements. First, we talked about the process and effect of the CCIP in 2012 and 2013, which, in essence, can be judged as an evaluation of the period that had just occurred. Second, we talked about what the group of senior cadets had learned and how we could assess their professional development. Positive and negative evaluation points were documented and used as topics to discuss with the COCOM.

### 3.4.5.2 Meetings and evaluations

Meetings of the COCOM happened on a weekly basis every Wednesday. Minutes were made of all meetings by the cadet secretary of the COCOM, who distributed those minutes conscientiously every Thursday afternoon. During the research period, all minutes of the meetings held by the coordination commission (>75) were distributed to all members of the commission, including the mentors. In 2012, the minutes were rather short and did not provide much detail about conversations. This improved during the years afterwards.

The six CCIPs that the researcher was able to observe were all extraneously evaluated (25 documents) by the coordination commission, the Senate and the mentors. The evaluations with the new recruits, which were mostly held a week after the CCIP, consisted of three elements. First, the new recruits were allowed and encouraged to 'blow off steam'. This was an interesting part of the evaluation because it helped identify critical points in the programme that had caused harm or missed the suggested effect (although, in some cases, the purpose is to cause physical and mental stress, which might result in some complaints amongst the new recruits). In the second part of the evaluation, the COCOM explained the

goals of the CCIP and the way those goals were reached, and although this part generally does contribute towards some clarification and acceptance among new recruits, it has little value for this study.

The third part of the evaluation, however, is very worthwhile. In this part, new recruits were asked what they had learned and they were encouraged to provide suggestions for improvement. All evaluations were documented in great detail and passed on to KMA senior leadership, combined with plans for the next CCIP. The evaluation of the 2012 CCIP and the plans for the 2013 CCIP are especially interesting, as they should provide information about the effects of the interventions. However, after the 2013 CCIP the researcher's role as a mentor did not stop, so the plans and evaluations of the 2013, 2014 and 2015 CCIP are also included in this research, mainly to look for indications of sustainability.

### 3.4.5.3 Observations

In general, three mentors (including the researcher of this study) were present during the execution of the CCIP and registered observations of events, behaviour of bulls and interaction between senior cadets and the bulls. Observations were described on paper with a pre-established observation topic list (see Appendix C) and were given scores (-, 0 or +) to address to what extent the observation was related to the dependent variables (i.e. enthusiasm, organizational knowledge, cohesion, hardiness, leadership, Cadet Corps' ethos and moral competence). Furthermore, the advisers looked for behaviour in the bulls that was related to conformity or its opposite: divergent behaviour. Topics in this area referred to copying behaviour or language, helping behaviour, taking initiative and showing creativity. Adding to the dependent variables, the topic list for observations also included an assessment indicating to what extent events related to the officer's occupation and whether behaviour was to be determined as proper exemplary behaviour. Observations mainly served as a topic to be discussed with cadets of the coordination commission afterwards. For example, when an activity was observed, the specific behaviour of senior cadets or new recruits was observed. If anything stood out in particular, the observers wrote it down in a notebook. Afterwards, usually every evening, cadets sat down together to review and discuss their activities. Before this took place, the advisers also reviewed their observations and chose one or two to address in a Socratic way with the cadets. The recorded observations also served the purpose of illustrating this research, gaining a deeper view of the effects of the CCIP, and getting feedback on the thoughts and experiences of the participants.



### 3.4.6 The participants

The participants in this research are all cadets at the KMA. The description of the samples follows the procedure of this research. First, the samples used for the qualitative part of the study will be described, followed by the sample that was subjected to the interventions and last, the sample used for the analysis of the role of personality will be addressed.

#### 3.4.6.1 The quantitative sample

The main target sample of this research consisted of the new recruits of 2012 and 2013. These new cadets were the participants in the longitudinal part of this research. For the cross-sectional part all senior cadets were approached at T3 in 2013. All respondents were candidate officers at the Netherlands Defence Academy. At T1 of 2012, candidate officers for the Navy were also participating. Table 3.4 shows the numbers of participants during the research period. The first part of the table shows the participants at specific times (T1, T2, T3). As mentioned, attrition rates were high, especially for the 2012 sample after T1. Considering attrition issues for this study in general, independent sample t-tests between the group of cadets who participated in all three moments in 2012 ( $n=45$ ) versus the group who only participated at T1 ( $n=130$ ) revealed no significant differences in demographic variables (see Appendix G), no significant differences were found for the 2012 sample. The 2013 research sample seemed to have less prior experience within the Defence organization but somewhat more other prior work experience. In short, the demographical characteristics and means of dependent variables of the group participating at all moments is the same as for the group that dropped-out. This suggests that the samples used in this study are a proper representation of the cadet population.

**Table 3.4**

*Overview of the number of participants for longitudinal research*

Longitudinal part				
Year of entry	T1 (Week 0): before organizational entry	T2 (Week 3): After military introduction week	T3 (Week 6): After Cadet Corps' introduction period	
2012	175	128	145	
2013	161	88	131	
Participation in multiple waves				
	T1 & T2	T2 & T3	T1 & 3	T1, T2, & T3
2012	67	74	45	45
2013	88	88	129	77

### 3.4.6.2 Demographic variables

Another comparison to be made at T1 is the comparison the 2012 and the 2013 sample. T-test analyses and Chi-square tests of the demographic characteristics of all participants at T1 in 2012 and 2013 presented in Table 3.5a and 3.5b show almost no significant differences. The mean age at organizational entry of both populations is approximately 20 to 22 (see Table 3.5a) years old and at first entry the 2013 sample is somewhat older (mean  $\Delta = -1.64$   $t_{(265)} = -3.857$   $p < .01$ ) and has more years of service experience (mean  $\Delta = -.93$   $t_{(228)} = -2.52$   $p = .012$ ). At T2 and T3 these differences between groups have disappeared (e.g. T2: mean  $\Delta$  age =  $-.12$ ,  $t_{(165)} = -.241$ ,  $p = .810$ ) owing to attrition of a group of Military Police cadets, of relatively high age (28+), that followed education at another location.

**Table 3.5a**

*Descriptives and t-tests for demographic variables of all participants at T1 (2012 vs 2013)*

	2012				2013						
	N	Range	Mean	SD	N	Range	Mean	SD	Mean $\Delta$	t	df
Age (in years)	174	17.1-28.8	20.1	2.8	157	17.5-38.7	22.3	3.9	-1.64	-3.86*	265
Years of service experience	118	0-5.5	.4	1.1	158	0-19	1.3	3.1	-.93	-2.52*	228
Years of other work experience	129	0-15	2.1	2.5	145	0-12	2.7	2.3	-.49	-1.63	231

\* $p < .01$  \*\* $p < .05$

**Table 3.5b***Descriptives and Chi-square test for demographic variables of all participants at T1 (2012 vs 2013)*

		2012		2013		Chi-square
		N	%	N	%	$\chi^2$
		175	(total)	161	(total)	
Gender	Male	149	85.1	137	85.1	.23
	Female	24	13.7	22	13.7	
	Missing	2	1.1	2	1.1	
Living situation	With parents	132	75.4	112	69.6	6.49
	Single own house	31	17.7	18	11.2	
	With partner not married	9	5.1	26	16.1	
	Married	2	1.1	3	1.9	
	Missing	1	.6	2	1.1	
Service	Army	53	30.3	77	47.8	4.11
	Air Force	62	35.4	52	32.3	
	Military Police	10	5.7	31	19.3	
	Navy	45	25.7	0 <sup>a</sup>	0	
	Missing	5	2.9	1	.6	
Educational model	Non Bachelor	19	10.9	78	48.4	5.7
	Bachelor	55	31.4	78	48.4	
	Missing	101 <sup>b</sup>	57.7	5	2.4	
Prior education	Higher Basic Education	27	15.4	15	9.3	8.76
	Preliminary Academic Education	92	52.6	75	46.6	
	Academic Bachelor	32	18.3	43	26.7	
	Master	20	11.4	23	14.3	
	Missing	4	2.3	5	2.9	

\* $p < .01$  \*\* $p < .05$  a Navy participants were eliminated from the study. b In 2012 many participants were not sure whether their application was successful.

To compare the samples of 2013 and 2012 with a repeated measures analysis of variance, all cadets who responded at T1, 2 and 3 should be included in the analysis. This resulted in a reduction of the sample sizes to 45 in 2012 and 77 in 2013 (see Table 3.6a and b). Analyses of demographic data (t-tests and Chi-square tests) show no significant differences between the 2012 and 2013 samples for age and work or service experience. However, comparison of living situation indicates that slightly more cadets were involved in a relationship in the

2013 sample and there is a difference in composition regarding service branches. Owing to a planning problem within the Air Force unit, 20 Air Force cadets who missed T2 in 2013 could not be included in the merged sample.

**Table 3.6a**

*Descriptives and t-tests for demographic variables of participants at T1 T2 and T3 (2012 vs 2013)*

	2012				2013						
	N	Range	Mean	SD	N	Range	Mean	SD	Mean Δ	t	df
Age (in years)	45	17.9-28.7	21.5	2.7	75	17.8-27.8	22.1	3.3	-.67	-1.14	118
Years of service experience	34	0-4	.4	1.0	76	0-7	1.5	.17	-.10	-.37	108
Years of other work experience	38	0-8	2.2	2.3	74	0-10	2.6	2.5	-.33	-.69	110

\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

**Table 3.6b**

*Descriptives and Chi-square test for demographic variables of participants at T1 T2 and T3 (2012 vs 2013)*

		2012		2013		Chi-square
		N	% (total)	N	% (total)	χ <sup>2</sup>
Gender	Male	38	84.4	65	84.4	<.01
	Female	7	15.6	12	15.6	
Living situation	With parents	34	75.6	52	67.5	7.86**
	Single own house	8	17.8	9	11.7	
	With partner not married	2	4.4	16	20.8	
	Married	1	2.2	0	0	
Service	Army	20	45.5	63	81.8	35.2*
	Air Force*	17	38.6	0	0	
	Military Police	7	15.9	14	18.2	
Educational model	Non Bachelor	29	64.4	36	50.0	4.0
	Bachelor	16	35.6	38	50.0	
Prior education	Higher Basic Education	5	11.1	5	6.5	2.6
	Preliminary Academic Education	25	55.6	36	46.8	
	Academic Bachelor	9	20.0	19	24.7	
	Master	6	13.3	17	22.1	

\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

### 3.4.6.3 Samples for cross-sectional analysis

For the cross-sectional analyses even less cadets could be included. Owing to the short period of time in which cadets attend the short model of education at the KMA, cross-sectional comparison between higher educational years (i.e. second year and beyond) is only possible for the bachelor model officer cadets, fifth year and more senior cadets are not included because this is a relatively small group. Table 3.7 shows that there are differences between educational years with regard to age, work experience and prior service experience.

**Table 3.7**

*Number, age and experience of the cross-sectional sample of first to fourth year cadets (in 2013)*

	First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth year	F	df
N	66	60	27	42		
% of total	33.8	30.8	13.8	21.5		
Age	19.6	21.4	21.5	22.0	18.17*	3
Work experience	2.8	2.5	1.7	1.3	4.98*	3
Prior years of service	.1	1.2	1.3	2.2	18.34*	3

\* $p < .01$  \*\* $p < .05$

Post hoc (Bonferroni) analyses show that differences in age have to be attributed to the mean age of the first year cadets which is significantly lower than their seniors'. On the other hand do the first and second year cadets report significantly more work experience prior to their entry of the KMA whereas the fourth year cadets report significantly more service experience compared to their fellow cadets. Table 3.8 shows no significant differences between the four educational years for all other demographic variables.

**Table 3.8**

*Differences between demographic variables of educational years*

		First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth year	Chi-square	df
	Total participants	66	60	27	42		
Gender	Male	60	57	23	38	2.35	3
	Female	6	3	4	4		
Living situation	With parents	57	47	22	35	5.00	6
	Single own house	6	7	2	6		
	With partner not married	2	5	3	1		
	Married	0	0	0	0		
Educational level	Higher Basic Education	0	2	0	0	19.6	15
	Preliminary Academic Education	56	44	27	40		
	Academic Bachelor	3	7	0	1		
	Master	7	7	0	1		
Service	Army	37	43	14	23	5.06	3
	Airforce	29	17	13	19		

\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

### 3.4.6.4 Targeted cadets for interventions: Change agents

The CCIP initially imposes the mores of the Cadet Corps on the new recruits. The programme new recruits have to follow is more or less secretive and created by the senior cadets. The group of cadets involved with the creation and execution of the programme is called the coordination commission. This group of eight cadets is in charge of all the senior cadets during the CCIP. The coordination commission was the primary focal point in this research to stimulate and initiate change as they could influence their peers as change agents. From the senior cadets under command of the coordination commission, several (around 30-40) are chosen to lead and guide the separate groups of new recruits during the CCIP. These cadets are called the coordinators. Therefore, the secondary group this study tries to target with regard to interventions comprises the group of senior cadets directly involved with the supervision of the groups of new recruits. Every year, the coordination commission consists of 4 third year cadets, 3 second year cadets and 1 non-bachelor model (officially first year) cadet. Most of the time, two of the second year cadets will still be involved the next year and will become chair and secretary of the commission. In this way, experience from the previous year is preserved.

### 3.4.6.5 Participants and procedure for the influence of personality on socialization effects

For this part of the study, only data of new recruits entering the KMA in 2013 was used. The demographical characteristics of this sample are presented in Table 3.6a and 3.6b above. Data were collected longitudinally, with surveys distributed to all cadets on the first day of their new start at the KMA (T<sub>1</sub>), after the MIP (T<sub>2</sub>) and after the CCIP (T<sub>3</sub>) as described in the sections above. Before organizational entry, during the process of recruitment and selection, the potential cadets filled out various personality tests (e.g. The NEO personality inventory and the AMT: Achievement Motivation Test) at their home address and at the Defence Centre for Recruitment and Selection. The data on their personality traits was (with consent of the participants) retrieved from the Defence recruitment and selection department.

Table 3.4 already showed that 77 cadets filled out the surveys at all three moments. The inclusion of personality traits as a variable reduced the group of respondents to 62, consequently setting the largest attrition rate from the start of the education (i.e. T<sub>1</sub>) to the merge of the personality data with the remaining respondents at 61% (62 of 161 left, an attrition of 99 persons). Table 3.9 shows the attrition rates of the sample in more detail. Although a bit high, the overall 39% retention rate is consistent with other longitudinal studies of socialization with rather short time laps (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer & Green, 1994; Bauer, Maertz, Dolen, & Campion, 1998).

**Table 3.9**

*Attrition rates regarding selection data on personality traits*

	T <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>3</sub>	Longitudinal attrition rate
Total respondents 2013	161	88	131	45%-19%
NEO available	109	71	91	35%-17%
Attrition rate owing to unavailable NEO-FFI	32%	19%	31%	
	T <sub>1</sub> -T <sub>3</sub>	T <sub>1</sub> -T <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>1</sub> -T <sub>2</sub> -T <sub>3</sub>	
	87	66	62	
Attrition rate longitudinal	20%	39%	38%	

## 3.5 Validity and reliability

To assess the content and psychometric qualities of instruments and procedures used in this study, validity and reliability are important criteria. To determine the extent to which this research actually measures what it attempts to measure, various strategies have been applied to improve the validity (Zechmeister, Zechmeister, & Shaughnessy, 2000). International academic scales (e.g. Leadership (MLQ5X), Personal need for structure, Need to belong, NEO-FFI; see Appendix B) were used for some concepts, which contribute to the construct validity.

Some scales were developed for this research specifically (e.g. Enthusiasm, Hardiness, Cadet Corps' ethos; see Appendix B). By using the construct and facet methods (Van den Brink & Mellenbergh, 1998 pp. 311), the construct validity of newly developed scales is ensured. With the construct method, a nomological network of the desired concept is established thus ensuring coverage of the clear theoretical definition of the concept, whereas the facet method in turn was used to ensure that the resulting items are representative of the measured concept. For example: for the 'enthusiasm' variable the nomological network contained constructs such as willingness, eagerness, interest, passion, inspiration, involvement and commitment which, combined with the identified behavioural and situational facets of the Cadet Corps' life (e.g. being a member, participating in events and also actively contribute to the Cadet Corps' life) resulted in items that contained enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps in general, the aspiration to be a part of the Cadet Corps, the willingness to become a member of the Cadet Corps and the ambition to mean something for the Cadet Corps. Nomological networks for several variables were deduced from the theoretical background presented in sections 2.2.6 and 2.2.7. The specification of behavioural and situational facets for each variable is derived from personal experience of the researcher, orienting interviews with the coordination commission in 2011 and formal Cadet Corps' documents such as 'White on Black' (Stolp, 1994).

To strive for a clear and single meaning for each concept in the theoretical part, inasmuch as possible, the broadness of the concepts is discussed and in the methodological part the concepts are operationalized in scales consisting of several items. Various concepts in this research integrate different disciplines and situations, and are concerned with a diversity of themes. Hence, it is not surprising that a few concepts seem to be ambiguous at times, not only at the boundaries where they may appear to be blurred, but also in the concepts themselves. Conceptual vagueness might be 'a persistent issue because that is what reality reflects' (Soeters, Shields, & Rietjens, 2014, p. 294). Nonetheless, for the sake of clarity, Table 3.10 presents all concepts used in this study with a clear-cut definition and (if measured with a Likert scale) Cronbach's  $\alpha$  scale reliability for the separate times of measurement.

Besides conceptual clarity there is an issue of the difference between actual behaviour and measured attitude. Admittedly, the focus of this study is on self-reported data which shows the respondents' feelings, prejudice, notions and ideas about the specified topics, and at best reflects the intention to behave in a certain manner but does not indicate the way respondents behave in practice, and therefore this study accepts the discrepancy between intention and action. Firstly because intentions predict behaviour to a certain extent (Eccles et al., 2006; Webb & Sheeran, 2006), especially when subjects use moral connotations for their behavioural intentions (Godin, Conner, & Sheeran, 2005). Secondly because the difference between what is measured and what is reality is a universal problem even with discreet variables (Thurstone, 1928, p. 532).

An important part supporting the possibilities for generalization of this study is the source and methodological triangulation. Cross-sectional and longitudinal quantitative



self-reported data of respondents are combined with longitudinal qualitative data (i.e. interviews and minutes of meetings) and participative observations of the actual case by the observers. To enhance the inter-rater reliability of observations, a topic list was designed for all observers. After each CCIP the observers shared their notes and discussed them in a meeting to reach consensus about the actual meaning of the observations. Observations that were not attributed unanimously were discussed and if no consensus was reached they were discarded. Unfortunately, as a result of lack of registration on paper of some advisers, and a dispersion of advisers across different units, clear inter-adviser reliability of all observations could not be established. Whilst sitting together, discussing the observations, in general the advisers agreed more often than not on the attribution of observations (9 out of 10) and about which topics were of importance (3 out of 10) and how these behaviours should be interpreted and addressed.

The problem with the distribution of questionnaires in longitudinal research is one of test-retest reliability. Reliable questionnaires are expected to show high test-retest reliability, inferring that respondents score relatively the same at T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub> and T<sub>3</sub> on for instance enthusiasm. However, this research intends to influence newcomers enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps which aims for a change in those scores. Measuring the same variables at T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub> and T<sub>3</sub> could rise the problem of test learning and test memory of the participants. If, for example, participants think they are supposed to improve, their answers might reflect that suggestion. In other words, they will give their behaviour higher scores in the second or third questionnaire. Many variables used in this study do not have a specific direction of preference. It is not explicitly clear for a respondent whether he or she should score high or low, or should improve for that matter. Because correlations between scales at T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub> and T<sub>3</sub> would not suffice to exclude the risk of test learning effects, analyses and interpretation of results (i.e. the interpretation of why mean scores change in specific directions) should point out whether the test-retest bias is of confounding importance in this study.

Internal validity involves the causality of relationships in experimental designs. The degree to which differences between reported variables are actually caused by the occurrence prior to the second time of measurement can be enhanced by ruling out alternative explanations. One of the disadvantages of participative observation is the possibility of drawing valid conclusions about interventions. This study, though, does involve 'participative observation with intervention' (Zechmeister et al., 2000, p. 85) whereby the researcher is an undisguised interactor with the various groups of cadets. As a consequence, academic objectivity might be in danger. However, the combination of research methods (i.e. participative observation, quantitative and qualitative data in a cross-sectional and longitudinal way) used in this study ensures internal validity.

Furthermore, to ensure internal validity, the benefits of the CCIP are that it takes place in a practically isolated setting on which most external variables have no impact. However, there may be factors inside the KMA that will influence the process as well. In order to make causal inferences, three conditions have to be met: time-order relation between cause and effect,

covariance between cause and effect, and elimination of plausible alternative explanations (Zechmeister et al., 2000). The longitudinal design with an intervention assures the time order relations. To test covariance between cause and effect in this study is difficult because it was not possible to design a split-half experiment with one group of cadets following the CCIP and exclude the other half. Differences in before and after means of variables should therefore prove whether the CCIP has significant effects. As regards alternative explanations, the most important factors that might compromise the effects of the intervention are: the composition of the group of new recruits and the composition and attitude of the group of senior cadets. Whereas the latter is the focal point of the intervention, making a comparison of groups of new recruits on individual demographic differences validates, to a large extent, part of the results of the intervention. After all, if the groups do not differ in demographic characteristics (e.g. age, gender, and educational level), then it is likely (although there may be some other factors in play) that differences between before and after the experimental condition (i.e. the CCIP) are caused by the experimental condition, because that is (almost) the only thing that happened with those groups between T2 and T3.

A final issue concerning experimental designs is the control group. Some developments in people's attitude and behaviour might be based on maturation (Cook & Campbell, 1979). The developments that might be found within a group of senior cadets might be the same within a group of the same demographic composition. Therefore, it is important to compare the developments within an experimental group with a group that was not exposed (e.g. did not enter the Military Academy). Creating a control group for officer cadets is difficult as there is no such thing as a group of cadets outside the KMA.

**Table 3.10**  
Dependent variables: Definitions and reliability

	Items	Cronbach's $\alpha$ 2012			Cronbach's $\alpha$ 2013		
		T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3
Enthusiasm	Enthusiasm about and the will to participate in the Cadet Corps	4	.84	.86	.58	.89	.91
Organizational Knowledge	Knowledge about Cadet Corps and KMA related history, traditions and customs	5	.76	.79	.89	.85	.80
Know senior cadets	Extent to which respondent knows senior cadets	1					
Know peer group	Extent to which respondent knows members of his/her peer group	1					
Social Cohesion	Feeling of bonding with, trust of and will to sacrifice for peer group members	5	-	.89	.93	.73	.75
Hardiness IK 2-16	The way recruits think they behave under pressure, informational ambiguity and change. In terms of self-restraint, action and persistence	19	.72	.81	.84	.65	.74
Transactional leadership	The extent to which a leader uses contingent reward and management by exception in his/her daily routine	12	.71	.37	.56	.69	.72
Transformational leadership	The extent to which a leader 'uses' idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration in his/her daily routine	20	.84	.72	.77	.72	.85
Ethical leadership	The extent to which leaders 'show' people orientation, fairness, role clarification, integrity, power sharing, in his/her daily routine	26	.92	.81	.89	.79	.85
Cadet Corps' ethos*	Sum of the 10 virtues that are central and eminent to the Cadet Corps: honesty, loyalty, obedience, respect, effort, creativity, comradeship, collegiality, responsibility and integrity	40					
Moral competence	The extent to which people consider themselves to be able and willing to carry out tasks, with due regard for all values at stake and, with sound moral judgement and take responsibility for their actions.	21	.87	.89	.86	.91	.91

For an overview of items see Appendix B

### 3.6 Statistical issues

For the analysis of the quantitative data, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. The moments of data collection and the educational programme of the new recruits often conflicted, which resulted in some attrition. The goal of this research was to compare the longitudinal effects at three different moments in time. Therefore, it was necessary to connect the data of unique respondents at those three moments resulting in 45 respondents in 2012, and 77 respondents in 2013. All of these respondents filled out the questionnaires completely, with some missing values, but no large partial non-response. The differences between the mean scores of respondents who participated at T1, T2 and T3 were analysed with a GLM (General Linear Model) repeated measures procedure. This excludes any doubt about the similarity of the samples because all participants are the same at T1, T2 and T3 (i.e. all respondents used for analysis participated at T1, T2 and T3).

Moreover, the samples of 2012 and 2013 were not very different from each other nor from the groups of respondents that dropped out (see appendix G). Various variables (e.g. age, gender and experience) in the samples were compared with t-tests and Chi-square tests, which indicated that the groups could be regarded as the same and, as such, the composition of the groups in 2012 and 2013 does not offer an alternative explanation for changes in various measures as an effect of the improved CCIP. The comparison of means and demographic variables between the group that participated at all three moments and the participants who dropped out once or several times shows no differences which indicates that the groups of cadets that participated at all three times are indeed representative for the cadet population (of that year). Although analyses do not reveal big differences between the 2012 and 2013 sample, interpretations of results should still be done tentatively because age differences and differences in the type of education the cadet rolled in might come into play. For example, the slightly younger bachelor model cadet is probably more prone to socialization than the somewhat older non-bachelor model cadet. This suggests that the slightly different composition of the 2012 and 2013 samples makes it harder to generate effects of socialization.

The mean difference between before (T2) and after (T3) the CCIP is of key interest in this study as the focus lies on the difference between socialization variables before and after the CCIP. However, the participants also filled out the questionnaires on the first day of some period before entry (T1). Comparison of the difference between T2 and T1 and moreover T3 and T1 might indicate effects of general maturation, or reveal compensation or selection effects. Therefore, as this study lacks a significant control group (Chapter 1) the measure at T1 is important to understand whether suggested differences are actually to be attributed to the CCIP.

GLM repeated measures is a statistical technique that compares dependent variables and is generally used when measuring the effect of a treatment at different time points. The independent variables may be categorical or continuous. GLM repeated measures can be used to test the main effects within and between the subjects, interaction effects between

factors, covariate effects and effects of interactions between covariates and between subject factors. One of the biggest problems with traditional repeated measures ANOVA is missing data on the response variable. The problem is that repeated measures ANOVA treats each measurement as a separate variable. Because it uses list wise deletion, if one measurement is missing, the entire case gets dropped. At some points in this study this led to very small sample sizes, however to keep the data as pure as possible no alternatives (i.e. replacing missing values by means) were used because that would have possible consequences for the outcomes.

Sphericity is an important assumption of a repeated measures ANOVA. It refers to the condition where the variances of the differences between all possible pairs of groups (i.e. levels of the independent variable) are equal. The violation of sphericity occurs when the variances of the differences between all combinations of the groups are not equal. If sphericity is violated (which is rarely the case in this study), then the variance calculations may be distorted, which would result in an F-ratio that would be inflated. Sphericity can be evaluated when there are three or more levels of a repeated measures factor and, with each additional repeated measures factor, the risk for violating sphericity increases. In case of violation, generally a more conservative approach (i.e. Greenhouse-Geisser with fewer degrees of freedom) is suggested, and when necessary used and reported in this study, because it compensates for the fact that the ANOVA-test is too liberal when sphericity is violated.

Considering regression analysis, the linear regression method was used, with the control variables in the equations, to test the role of personality traits. The relatively small sample size ( $n=62$ ) made the use of structural equation modelling with items or item parcels as indicators undesirable because of 'low parameter-to-subject ratios' (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000, p. 379) when assessing the complete set of variables in one model. Even in linear regression, the small sample size will be problematic.

Finally an important issue to address is the effect of small sample sizes which leads to less power to find statistical significant results. To deal with the relatively small sample size it is possible to apply a bootstrapping procedure. Bootstrapping is an artificial procedure which makes inferences about results if sample sizes would have been larger. In this study, for almost all analysis, bootstrapping increases significance levels drastically which, although very artificial, suggests that replicating the research with a bigger sample would result in significant findings where results are now almost or just marginally significant. Because the actual population of recruits at the KMA is not that large, results of bootstrapping procedures are not explicitly reported, but in analyses special attention was paid to p-values that indicated marginal significance of effects.

# Results

*Insanity: doing the same thing over and over again and expecting different results.*

*Albert Einstein*





## 4. Socialization effects of the CCIP 2012

### 4.1 Introduction

The overall purpose of this study is to contribute to optimization of the CCIP in officer education at the KMA. This goal in itself suggests that improvement is necessary and possible. The first step in examining the possibilities for improvement is to find out to what extent the current CCIP (in 2012) indeed achieves the effects it is designed for. Having first dealt with clarification of the CCIP's history, the concepts used as effect variables and theory of socialization (Chapter 2) plus the methods used in the research (Chapter 3), this chapter reveals to what degree the CCIP actually works as a short socialization period with regard to socialization effects as defined by the Cadet Corps. In line with findings by Saks and Ashforth (1997a), the main concepts identified as effects of the CCIP are: enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps, cohesion and organizational knowledge. Furthermore, the CCIP goals suggest that they contribute to hardiness and leadership development. Adherence to Cadet Corps' values is also a main target of the CCIP. Development of moral competence, however, is not explicitly mentioned, but is included in this research because it is an important factor to aim for during officer education. In the next section, results are presented for all effect variables mentioned, advancing the general hypothesis that the CCIP generates a positive effect (e.g. enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps is higher after the CCIP than prior to it). In general, in all analyses means at different times were analysed with a General Linear Model, repeated measures-test of within subjects effects. If sphericity is violated Greenhouse-Geisser's F was used to compensate for liberal analysis. The analyses are conducted with the later moment of measurement as first factor (e.g. T2 minus T1). This implicates that the sign (either + or -) indicates the actual direction of the development within the measured factors before and after the MIP and the CCIP.

### 4.2 Results

To start with, results in Table 4.1 concern the effects of general socialization efforts and present the means, standard deviations and the GLM (general linear model) repeated measures analysis results of the responses of cadets before organizational entry (T1), before the CCIP (T2) and after the CCIP (T3). The results violate the assumption of Mauchly's sphericity, therefore the more robust and conservative F-ratio of Greenhouse-Geisser was used.

Results reveal that enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps has decreased after the CCIP in 2012 ( $F_{1,69} = 21.14, p < .001$ ). Post hoc analysis (Bonferroni) in Table 4.1 shows that enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps is significantly different between all moments of measurement. At T2 the mean

difference is .34 lower ( $p=.002$ ) than at T1, at T3 the mean difference is .51 lower ( $p=.001$ ) than at T2.

Concerning knowledge of the Cadet Corps' history and traditions, results are significantly higher at T3 ( $F_{1,45}=88.1$   $p<.001$ ) compared to T1 and T2; however, at T2 the mean score on knowledge about the Cadet Corps decreases (mean  $\Delta = -.41$ ,  $p<.001$ ).

Results indicate no significant differences in cohesion ( $t_{40}=1.78$ ,  $p=.082$ ) before and after the CCIP. New recruits do report significantly more acquaintance with other cadets. For peers, results indicate that both the MIP and the CCIP contribute to this increased acquaintance (respectively mean  $\Delta= 2.71$ ,  $p<.001$  and mean  $\Delta= .54$ ,  $p=.002$ ). For acquaintance with senior cadets, the CCIP seems to contribute the most.

Results indicate that mental hardiness drops significantly ( $F_{1,67}= 24.83$   $p <.001$ ) after the first encounter with military introduction (mean  $\Delta= -.30$ ,  $p<.001$ ). After that, although hardiness drops a bit more, there is no significant difference in hardiness before and after the CCIP (mean  $\Delta= -.06$ ,  $p=.771$ ).



**Table 4.1**

*Comparison of means for CCIP socialization effects 2012 at T1, T2 and T3 (n=45)<sup>a</sup>*

	T1: Before entry			T2: Before CCIP			T3: After CCIP			Mauchly's sphericity	p	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	MEAN Δ		
	M	SD		M	SD		M	SD								T2-T1	T3-T1	T3-T2
Enthusiasm	3.84	.75		3.46	.91		2.93	.80		.82	.023	14.44	1.69	8.52	21.14*	-.34*	-.84*	-.51*
Knowledge of Cadet Corps	2.69	.76		2.24	.73		4.03	.75		.64	<.001	68.45	1.45	47.08	88.10*	-.41*	+1.36*	+1.77*
Acquaintance senior cadets	2.12	1.40		1.80	.79		3.26	.80		.84	.037	47.50	1.72	27.62	23.81*	-.26	+1.21*	+1.46*
Acquaintance peer group	1.02	.15		3.80	.67		4.31	.87		.71	.002	237.66	1.55	153.72	326.32*	+2.72*	+3.26*	+5.4*
Hardiness	3.90	.31		3.60	.36		3.53	.43		.80	.012	3.08	1.67	1.85	24.83*	-.30*	-.36*	-.06
Cohesion <sup>b</sup>	--	--		4.00	.67		3.78	.66		T3- T2	t	p						
										-.22	1.78	.082						

\*p <.01 \*\*p <.05

<sup>a</sup>For Acquaintance with senior cadets and peer group n=39, for enthusiasm and knowledge of the cadets corps n=42

<sup>b</sup>Cohesion could not be measured at T1 as questionnaires were distributed at home addresses and new recruits did not participate in groups yet. Therefore, a paired sample t-test was used to compare means at T2 and T3. Means at different times were analysed with a General Linear Model, repeated measures - test of within subjects effects (if sphericity is violated Greenhouse-Geisser was used) the analyses are conducted with the later moment of measurement as first factor (e.g. T2 minus T1). This implicates that the sign (either + or -) indicates the actual direction of the development within the measured factors before and after the MIP and the CCIP.

Results concerning preferred leadership styles in Table 4.2 reveal no overall differences in a predisposition to transformational leadership ( $F_2=2.61$ ,  $p=.091$ ) and an overall marginal increase ( $T_3-T_1$ : mean  $\Delta = .21$ ,  $p< .076$ ) in a predisposition to transactional leadership ( $F_2=3.76$ ,  $p=.028$ ) styles. Repeated measures analysis reveals that within the concept of transformational leadership the differences originate from changes in inspirational motivation which drops significantly ( $F_2= 40.02$ ,  $p< .001$ ) after the MIP (mean  $\Delta = -.301$ ,  $p=.032$ ) and even further after the CCIP (mean  $\Delta= -.728$ ,  $p< .001$ ). No significant differences appear for individual consideration and idealized influence on either behaviour or attitude. Within the concept of transactional leadership, the preference for management by exception increases for the active ( $F_2=3.38$ ,  $p=.040$ ) and passive ( $F_2=7.53$ ,  $p=.001$ ) variant.

Concerning overall ethical leadership, results indicate no significant effects over time ( $F_2=.633$ ,  $p=.534$ ). There is, however, a significant decrease of integrity (as a subscale of ethical leadership) over time ( $F_2=5.073$ ,  $p=.009$ ) which would mainly be attributed to the MIP (mean  $\Delta T_2-T_1= -.23$ ,  $p=.065$ ), or reflects a general development in military culture concerning integrity over time (mean  $\Delta T_3-T_1= -.32$ ,  $p=.037$ ). Moreover, after the CCIP the mean score for ethical guidance is higher than before the CCIP (mean  $\Delta T_3-T_2= +.39$ ,  $p=.035$ ).

**Table 4.2**

*Comparison of means for preference of leadership styles as effect of CCIP 2012: at T1, T2 and T3 (n=34)<sup>a</sup>*

	T1: Before entry			T2: Before CCIP			T3: After CCIP			Mauchly's sphericity	p	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	MEAN Δ		
	M	SD		M	SD		M	SD								T2-T1	T3-T1	T3-T2
<b>Transformational leadership</b>	<b>2.68</b>	<b>.49</b>	<b>2.53</b>	<b>.28</b>	<b>.53</b>	<b>1.93</b>	<b>.55</b>	<b>.55</b>	<b>.77</b>	<b>.82</b>	<b>.04</b>	<b>.54</b>	<b>1.69</b>	<b>.321</b>	<b>2.61</b>	<b>2.61</b>	<b>-.177</b>	<b>-.069</b>
Inspirational motivation	2.95	.50	2.63	.53	.53	1.93	.55	.55	.77	.52	.77	19.05	2	9.523	40.02*	-.301**	-1.029*	-.728*
Intellectual stimulation	2.76	.67	2.71	.41	.65	.51	.51	.51	.76	.98	.76	.11	2	.056	.27	-.044	-.081	-.037
Individual consideration	2.72	.67	2.68	.43	.64	.51	.51	.51	.07	.53	.07	.01	2	.003	.02	-.000	-.017	-.017
Idealized influence behaviour	2.47	.70	2.64	.40	.54	.47	.47	.47	.09	.86	.09	.77	2	.387	1.68	.213	.103	-.110
Idealized influence attitude	2.49	.65	2.50	.43	.60	.45	.45	.45	.01	.73	.01	.32	1.58	.203	.76	.069	.137	.069
<b>Transactional leadership</b>	<b>1.96</b>	<b>.44</b>	<b>2.14</b>	<b>.30</b>	<b>2.20</b>	<b>.36</b>	<b>.97</b>	<b>.60</b>	<b>.97</b>	<b>.88</b>	<b>.12</b>	<b>.17</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>.09</b>	<b>.63</b>	<b>-.054</b>	<b>+.045</b>	<b>+.100</b>
Contingent reward	2.85	.59	2.69	.46	2.69	.46	.46	.46	.63	.97	.63	.74	2	.370	2.32	-.132	-.206**	-.074
Management by exception passive	1.17	.56	1.59	.58	1.73	.57	.57	.57	.63	.97	.63	4.08	2	2.038	7.53*	.412**	.447**	.035
Management by exception active	1.85	.76	2.14	.56	2.14	.56	.56	.56	.14	.89	.14	2.21	2	1.104	3.38**	.277	.338	.061
Laissez faire	1.22	.39	.96	.56	1.04	.72	.72	.72	.73	.98	.73	1.47	2	.733	3.16**	-.265	-.243	.022
<b>Ethical Leadership</b>	<b>3.74</b>	<b>.57</b>	<b>3.67</b>	<b>.41</b>	<b>3.75</b>	<b>.40</b>	<b>.88</b>	<b>.12</b>	<b>.88</b>	<b>.88</b>	<b>.12</b>	<b>.17</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>.09</b>	<b>.63</b>	<b>-.054</b>	<b>+.045</b>	<b>+.100</b>
People orientation	4.01	.70	4.04	.54	3.98	.62	.62	.62	.96	1.0	.96	.14	2	.07	.28	.047	-.044	-.091
Fairness	3.11	.94	3.19	.74	3.33	.68	.68	.68	.09	.86	.09	1.30	2	.65	1.65	.108	.275	.167
Power sharing	3.66	.79	3.81	.63	3.72	.58	.58	.58	.21	.91	.21	.42	2	.21	.57	.157	.083	-.074
Ethical guidance	3.34	.94	3.24	.83	3.51	.63	.63	.63	.59	.97	.59	2.75	2	1.38	3.08**	-.118	.275	.392**
Role clarity	3.80	.88	3.62	.48	3.78	.43	.43	.43	.01	.75	.01	.53	1.6	.33	.75	-.159	-.012	.147
Integrity	4.43	.53	4.19	.46	4.12	.59	.59	.59	.10	.87	.10	1.81	2	.91	5.07**	-.228	-.316**	-.088

\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

<sup>a</sup> Means at different times were analysed with a General Linear Model, repeated measure test of within subjects effects (if sphericity is violated with Greenhouse-Geisser) the results are conducted with the later moment of measurement as first factor. This implicates that the sign (either + or -) indicates the actual direction of the development within the measured factors before and after the MIP and the CCIP.

Table 4.3 presents the results that indicate the importance attributed to all values at the different moments in time. In general, new recruits continuously attribute importance to some of the values and virtues of the Cadet Corps' ethos (honesty, respect, responsibility, effort, and integrity are in the top 10 at all measurement moments).

**Table 4.3**

*Attributed importance to all virtues measured at T1, T2 and T3 (n=45)*

T1			T2			T3		
	Mean	SD		Mean	SD		Mean	SD
Trust T1	7.64	3.35	Trust T2	5.98	4.13	Trust T3	4.80	4.09
Honesty T1	5.78	3.63	Honesty T2	5.47	3.76	Honesty T3	4.29	4.21
Respect T1	3.84	3.57	Respect T2	4.09	3.65	Respect T3	3.58	3.21
Health T1	3.56	4.16	Friendship T2	3.29	3.42	Friendship T3	3.44	3.65
Friendship T1	2.93	3.53	Discipline T2	2.38	3.43	Health T3	2.56	3.38
Responsibility T1	2.29	3.42	Responsibility T2	2.38	3.24	Responsibility T3	2.09	3.45
Effort T1	2.04	3.04	Effort T2	2.20	3.20	Effort T3	2.07	3.28
Discipline T1	2.04	3.23	Health T2	2.07	3.30	Pleasure T3	2.02	3.46
Loyalty T1	1.73	3.05	Pleasure T2	2.07	3.26	Integrity T3	1.93	3.17
Integrity T1	1.62	2.97	Integrity T2	2.02	3.58	Discipline T3	1.84	3.03
Challenge T1	1.60	2.81	Openness T2	1.93	3.49	Humour T3	1.82	2.89
Pleasure T1	1.56	2.23	Humour T2	1.78	2.59	Love T3	1.64	3.14
Humour T1	1.56	2.62	Pers. Development T2	1.71	2.81	Loyalty T3	1.64	3.02
Optimism T1	1.47	2.46	Faithfulness T2	1.62	2.95	Openness T3	1.49	2.94
Pers. Development T1	1.36	2.18	Love T2	1.47	2.74	Faithfulness T3	1.47	2.75
Self-knowledge T1	1.33	2.61	Truth T2	1.38	2.63	Pers. Development T3	1.27	2.45
Faithfulness T1	1.27	2.70	Challenge T2	1.38	2.56	Challenge T3	1.11	2.40
Equality T1	1.20	2.52	Optimism T2	1.38	2.67	Relaxation T3	1.00	2.23
Love T1	1.13	2.57	Loyalty T2	1.31	2.70	Appreciation T3	.87	1.88
Truth T1	1.11	2.58	Courage T2	1.13	2.55	Comradeship T3	.84	2.06
Comradeship T1	1.00	2.21	Collegiality T2	1.02	2.46	Adventure T3	.84	2.14
Wisdom T1	.98	2.43	Comradeship T2	.96	2.30	Optimism T3	.76	2.01
Appreciation T1	.84	1.77	Wisdom T2	.89	2.31	Truth T3	.76	2.27
Openness T1	.76	2.01	Self-knowledge T2	.87	2.17	Self-knowledge T3	.73	2.03
Obedience T1	.69	1.99	Adventure T2	.87	2.38	Certainty T3	.53	1.78
Relaxation T1	.64	1.42	Certainty T2	.73	2.15	Wisdom T3	.53	1.53
Caring T1	.56	2.06	Appreciation T2	.71	1.91	Equality T3	.44	1.49
Success T1	.49	1.53	Success T2	.60	1.84	Flexibility T3	.40	1.68
Collegiality T1	.49	1.56	Equality T2	.58	2.12	Collegiality T3	.33	1.48
Adventure T1	.49	.89	Relaxation T2	.58	1.70	Success T3	.31	1.40
Certainty T1	.42	1.44	Obedience T2	.47	1.82	Obedience T3	.22	1.08
Flexibility T1	.42	1.23	Caring T2	.44	1.66	Courage T3	.20	1.08
Creativity T1	.04	.30	Creativity T2	.36	1.37	Caring T3	.18	.86
Possession T1	.02	.15	Flexibility T2	.33	1.33	Creativity T3	.16	1.04
Power T1	.00	.00	Decency T2	.27	1.25	Decency T3	.02	.15
Decency T1	.00	.00	Beauty T2	.07	.45	Power T3	.00	.00
Beauty T1	.00	.00	Power T2	.04	.30	Beauty T3	.00	.00
Spirituality T1	.00	.00	Spirituality T2	.02	.15	Spirituality T3	.00	.00
Wealth T1	.00	.00	Wealth T2	.00	.00	Wealth T3	.00	.00

Cadet Corps' values are marked in blue. Courage as specific military virtue was added at T2 (replaced possession) and not measured at T1.

However, other Cadet Corps' values (obedience, creativity, faithfulness, and loyalty) are appreciated less at certain moments. A comparison of means with a GLM analysis (Table 4.4) over the three times of measurement seems to represent some kind of reality check on behalf of the new recruits. Before they enter the military organization they attribute more value to the combination of values and virtues represented in the Cadet Corps' oath and ethos, however, those differences are not significant. Another point of interest is that values or virtues that are considered highly related to the military, such as courage (not measured at T1), comradeship and obedience are not very highly appreciated.

Results of the GLM analysis presented in Table 4.4 reveal a negative trend, although not significant, towards identification with the Cadet Corps' oath ( $F_2=1.96$ ,  $p=.147$ ) and no significant difference for Cadet Corps' ethos after the CCIP ( $F_{1,52}=1.15$ ,  $p=.312$ ). Still, adherence to the oath and ethos after the CCIP is lower than before the CCIP and even lower than before organizational entry. Taken together, the larger mean differences between T2 and T3, compared to the mean differences at T1 and T2, (which even indicate a slight growth of adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos) suggest that the CCIP has no beneficial effects on adherence to Cadet Corps' values and virtues.

Last of all, the effects of the CCIP on moral competence development were put forward as being a focal point of interest. Results reported in Table 4.4 of the GLM analysis show a marginal trend in improvement of moral competence over time (T3 minus T1) ( $F_2=2.72$ ,  $p=.072$ ). However, results show no significant differences in moral competence before and after the CCIP (T3 minus T2).

**Table 4.4**  
Differences for adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos and moral competence for CCIP 2012 at T1, T2 and T3 (n=45)<sup>a</sup>

	T1: Before entry		T2: Before CCIP		T3: After CCIP		Mauchly's sphericity	P	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	MEAN Δ		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD							T3- T1	T2- T1	T3- T2
Cadets' oath	8.20	5.07	7.24	5.33	6.16	5.48	.95	.36	94.18	2	47.09	1.96	-2.04	-9.6	-1.09
Cadet Corps' ethos	19.53	7.63	20.27	12.8	17.16	10.4	.69	<.001	238.06	1.52	156.29	1.15	-2.38	+7.3	-3.11
<b>Moral Competence</b>	<b>4.18</b>	<b>.61</b>	<b>4.26</b>	<b>.60</b>	<b>4.37</b>	<b>.53</b>	<b>.99</b>	<b>.84</b>	<b>.69</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>.35</b>	<b>2.72</b>	<b>+1.9</b>	<b>+0.8</b>	<b>+1.1</b>
Awareness of values	4.37	.73	4.40	.64	4.47	.64	.84	.03	.21	1.72	.12	.46	+1.0	+0.3	+0.7
Identify moral dimension	4.58	.91	4.52	.69	4.71	.69	.98	.65	.80	2	.40	1.10	+1.4	-0.6	+1.9
Judgement	4.39	.90	4.28	.79	4.43	.71	.95	.41	.44	2	.22	.56	+0.3	-.11	+1.4
Communication	3.71	.86	3.91	.88	4.07	.80	.91	.15	2.73	2	1.37	3.29*	+3.7*	+2.1	+1.6
Moral action	3.82	.88	4.03	1.0	4.08	.88	.89	.10	1.50	2	.75	1.63	+2.6	+2.1	+0.5
Responsibility	4.23	.89	4.39	.86	4.40	.87	.99	.90	.82	2	.41	.88	+1.8	+1.7	+0.2

\*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>For Moral Competence and subscales n=40

### 4.3 Conclusion and Discussion for the 2012 sample

Quantitative results of the studied sample for 2012 provide no evidence for the idea that the CCIP creates the effects suggested in the described goals. The CCIP in 2012 had a negative effect among new recruits on enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps. New recruits did gain knowledge about the Cadet Corps and their acquaintance with other cadets, especially senior cadets, did increase after the CCIP. The latter provides evidence for effects propounded by the cadets involved in organizing the CCIP. So, although the new recruits confirmed that they had learned a lot about the history and traditions of the Cadet Corps, and they got to know each other and, especially, senior members, the CCIP did not succeed in making the new potential members enthusiastic about their new society.

The increased acquaintance of peers and senior cadets, however, might not be proof of an increase in cohesion, but rather it might indicate a normal development, namely, that new recruits start getting to know other people in their new organization. After all, it is likely that new recruits increasingly encounter both senior cadets and peers and they also probably get to know more peer group members than senior cadets just as the mean values indicate. No increase in group cohesion was found after the CCIP.

Furthermore, mental hardiness drops significantly after the first encounter with the military introduction, but there is no significant difference in hardiness before and after the CCIP. The initial decrease of self-attributed hardiness is a result requiring more attention because the expected effect was to have been an increase in hardiness. It may be that the recruits experience a form of reality check. After successfully finishing their prior education and passing the psychological and medical selection procedures, it is likely that they come to think a whole of themselves. Encountering in military life might cause the experience of setbacks and limits to personal performance for the first time in their lives and even for a rather uncertain period of time.

Although not manifestly clear, results appear to indicate that the MIP and the CCIP more or less foster a transactional leadership predisposition instead of, or even at the expense of, transformational leadership predispositions. The decrease in a preference for inspirational motivation seems to be caused largely by the CCIP. Results thus indicate that the CCIP in 2012, at the very least, decreased optimism and enthusiasm about the job at hand and hampered the ability to talk in a motivating fashion about the future and the accomplishment of targets.

The impact of both the MIP and the CCIP on the predisposition to ethical leadership of new recruits is rather ambiguous. The MIP seems to have a negative impact on integrity whereas the CCIP seems to have a positive impact on ethical guidance.

Results indicated a negative trend on identification with the Cadets' oath and a significant difference in Cadet Corps' ethos after the CCIP. Identification with the oath and ethos after the CCIP was lower than before, even lower than before organizational entry. So, although the 2012 CCIP provided knowledge about history and traditions and established new contacts

between new recruits and other cadets, it failed to deliver enthusiastic new recruits who want to identify with Cadet Corps' values.

From socialization effects suggested by Saks and Ashforth (1997a), the only successful effect of the CCIP in 2012 lies in the explication of organizational knowledge (i.e. history and traditions). Whereas the purpose of the information provided in the CCIP about those subjects is to make new recruits understand why they have to adapt to certain specific Cadet Corps' values and behave accordingly, the way the CCIP is carried out seems to be counterproductive. Instead of achieving the stimulating effect it aims for, enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps and identification with the Cadet Corps only appear to decrease. Hence, results of the 2012 CCIP support the urge for improvement.

To develop ways ahead and reach improvement a few considerations have to be pointed out. First, the CCIP as a socialization instrument in its current form, is best described as institutionalized socialization (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). It is collective, formal, sequential, fixed, and serial. However, the way senior cadets attempt to impose Cadet Corps' values on new recruits in practice seems to indicate a more divestiture tactic than an investiture one. Earlier research (Jones, 1986) has already suggested that an investiture tactic, which leaves more possibilities to hold on to personal values and authenticity (Cable et al., 2013) instead of the feeling of mortification (Bik, 2013), might be more effective in getting new personnel to adapt to the organizational culture.

Second, for sound moral judgement, a proper awareness of personal and organizational values and virtues is necessary. Military socialization is generally organized in a formal, collective, institutional way with newcomers learning the virtues, habits and traditions by heart through reward and punishment. Those core values or virtues are called upon quite often, but they are never, or hardly ever, exposed to critical thinking with respect to their meaning. There is a great deal of criticism about this type of ethics education, especially stating that it lacks the role of *phronesis* (Practical wisdom Cook, 2008, p. 58). As virtuous behaviour should come from internal motivation, it is thought that learning values by heart is pointless because understanding and the will to act accordingly is necessary for virtuous behaviour. One of the main efforts in military socialization periods should therefore concentrate on explaining how and why the values and virtues expected from cadets serve important functions of military behaviour and, by inference, also their behaviour in the world outside the military scope.

Specific questions that arise are: which values and virtues are taught and how? Are these lists of values and virtues really the product of an armed forces culture or were they simply produced by some top leaders, or researchers, in the armed forces? Do new recruits already know these virtues and concur with them from the beginning or does their perception of the importance of various virtues change? Are new employees taught military virtues or are they imposed? Is it possible or even necessary for these virtues to change over time within the organization of the armed forces?



Considering the results, it is quite possible that the values new recruits bring with them are important in determining how they will adapt to new organizational values (Rennick, 2012). The effectiveness of military socialization is therefore difficult to measure. In what areas did new recruits already adhere to military values? After all, they are recruited and thoroughly selected and, moreover, they applied for the job in the first place. Identification with the armed forces might have been a difference that pre-existed in non-applicants in the first place and socialization efforts might only enhance the pre-existing orientation on values.

It is interesting to have knowledge about the values new personnel bring with them because that makes it possible to identify 'value gaps' and to choose which specific values to stress (Rennick, 2012). This applies in particular to military organizations, because swift socialization is more the rule than the exception in the light of international cooperation and the last-minute formation of mission teams. Furthermore, taking a closer look at separate values may help towards discovering shifts in the ingredients of the general military ethos.

Third, Xiao et al. (2011) found that the first three months are critical in adjusting to military life, as soldiers are faced with a serious number of difficulties and uncertainties during this period. If they were to adjust in this first period, they would continue to adjust throughout military training. Franke (1999), however, reported that ethos changed to a more responsible mindset in the fourth year of officer education. Is it possible to shift this change of ethos to an earlier period? Is this what makes the difference between soldiers and officers? Is the moment in time at which a student completes his or her education of importance? The problem referred to above with respect to divestiture tactics is that coercion is often involved, which subsequently becomes a risk when used by irresponsible agents (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The introduction period in many military academies is organized by cadets who are in training and education to become responsible officers.

And fourth, a problem of swift socialization is that people quickly adapt to specific behaviour, or at least imitate desired behaviour, but do not fully internalize the social values or virtues (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). In other words, they don't know why they ought to behave the way they do. The importance of socialization, re-socialization and more specifically swift socialization becomes increasingly interesting because nowadays jobs and contracts are often for short periods. As new recruits must also adjust (Wintre & Ben-Knaz, 2000; Xiao et al., 2011) and probably even faster than ever, members of a newly formed team must quickly adjust to the distinct requirements of their new environment and their new job.

Whereas in the 1990s more generic socialization went hand in hand with lifelong employment opportunities, society and job contracts have recently changed to more flexible short-term periods. Military personnel and especially officers are more frequently in the employ of an international staff, such as UN or NATO missions. The ability to quickly adapt and conform to this kind of flexibility is perhaps a new kind of socialization. It warrants investigating which virtues go with it. In sum, the 2012 CCIP failed to achieve most of the effects it strived for. The next chapter (5) will focus on improvements that can be made.



## 5. Interventions towards 2013

In short, social learning theory and ethics suggest that interventions to improve the socialization effects of the CCIP should involve a firm focus on exemplary behaviour. Furthermore, if the goal of the CCIP is to create a communal sense of important values within the Cadet Corps, it is not good enough to merely recite those values. Reflecting on the meaning of those values and putting them into practice in everyday life would be of great importance to gaining greater support for Cadet Corps' ethos and would create a better understanding of it. As a mentor of the COCOM and a trainer in the ACME (Advanced course of military ethics), the researcher found the Socratic Dialogue approach a suitable instrument to discuss the practice of Cadet Corps socialization and the suggested effects with the COCOM. First, because it is a means of discussing, without pre-judgement or disapproval, how things have been going up to the present. Second, because it encourages cadets to think about their intentions, actions and effects on their own, without having to rely on me as a participant or as a senior officer who gives advice on how things could be done. Both contribute towards finding broad support among cadets within the COCOM for new approaches and would probably support adopting a long-term sustainable socialization attitude in the future (at least, that was the researcher's intention). This chapter gives insight in the way the Socratic Dialogue was applied and points out the improvements that evolved out of those discussions.

### 5.1 The Socratic Dialogue

As pointed out in Section 3.4.4, it is argued that the Socratic Dialogue is only beneficial as a technique when used in educational settings. Seeing as cadets are in an educational setting with a focus on learning, it would appear an appropriate tool to use for the support and development of cadets. Still, using the Socratic Dialogue has to be done with some reservation because the term itself is somewhat off-putting to the cadets in charge. Cadets participating in the COCOM are primarily interested in carrying out their tasks as quickly and effectively as possible. They are responsible for the programme, but tend to copy their predecessors' programme because that 'worked fine' when they were new recruits themselves. Therefore, interventions based on the Socratic Dialogue mostly followed out of discussions which addressed goals and effects.

### 5.1.1 Example of the Socratic Dialogue as intervention

During one of the first meetings of the CCIP commission in which the researcher participated, the Socratic Dialogue was used to get a better understanding of what cadets thought the goal of the CCIP was. The discussion below provides a good example of how those dialogues went.

(R= researcher, C= Cadet)

R: *What is the goal of the CCIP?*

C1: *(not always the same cadet): To create new members of the Cadet Corps, of course.*

R: *Are there more goals?*

C1: *To teach them the history of the KMA and the values of the Cadet Corps, for example.*

C2: *To put them to the test and improve their hardiness.*

C3: *Let's not forget that it is also for bonding.*

R: *Do we really need the CCIP? Are they not willing to become a member?*

C2: *They have to earn it, Sir.*

R: *Oh so, it is just a rite of passage then?*

C2: *No Sir, we really try to teach them something and to make them enthusiastic.*

R: *So, tell us a bit about the enthusiasm, how do you foster that?*

C1: *By giving them a collective experience they will never forget.*

R: *What kind of experience are you referring to?*

C1: *To all specific parts, the information evenings, the square dinner, the whole package.*

R: *And how does that help them to become enthusiastic about the Cadet Corps?*

C1: *It has to grow, I guess, it does, it takes time.*

R: *What actions do you take to make the new recruits enthusiastic?*

C1: *Except from organizing various information carrousels you mean Sir?*

R: *Yes.*

C1: *Well, eh, I guess they have to become enthusiastic about the Cadet Corps that way...*

C2: *You make it seem like that is not enough?*

R: *Well, I didn't say that, but more important is perhaps the way you treat them during those information carrousels. How does your behaviour affect the new recruits?*

C2: *I think they can look beyond that, Sir.*

R: *Why do you think so?*

C2: *Well, after the CCIP, I am sure that they see through the whole act with a little bit of distance, and they understand the goals of the CCIP more.*

R: *So it takes a while to understand and become enthusiastic.*

R: *What do you think about their enthusiasm at the specific moment of the CCIP and immediately after?*

C1: *It will not be that high, I guess.*

R: Why not?

C1: Because of all the shouting and yelling, the time pressure. You have to do things that are not easy and sometimes not that much fun. Most of the time it is only funny afterwards.

R: What happens when someone yells at you?

C1: What do you mean, Sir?

R: For example: what you would do if someone was yelling at you.

C1: I would not care to listen I guess....

R: So, what effect do you think your behaviour has on the new recruits?

C1: Well, I guess that they will not listen as well.

R: And how can people become enthusiastic and learn about the corps and get motivated to participate in it if they are not in a position to listen?

This is, evidently, the short version. In the original conversation there were some more iterations and hesitations on both sides. The result of this discussion, however, was that it was decided to develop a programme without shouting for the new recruits in February/March 2013. Discussions about the programme and the approach of the new members continued over the next meetings.

R: What do you think is the effect of certain assignments you give the bulls?

C3: I am not sure that I understand what you mean, Sir.

R: Well, sometimes I see that bulls have to behave really submissively. Some senior cadets act really overwhelming, not to say daunting.

C3: Yes, that is a little bit part of the hazing.

R: Why is the hazing involved, what do you want to achieve with it?

C3: Well, mainly it is for fun.

C2: And for the mental hardiness, of course.

R: Fun for whom?

C3: For the senior cadets.

R: And what is the goal of the CCIP again?

C3: To make the bulls enthusiastic for the new Cadet Corps, Sir.

R: Do you think they become enthusiastic new members, by such daunting behaviour?

C3: Well, if you put it like that, no, but...it should also be fun for the senior cadets.

R: Should it? Why?

C3: Because, that is how it has been done for years.

C1: Yeah, like that means something....

C2: Still, we need the senior cadets to participate and they are in it for the fun part...

R: And what is your mission, your goal, to create new enthusiastic members, or to satisfy the senior cadets?

R: If I, as a teacher or mentor, would approach you without respect, call you whatever names and put you under serious pressure, making you feel worthless, what would you think of me then?

C1: Frankly, to go to hell Sir.

R: ..... And so..... what do you think the bulls think of you?

C3: The same thing of course..... you have made your point.

Analysing the dialogues, with respect to the COCOM, it has to be admitted that the Socratic Dialogue was mixed with a more Socratic Method way of discussing. The question of what purpose the CCIP had was not a question the group wanted to examine per se. For cadets, the purpose of the CCIP was implicitly clear. As a mentor, the researcher wanted them to think about the goals and purpose in a more explicit way. Moreover, the researcher already had some of the latter in mind. During the meetings, the researcher tried to improve his personal skills in conducting the Socratic Dialogue with the intention of enhancing the support of all COCOM members for the chosen courses of action. Furthermore, by asking the right questions it was hoped that members of the COCOM would start to copy the researcher's exemplary behaviour in their way of discussing the purpose and effects of actions in the CCIP.

Although COCOM members were willing to participate in the discussions, they seemed to be a bit trapped in 'how things have been done for years' without realizing that they were in a position to change things. Furthermore, sometimes, when discussing alternatives to the programme, the group identified interesting new ways to put the bulls to the test but lacked confidence about the effectiveness. Often they remarked: 'Yes, but then the bulls will not experience enough stress and then it will not work'. In those situations, in my capacity as their mentor, I once in a while said, 'All right, trust me, this will work, just try it. If you do not try this, you will never experience the effects.' One of the cadets responded to that at a certain moment, saying, 'But Sir, we do not want to make the CCIP a psychological experiment', thereby denying or refuting the psychological effects the CCIP in itself has, but more importantly also indicating an unwillingness to change.

However, in practice it seemed that the approach to refrain from yelling and shouting had a double effect. Observations during the process seemed to indicate that the new (less shouting) attitude was not only less aggressive and therefore more effective, but it was also a better example of leadership, because leaders who do not shout are more in control of a situation. One of the commission members stated afterwards: 'The main reason for refraining from yelling for me was that yelling is a sign of weakness and lack of control. When someone is yelling he is neither in control of the situation nor of himself. This is an important skill and not just as an example in the CCIP, but also for in the future as an officer'.

The COCOM made an effort to persist in good exemplary behaviour. Amongst the Cadet Corps' values, respect, responsibility and initiative were central themes throughout the whole week. During the CCIP of March 2013, which involved a small group of about 20 new recruits (and therefore not included in the quantitative analysis), one of the members of the COCOM said to me, 'If we do it this way, I don't have to feel like an awful person'. The evaluations of the March 2013 CCIP (i.e. the reactions by the new recruits) were very positive.

### 5.1.2 Practical consequences of the dialogues

Although the conversations and dialogues seemed to be fruitful, real changes in the CCIP programme were few and far between. It was hard for the COCOM to implement drastic changes in the programme; they hesitated because they lacked confidence in the actual effects.

*'But Sir, if we give away all that information they will not listen to us. I think that we need to have more information. That way we are always superior to the bulls.'*

*'How will they experience stress if we are not firm and harsh? We will not make any impression. If I ask someone a question and he does not know the answer, what can I do?'*

The mentor tried to give these questions back to the group to investigate the options, without immediately providing a solution. The question the mentor often used to start the thinking process is 'Under what circumstances do you experience stress?', or, 'When do you feel bad or inferior about yourself?' The discussions that followed resulted in a decision by the COCOM to address two main points in 2013. First, all behaviour of all senior cadets should be genuine, resulting in a different start and end of the CCIP. Second, the assignments during the CCIP should have a larger focus on the role and tasks of an officer and they should be more challenging instead of denigrating or just for fun.

#### 5.1.2.1 A genuine start and end

The start of the CCIP had, for a very long time, been the same. Bulls would stand in units in the square waiting for things to happen. The senior cadets in charge were presented to them, and after a quick re-arrangement of units into bull platoons, the 'boss' gave a long and impressive speech about how the bulls did not fit into the mores of the Cadet Corps because they did not behave according to the rules in their first weeks at the KMA. After that, the senior cadets would 'punish' them with physical assignments, to set an example and create a distant relationship.

The discussions in the meetings revealed that this treatment was rather unfair as the bulls were not aware of those rules and, to their knowledge, had done nothing wrong. Starting this way would immediately create the idea that they were unable to do things right and, consequently, they would not start to attempt.

The new approach still involved a long speech, but after that the senior cadets (i.e. CCIP platoon commanders) should first give the bulls an opportunity to show proper behaviour. The idea was to interact more honestly with the bulls and to behave according to developments as opposed to 'hazing because the programme says so'. Treatment of the bulls

should be based on the values and virtues of the Cadet Corps, instead of reciting what the values are and then behaving in exactly the opposite way.

In the old scenario, the CCIP included a fake inauguration. At a certain moment it was suggested to the bulls that they had almost reached the right standards and were ready to become members of the Cadet Corps. Standing in front of the Senate, ready to proclaim the cadet's oath, a senior cadet would then enter and suggest there was dishonesty among the new recruits, ending up with a cancellation of the procedure. Although many of the bulls experienced this as a setback, the prevailing feeling among newcomers was that it had been a set-up. The act was mostly seen through and failed to achieve the suggested effect (dealing with setbacks). The fake inauguration was eliminated from the programme because it was neither fair nor honest and genuine. It was replaced by the introduction of a moment of reflection for the bulls with senior cadets. During that moment of reflection, the bulls were allowed to ask anything about what they ought to have learned up to that point. Although it was still a moment causing some mental pressure, because bulls had to point out what they had learned and were also expected to be critical and perceptive, it showed that senior cadets were open to criticism and feedback, providing it was done in the proper manner.

#### **5.1.2.2 Assignments fitting officer behaviour**

Another discussion during the meetings led to the reconsideration of various assignments. In the past, until 2012, most assignments were built in for the fun and laughter of the senior cadets. Bulls had to learn a lot of information (of questionable relevance) by heart. Most of the time this information had to be replicated, but could not be applied under any circumstances. Furthermore, for example, the bulls had to answer questions to which the answers were only known by insiders. Additionally, there was much focus on physical assignments: push-ups and sit-ups were very common as exercise when there was a lull in the programme. Thinking and talking about the purpose of the CCIP made the COCOM decide that assignments could and should be more related to actual officer behaviour.

To foster social cohesion and build in relevant stress-related assignments, the 'presentation' for the Cadet Corps was designed. Giving speeches and presentations is a common task for officers throughout the ranks, and many officers will confirm that they still get a bit nervous when addressing groups larger than one hundred people. The bulls were put into groups and told that they had to 'present themselves' in one minute to the entire Cadet Corps. They were allowed to rehearse with one another, which meant they also grew to know each other a bit more. Although they rehearsed, stress was really high (arguably even higher because they had time to think and rehearse).

A second assignment, for example, involved becoming acquainted with each other and information-sharing behaviour. In the old programme, the senior cadets provided much of the information to all of the bulls. That made it an individual responsibility to have a focus



and to learn. In the new situation, information seeking, sharing and social behaviour were combined. Bulls had to go individually to several sites and retrieve information about those historically important spots. After retrieving this information, they had to present their findings to the group (still with physical punishment if it did not fulfil the required criteria) while asking each other questions, using personal details. So in essence the new CCIP aimed to be a genuine socialization period comprising assignments consistent with officer tasks and behaviour, and guided by senior cadets who exhibit exemplary behaviour.



## 6. Results of interventions

Following on from the first interventions, the next step is the analysis of the effects after the 2013 CCIP and, of course, thereafter comparison with the 2012 CCIP. In this section the results of the 2013 CCIP will first be illustrated according to the same structure as in Chapter 4. This analysis will demonstrate whether the changes made in the CCIP turned out to have positive effects on the effects of the CCIP. Thereafter the 2012 and 2013 sample will be compared to provide a clear view on the actual differences in effects. So in Section 6.1 we examine whether the CCIP in 2013 resulted in the effects that are presumed and in Section 6.2 we examine whether those effects are significantly different from the CCIP in 2012. After that, Section 6.3 will address the qualitative results which will provide an indication of how new recruits and senior cadets experienced the changes and results of the CCIP.

### 6.1 Quantitative results 2013

To test whether the 2013 CCIP achieved the results it aimed for, we compared the means of all concepts at three moments in time. The moment of measurement after the CCIP should reveal the influence of the CCIP on specific effect variables. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the mean difference between before (T<sub>2</sub>) and after (T<sub>3</sub>) the CCIP therefore is of key interest. However, unlike in 2012, the participants also filled out the questionnaires on the first day of entry (T<sub>1</sub>). Still, this mean value might indicate effects of general maturation or reveal compensation or selection effects. Therefore, as this study lacks a significant control group (Chapter 1) the measure at T<sub>1</sub> is important to understand whether suggested differences are actually to be attributed to the CCIP.

Results in Table 6.1 indicate that enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps increased after the new approach in the CCIP ( $F_2 = 38.15$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Moreover, this improved enthusiasm counters a first trend of less enthusiasm just before the CCIP. Also, as expected, knowledge of the Cadet Corps' history improved significantly ( $F_2 = 443.97$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Taking cohesion into consideration, the expectation was that owing to the new approach the CCIP would have a positive effect. Less shouting and yelling and more exemplary behaviour should improve unit cohesion and respect. Results, however, indicate that the new CCIP does not foster cohesion. Unit cohesion seems to be established after the MIP (military introduction period) before the CCIP (mean  $\Delta = +.40$   $p < .001$ ) and remains stable thereafter (mean  $\Delta = -.01$   $p = .856$ ).

Furthermore, owing to the new approach, it seemed likely that new recruits would report a higher acquaintance level with senior cadets, as they were able to actually make contact during information evenings. Results indeed show that acquaintance with senior cadets improves as expected (mean  $\Delta = +1.33$   $p < .001$ ) after the CCIP.

**Table 6.1**  
Analysis of differences for socialization effects of the CCIP 2013 at T1, T2 and T3 (n=77)<sup>a</sup>

	T1: Before entry			T2: Before CCIP			T3: After CCIP			Mauchly's sphericity	P	Sum of Squares	df <sup>b</sup>	Mean Square	F	MEAN Δ		
	M	SD		M	SD		M	SD								T2- T1	T3- T1	T3- T2
Enthusiasm	3.87	.71		3.78	.64		4.30	.51		.97	.33	11.62	2	5.81	38.15*	-.090	+ .425*	+ .514*
Knowledge of cadet corps	2.11	.69		2.23	.73		4.29	.45		.83	<.01	232.38	1.71	135.71	443.97*	+ .120	+ 2.185*	+ 2.065*
Acquaintance senior cadets	2.52	1.69		2.64	1.47		3.96	.72		.94	.10	98.73	2	49.36	45.04*	+ .117	+ 1.442*	+ 1.325*
Acquaintance peer group	4.21	.55		4.70	.46		4.63	.49		.91	.02	10.61	1.83	5.81	30.52*	+ .487*	+ .421*	-.066
Hardiness	3.66	.32		3.62	.29		3.60	.29		.82	<.01	.14	1.74	.08	1.84	-.040	-.058	-.018
Cohesion	3.95	.52		4.35	.42		4.34	.45		.85	<.01	7.85	1.63	4.80	30.73*	+ .395*	+ .387*	-.008

\* $p < .001$

<sup>9</sup>For acquaintance with peer group  $n=76$ .

times of measurement mean differences with- indicate a decrease between the times of measurement.

**Table 6.2**  
*Analysis of differences for leadership of the CCIP 2013 at T1, T2 and T3 (n=76)<sup>a</sup>*

	T1: Before entry			T2: Before CCIP			T3: After CCIP			p	Maughly's sphericity	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	MEAN Δ		
	M	SD		M	SD		M	SD								T2- T1	T3- T1	T3- T2
<b>Transformational leadership</b>	<b>2.71</b>	<b>.24</b>		<b>2.78</b>	<b>.26</b>		<b>2.82</b>	<b>.34</b>		<b>.47</b>	<b>.98</b>	<b>.48</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>.24</b>	<b>6.34**</b>	<b>+.069**</b>	<b>+.111*</b>	<b>+.042</b>
Inspirational motivation	2.92	.34		2.95	.45		2.85	.54		.46	.98	.38	2	.19	1.30	+.023	-.073	-.097
Intellectual stimulation	2.71	.42		2.81	.40		2.85	.43		.31	.97	.81	2	.40	4.44**	+.106	+.139**	+.033
Individual consideration	2.71	.44		2.80	.47		2.82	.45		.12	.94	.45	2	.23	1.77	+.077	+.107	+.030
Idealized influence	2.70	.43		2.75	.38		2.84	.41		.80	.99	.84	2	.42	4.45**	+.049	+.146*	+.096
behaviour																		
Idealized influence attitude	2.49	.38		2.59	.33		2.73	.39		.02	.90	2.26	1.82	1.24	15.50*	+.098**	+.242*	+.145*
<b>Transactional leadership</b>	<b>1.99</b>	<b>.32</b>		<b>2.08</b>	<b>.37</b>		<b>2.05</b>	<b>.42</b>		<b>.30</b>	<b>.97</b>	<b>.33</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>.16</b>	<b>2.70</b>	<b>+.088</b>	<b>+.069</b>	<b>-.019</b>
Contingent reward	2.61	.43		2.82	.40		2.80	.42		.68	.99	1.89	2	.95	8.83*	+.197*	+.189*	-.009
Management by exception passive	1.43	.60		1.49	.64		1.50	.68		<.01	.86	.28	1.75	.16	.70	+.057	+.083	+.026
Management by exception active	1.92	.50		1.93	.60		1.85	.69		.03	.91	.25	1.84	.14	.67	+.011	-.065	-.076
Laissez faire	.89	.49		.97	.55		1.06	.71		<.01	.78	1.12	1.64	.68	2.72	+.075	+.171	+.096
<b>Ethical Leadership</b>	<b>3.75</b>	<b>.32</b>		<b>3.85</b>	<b>.27</b>		<b>3.94</b>	<b>.31</b>		<b>.12</b>	<b>.94</b>	<b>1.53</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>.76</b>	<b>17.93*</b>	<b>+.104*</b>	<b>+.201*</b>	<b>+.097*</b>
People orientation	4.02	.43		4.17	.43		4.21	.40		.18	.96	1.75	2	.88	9.29*	+.163*	+.203*	+.039
Fairness	3.02	.71		3.14	.76		3.19	.70		.92	1.0	1.15	2	.58	1.59	+.114	+.171	+.057
Power sharing	3.87	.47		4.01	.49		3.96	.50		.26	.97	.82	2	.41	3.11**	+.145**	+.092	-.053
Ethical guidance	3.53	.49		3.55	.53		3.80	.48		.70	.99	3.56	2	1.78	11.20*	+.023	+.276*	+.253*
Role clarity	3.64	.50		3.81	.46		3.89	.48		.18	.96	2.61	2	1.31	11.05*	+.163*	+.261*	+.099
Integrity	4.34	.49		4.34	.47		4.2	.49		.37	.97	.30	2	.15	1.27	-.001	+.078	+.079

\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

<sup>a</sup>For subscales individual consideration (Transformational leadership) and integrity (ELW) n=75.

Because hardiness is a specific military trait, the CCIP tries to put the hardiness of new recruits to the test and it is supposed to foster mental resilience. Results reveal no significant differences between the three moments of measurement. Although no significant differences have been found, an interesting trend, however, is the report of lower mental hardiness after each socialization effort.

The 2013 CCIP contained assignments that are more fitting to the future tasks of officers, therefore it should contribute to leadership behaviour (e.g. initiative and responsibility). Results in Table 6.2 show that there are hardly any differences in the perception of leadership behaviour, except for idealized influence. Idealized influence attitude increases significantly ( $F_{1,82} = 15.5$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This change is marginally due to the MIP (mean  $\Delta = +.10$ ,  $p < .053$ ) and can mostly be attributed to the CCIP (mean  $\Delta = +.15$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Idealized influence behaviour shows no significant growth after the MIP or CCIP but does increase over time from T1 to T3 ( $F_2 = 4.45$ ,  $p < .013$ ). Another interesting significant difference over time between T1 and T3 is the development of intellectual stimulation ( $F_2 = 4.44$ ,  $p < .013$ , mean  $\Delta = +.14$ ,  $p = .021$ ).

With regard to ethical leadership, it is expected that the 2013 CCIP positively influences the perception of new recruits on ethical leadership. After all, as the exemplary behaviour of senior cadets should have changed in the new CCIP approach, this should reflect on the new recruits. Results indicate that overall ethical leadership development is stimulated significantly ( $F_2 = 17.93$ ,  $p < .001$ ) by both the MIP (mean  $\Delta = +.10$ ,  $p = .007$ ) and the CCIP (mean  $\Delta = +.10$ ,  $p = .006$ ). Interesting is that the subfactors contributing to this change are different for both periods. After the MIP, significant changes occur for people orientation (mean  $\Delta = +.14$ ,  $p = .003$ ), power sharing (mean  $\Delta = +.15$ ,  $p = .053$ ) and role clarity (mean  $\Delta = +.16$ ,  $p = .010$ ). After the CCIP, ethical leadership at work improves mainly owing to an increase of ethical guidance (mean  $\Delta = +.25$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

One of the main goals of the CCIP, next to kindling enthusiasm for participation, is to make the bulls aware of the Cadet Corps' values and to adopt them. There are specific efforts to make the new recruits memorize the specific values by heart and in the new approach exemplary behaviour should enhance perception of the importance of those values by the new recruits. Means of all Cadet Corps' values are reported in Table 6.3.

In Table 6.4, results indicate that there is a significant decline ( $F_{1,8} = 6.26$ ,  $p = .003$ ) in support for the values in the cadet's oath (honesty, loyalty, obedience) (mean  $\Delta = -2.25$ ,  $p = .013$ ) after the CCIP compared to the moment of initial entry. However, although the CCIP has no positive influence either, this reduction in importance given to the Cadets' oath seems to be induced largely by the MIP (mean  $\Delta = -.17$ ,  $p = .011$ ). Considering the Cadet Corps' ethos (see Figure 2.1 and Section 2.2.6) no significant changes are found. However, although not significantly, the CCIP does appear to change the negative trend that is set after the MIP (mean  $\Delta_{T_3-T_2} = +1.84$ ,  $p = .447$ ).

Results in Table 6.4 indicate positive effects on moral competence for both initiation periods. Interpreting the results, it seems that there is an overall effect on moral competence ( $F_2 = 11.32$ ,  $p < .001$ ) which is more likely owing to the MIP (mean  $\Delta = +.13$ ,  $p = .037$ ) instead of the CCIP (mean  $\Delta = +.11$ ,  $p = .072$ ).

**Table 6.3***Means and SD of all values appreciated at T1, 2 and 3 (n=77)*

T1			T2			T3		
	Mean	SD		Mean	SD		Mean	SD
Trust T1	5.87	3.96	Trust T2	6.14	4.15	Trust T3	4.56	4.07
Honesty T1	5.23	3.94	Honesty T2	4.21	3.99	Honesty T3	4.09	3.80
Respect T1	3.39	3.65	Respect T2	3.49	3.57	Integrity T3	3.48	3.93
Pers. Development T1	3.21	3.66	Responsibility T2	3.12	3.62	Respect T3	3.14	3.24
Justice T1	2.94	3.68	Friendship T2	2.56	3.43	Effort T3	3.06	3.63
Health T1	2.78	3.95	Health T2	2.53	3.75	Responsibility T3	2.74	3.51
Discipline T1	2.73	3.40	Effort T2	2.42	3.18	Health T3	2.65	4.17
Friendship T1	2.38	3.29	Integrity T2	2.30	3.54	Pers. Development T3	2.26	3.28
Integrity T1	2.38	3.30	Pers. Development T2	2.29	3.30	Discipline T3	2.05	2.92
Challenge T1	2.19	3.09	Justice T2	2.23	3.40	Justice T3	1.97	3.14
Effort T1	2.16	3.34	Challenge T2	2.04	3.15	Friendship T3	1.97	3.14
Loyalty T1	2.12	3.31	Discipline T2	2.03	2.87	Comradeship T3	1.88	3.00
Responsibility T1	1.92	2.98	Faithfulness T2	1.94	3.01	Challenge T3	1.56	2.91
Pleasure T1	1.81	2.97	Humour T2	1.91	2.51	Love T3	1.49	3.07
Faithfulness T1	1.56	2.85	Love T2	1.66	3.33	Faithfulness T3	1.42	2.56
Humour T1	1.47	2.45	Optimism T2	1.56	2.81	Humour T3	1.29	2.43
Optimism T1	1.39	2.72	Loyalty T2	1.53	2.82	Pleasure T3	1.10	2.39
Adventure T1	1.31	2.35	Adventure T2	1.44	2.72	Optimism T3	1.09	2.47
Comradeship T1	1.27	2.74	Comradeship T2	1.25	2.68	Loyalty T3	1.08	2.50
Love T1	1.21	2.75	Flexibility T2	.95	2.19	Adventure T3	1.03	2.32
Wisdom T1	.95	2.32	Pleasure T2	.91	2.17	Wisdom T3	.90	2.47
Self-control T1	.88	1.76	Relaxation T2	.90	1.81	Creativity T3	.87	2.21
Appreciation T1	.82	2.22	Self-knowledge T2	.82	2.05	Certainty T3	.81	2.12
Honour T1	.81	2.13	Wisdom T2	.78	2.16	Collegiality T3	.75	2.10
Flexibility T1	.79	2.01	Self-control T2	.73	1.90	Self-knowledge T3	.71	1.99
Collegiality T1	.60	1.82	Appreciation T2	.69	1.83	Self-control T3	.61	1.82
Success T1	.58	1.60	Caring T2	.64	1.95	Appreciation T3	.61	1.80
Self-knowledge T1	.56	1.80	Collegiality T2	.58	1.82	Relaxation T3	.58	1.53
Obedience T1	.48	1.56	Honour T2	.49	1.62	Flexibility T3	.57	1.70
Equality T1	.43	1.64	Selfless service T2	.45	1.43	Honour T3	.47	1.78
Relaxation T1	.39	1.08	Decency T2	.44	1.50	Caring T3	.43	1.63
Selfless service T1	.38	1.36	Creativity T2	.43	1.47	Obedience T3	.42	1.50
Spirituality T1	.32	1.66	Success T2	.40	1.35	Success T3	.42	1.41
Caring T1	.32	1.19	Obedience T2	.35	1.46	Equality T3	.38	1.56
Creativity T1	.29	1.11	Certainty T2	.34	1.27	Selfless service T3	.21	.99
Certainty T1	.29	1.13	Equality T2	.18	1.05	Patriotism T3	.21	1.04
Decency T1	.23	.97	Spirituality T2	.17	1.12	Spirituality T3	.13	1.14
Patriotism T1	.17	1.19	Hope T2	.16	.89	Decency T3	.12	.51
Hope T1	.05	.28	Wealth T2	.06	.47	Hope T3	.12	.92
Wealth T1	.00	.00	Patriotism T2	.03	.23	Wealth T3	.08	.68

*The ten Cadet Corps' virtues are marked in blue*

**Table 6.4**  
*Analysis of differences for Cadet Corps' ethos and moral competence of the CCIP 2013 at T1, T2 and T3 (n=77)<sup>a</sup>*

	T1: Before entry		T2: Before CCIP		T3: After CCIP		Maughly's sphericity	p	Sum of Squares		Mean Square	MEAN Δ			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			df	F		T2- T1	T3- T1	T3- T2	
Cadets' oath	7.83	4.82	6.09	4.63	5.58	5.27	.89	.02	213.88	1.81	118.31	6.26*	-1.74*	-2.25*	-.51
Cadet Corps' ethos	19.83	9.27	19.68	9.24	21.52	12.94	.89	.01	161.07	1.80	89.48	1.16	-.16	+1.69	+1.84
Total/Moral Competence	4.33	0.51	4.46	.56	4.57	0.54	.99	.68	2.30	2	1.15	11.32*	+1.13**	+1.25*	+1.11
Awareness of values	4.77	0.67	4.86	.62	4.96	0.59	.93	.06	1.35	2	.68	3.70**	+11	+1.19**	+1.08
Identify moral dimension	4.14	0.66	4.16	.80	4.28	0.66	.93	.07	.91	2	.45	2.14	0	+1.13	+1.13
Judgement	4.27	0.72	4.47	.79	4.58	0.64	.96	.23	3.53	2	1.77	9.60*	+1.19**	+1.30*	+1.11
Communication	4.09	0.75	4.19	.80	4.38	0.77	1.0	.86	3.63	2	1.81	5.79*	+1.11	+1.31*	+1.19
Moral Action	4.04	0.85	4.11	.82	4.29	0.81	1.0	.98	2.67	2	1.34	3.10**	+1.08	+2.66**	+1.18
Responsibility	4.54	0.64	4.74	.59	4.78	0.64	.99	.65	2.70	2	1.35	6.58*	+2.20**	+1.25*	+1.05

\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

<sup>a</sup>For Moral Competence and subscales n=76



### 6.1.1 Subconclusions socialization effects CCIP 2013

After the 2013 corps introduction period, enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps increased significantly. This is an important result because it shows that the new approach, with more genuine behaviour and assignments, has a positive effect on the perception of newcomers about the possibilities of their new environment. Knowledge about the Cadet Corps and acquaintance with other cadets also increases significantly, thus, considering the main purpose of the CCIP, the new approach is an improvement. However, unit cohesion, mutual respect and mental hardiness, all of which are supposed to be proximal effects of the introduction period, show no differences at all. Not even after the changes made with the new approach. Apparently, the CCIP has no effect on these concepts.

Taking leadership into consideration, the CCIP has almost no significant effects on transactional or transformational leadership. Results do indicate a development of idealized influence behaviour after the CCIP. This provides evidence for the effect of exemplary behaviour on leadership development. Moreover, there seems to be support for the development of ethical leadership as ethical guidance is an important factor contributing to the increased ethical leadership at work after the coordination period.

Incremental development of (elements of) transformational leadership over time suggests marginal effects of the CCIP, but does support the idea that transformational leadership is fostered by the MIP as well as the CCIP. However, the extent to which new recruits adopt being an example (idealized influence behaviour), envision an inspiring goal (inspirational motivation) and pay attention to individual interests (individual consideration) and appreciate transformational leadership as being important, seems to take more time than a number of weeks, never mind the few days of the CCIP.

It seems as though, with some tentativeness, there is no significant indication (owing to large deviations) that the new CCIP contributes to new recruits adapting to the Cadet Corps' ethos. After the 2013 CCIP, the attributed higher mean appreciation of values that are part of the Cadet Corps' ethos is a result which is in line with what had been hoped to be achieved. With regard to the positive effects on moral competence, however, results show that the effects of the MIP are stronger than the effects of the CCIP. Results concerning the appreciation of values appear inconclusive about the effects of the MIP or CCIP. The appreciation of values over (a short period of) time is fairly stable. Moreover, most of the values that are part of the Cadet Corps' ethos are already highly appreciated at the moment of organizational entry. However, the GLM results do indicate that some changes in appreciation of values are possible. The awareness of personal values and, moreover, thinking about and contemplating moral issues is something that could be a side effect of the CCIP or of a socialization period. It is true that during the CCIP, but also during the MIP, recruits' mores are frequently put to the test and they might experience difficulties in upholding their personal values. The experience of doubt and the pressure to stick to personal principles might make newcomers more aware of their values. The idea that this 'forced' thinking about their values will engender awareness

of personal values is central to the hypothesis that the new CCIP will stimulate the moral competence of new recruits.

Although there are a lot of possibilities to improve leadership and character development, the developments on most topics are consistent with the attempt to improve the effects of the CCIP. Furthermore, most of the time, the results show that the effects of the MIP and the CCIP are heading in the same direction. This suggests an improved connection between the two separate swift socialization events, which contributes to the overall clarity of the role future officers will have.

Yet, despite some of the positive findings which partly support the hypothesis, it is important to analyse the difference between the 2013 and 2012 sample with respect to the three times of measurement so the change in effects between the two distinct periods can be examined.

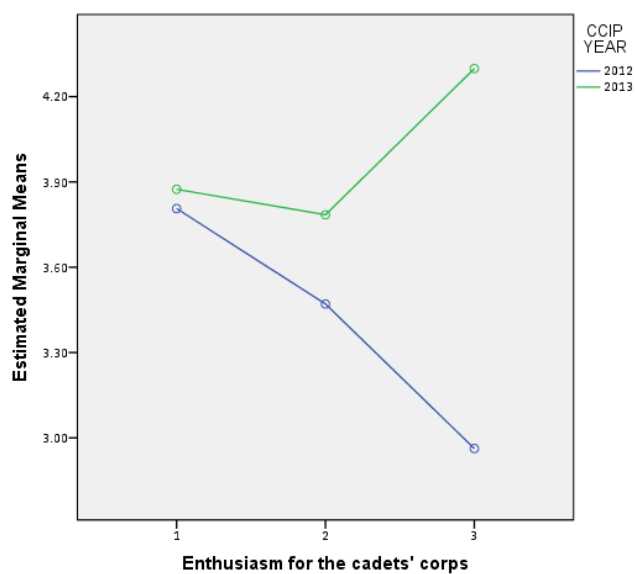
## 6.2 Comparison of results 2013-2012

In general, this section investigates whether the new 2013 CCIP is more effective than the 2012 CCIP in realizing the suggested effects with new recruits. In essence, a genuine socialization period comprising assignments consistent with officer tasks and behaviour, and guided by senior cadets who exhibit exemplary behaviour, should result in more enthusiastic new members who find the Cadet Corps' ethos more appealing. Furthermore, it should to a greater extent have an effect on leadership and moral competence development.

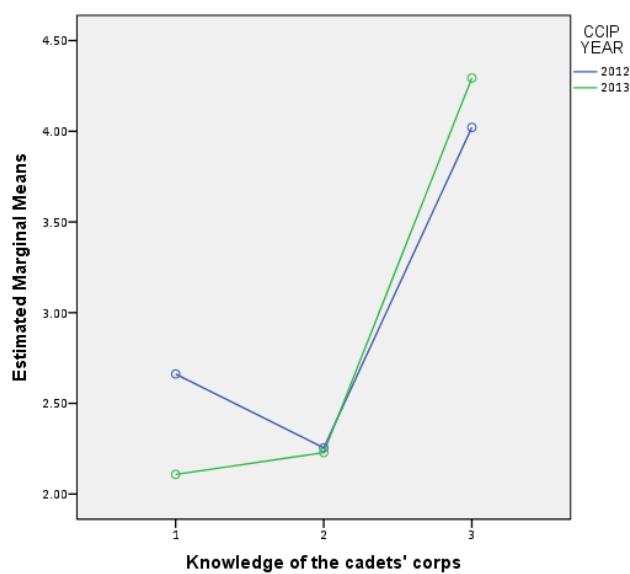
To analyse these inferences, the difference between the samples at T<sub>3</sub> in 2012 and 2013 is an interesting criterion. However, this study also proposes that the effects aimed for in the CCIP are better achieved by the new CCIP approach. Therefore, the development of the socialization effects (the difference between T<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>2</sub>) is a more important variable to test whether the 2013 CCIP is more effective in achieving the goals senior cadets hope to reach.

To test the differences in the effect of the CCIP in 2013 versus the CCIP in 2012, the results of the GLM repeated measures analysis presented in Table 6.5 show significant effects within subject interaction of the CCIP as regards enthusiasm (see Figure 6.1; and Table 6.5:  $F_2=55.03$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Between subjects, effects for the two samples together show that there is a significant difference between the 2012 and 2013 sample (See appendix A,  $F_1=26.65$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The results of the independent sample t-test analysis presented in Table 6.5 show significant differences for the development of enthusiasm ( $t_{116}=7.52$ ,  $p<.001$ ), suggesting that the new approach is more effective in stimulating new recruits to become enthusiastic for the Cadet Corps.

**Figure 6.1**  
*Means for enthusiasm*



**Figure 6.2**  
*Means for knowledge of the Cadet Corps*

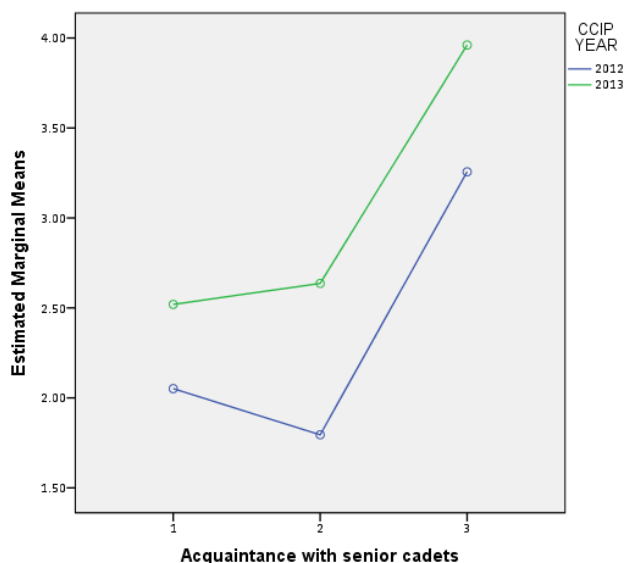


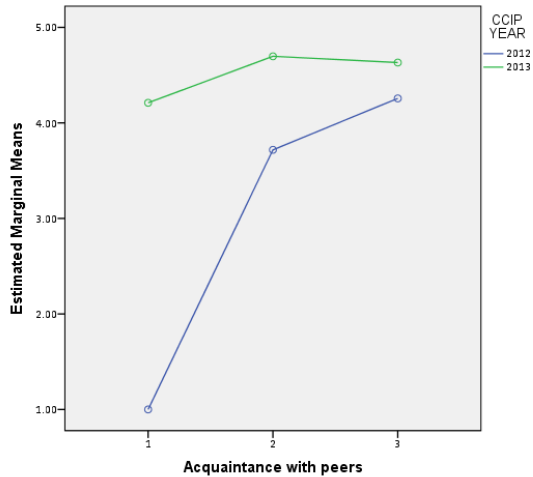
Regarding knowledge of the Cadet Corps, results indicate a significant effect over time for both groups (See Figure 6.2 and Table 6.5:  $F_{1,65}=15.10$ ,  $p<.001$ ), which suggests that the CCIP has a learning effect. However, results show no difference between the 2012 and 2013 sample (Appendix A:  $F_1=2.09$ ,  $p=.198$ ).

With regard to acquaintance with senior cadets and peers, results show differences between the 2012 and 2013 sample and also differences over time, but no interaction effects for acquaintance with senior cadets (See Figure 6.3, Figure 6.4 and Appendix A). Results do show a significant difference between the 2013 and 2012 sample for acquaintance with peers as well as an interaction effect which has to be attributed to the different procedure at T1 (where the 2013 sample respondents filled out the questionnaire on day 1 and hence already made acquaintance with some peers, in contrast to respondents of the 2012 sample who filled out the T1 questionnaire at home). Results in Table 6.5 even show an increase in acquaintance with peers after the CCIP for the 2012 (mean  $\Delta_{t3-t2} = +.59$ ) sample which is significantly different ( $t_{116}=4.65$ ,  $p<.001$ ) to the development of this factor for the 2013 sample, which showed little to no change (mean  $\Delta_{t3-t2} = -.07$ ).

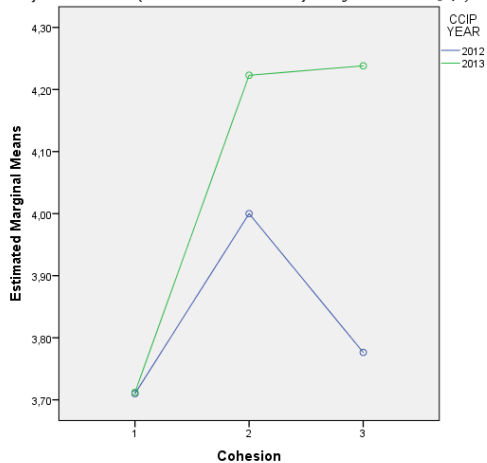
Figure 6.3

Means for acquaintance with senior cadets



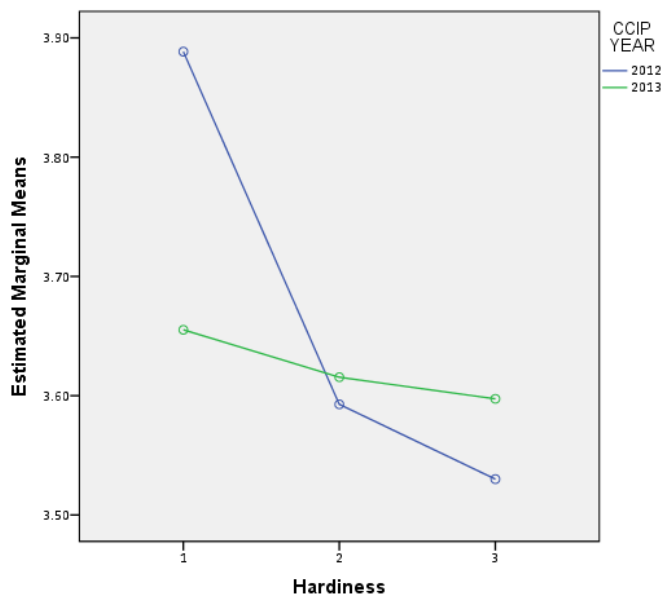
**Figure 6.4***Means for acquaintance with peers*

Group cohesion could not be analysed with the GLM analysis. To make results visible in Figure 6.5., the mean score at T1 for the 2012 sample has artificially been set on 3.71 which is the same as the mean for the 2013 sample at T1. Results in Table 6.5 show a significant difference in the development of group cohesion ( $t_{116} = -2.18$ ,  $p = .031$ ). Group cohesion basically stayed the same before and after the 2013 CCIP, but results show a decline in cohesion in 2012 after the CCIP hence suggesting a significant interaction effect ( $F_2 = 8.28$ ,  $p < .001$ , see Appendix A).

**Figure 6.5***Means for cohesion\* (2012 T1 mean has artificially been set at 3.71).*

Regarding hardiness (see Figure 6.6), results show a larger decline in self-reported hardiness at T2 for the 2012 sample compared to the 2013 sample ( $F_2=15.71$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and, moreover, the CCIP did not reduce the self-reported hardiness as much as in 2013 compared to 2012. Furthermore, although results do suggest an interaction effect, there is no significant difference between the 2012 and 2013 sample (See Appendix A:  $F_1=.74$ ,  $p=.391$ ).

**Figure 6.6**  
*Means for hardiness*



**Table 6.5**

*Comparison of means for socialization effects CCIP 2013 (n=77) and 2012 (n=45)<sup>d</sup> sample at T1, T2 and T3*

	T1	T2	T3	Mean Δt3-t2	t	df	Maughly's sphericity	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Enthusiasm 2012	3.81	3.47	2.96	-.49							
Enthusiasm 2013	3.87	3.78	4.30	+.51	-7.52*	116	.91*	23.83	1.83	13.03	55.03*
Knowledge of Cadet Corps 2012	2.66	2.26	4.02	+.184							
Knowledge of Cadet Corps 2013	2.11	2.23	4.29	+.2.07	-1.43	117	.79*	9.20	1.65	5.58	15.10*
Acquaintance with senior cadets 2012	2.05	1.80	3.26	+.1.49							
Acquaintance with senior cadets 2013	2.52	2.64	3.96	+.1.33	.64	116	.95**	1.85	1.90	.97	.87
Acquaintance with peers 2012	1.00 <sup>b</sup>	3.72	4.27	+.59							
Acquaintance with peers 2013	4.21	4.70	4.63	-.07	4.65*	116	.94**	114.97	1.89	60.86	241.77*
Cohesion 2012 <sup>c</sup>	.	4.00	3.78	-.22							
Cohesion 2013	3.71	4.22	4.24	+.02	2.18**	116					
Hardiness 2012	3.89	3.59	3.53	-.06							
Hardiness 2013	3.66	3.62	3.60	-.02	-.83	117	.86*	1.43	1.75	.82	15.71*

\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

Independent t-test for the mean difference of T3-T2 (2013-2012) and GLM repeated measures test for the differences at T1, T2 and T3 comparing 2012 and 2013 as samples. Reported is the interaction term of the within subjects effects. Significant effect show that the means for the dependent variables changes over time but in a different way for the 2013 sample compared to the 2012 sample.

<sup>a</sup>For specific number of respondents in each sample see Sections 4.2 and 6.1.

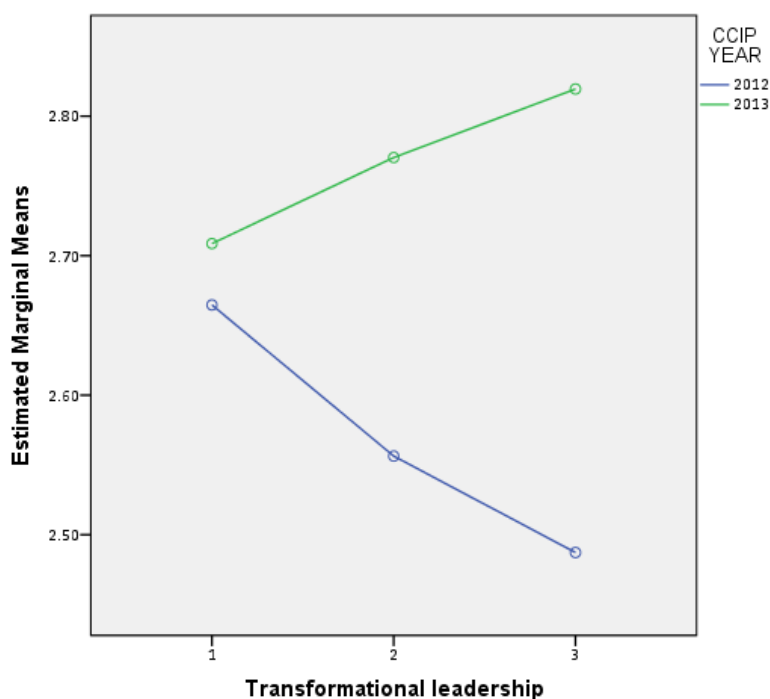
<sup>b</sup>Acquaintance with peers was scored 1 by all respondents because they did not know any of their peers at the moment of filling out the questionnaire.

<sup>c</sup>No GLM possible for cohesion owing to the missing mean at T1 for the 2012 sample (to create Figure 6.5 the mean at T1 in 2012 is artificially set at 3.71)

Regarding leadership development, the means in Table 6.6 at T3 indicate a lower reported predisposition to transactional leadership after the 2013 CCIP ( $t_{118}=-1.91$ ,  $p=.059$ ) and a higher reported predisposition to transformational leadership after the 2013 CCIP ( $t_{118}=5.97$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Altogether this suggests that the new CCIP had a significant effect on the development of transformational leadership, whereas the old CCIP seemed to have a negative effect on the development of transformational leadership (see Figure 6.7;  $F_2=10.30$ ,  $p<.001$ ). This significant interaction effect shows different development in the preference for transformational leadership for the 2013 sample compared to the 2012 sample. A closer look at the subfactors of transformational leadership reveals that, in particular, Inspirational Motivation ( $F_2=47.61$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and Idealized Influence Behaviour ( $t_{118}=2.01$ ,  $p=.048$ ) contributed to the significant effect the CCIP had on the preference for transformational leadership.

Figure 6.7

Means for transformational leadership

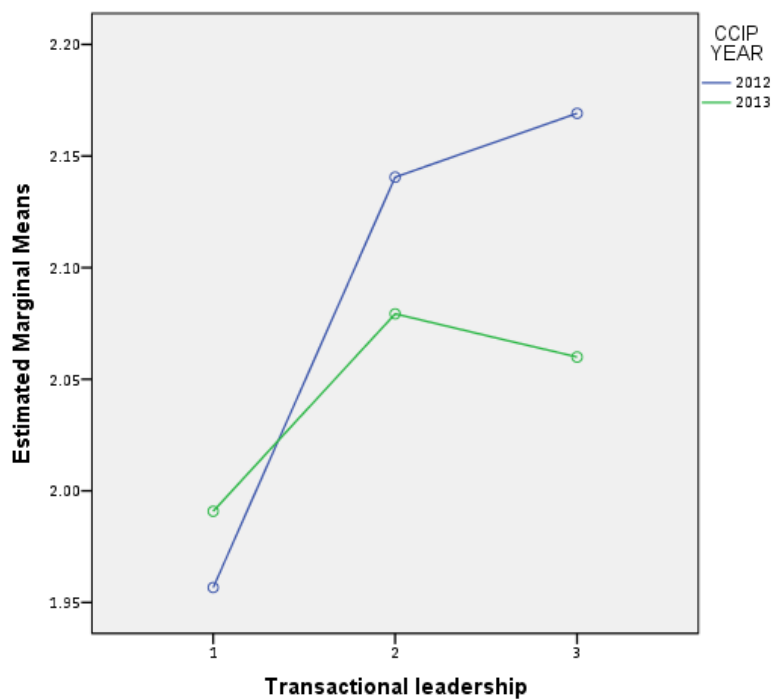


Considering transactional leadership in general (Figure 6.8), results indicate a difference over time (See Appendix A:  $F_2=7.61$ ,  $p=.001$ ), but no interaction effect ( $F_2=1.58$ ,  $p=.207$ ) or difference between the 2012 and 2013 sample was found ( $F_1=.546$ ,  $p=.452$ ). Closer analysis (see Table



6.6) of the subfactors contributing to the transactional style reveals significant interaction effects for Contingent Reward ( $F_2=8.54$ ,  $p<.001$ ), Management by Exception passive ( $F_2=4.50$ ,  $p=.012$ ), Management by Exception active ( $F_2=4.27$ ,  $p=.015$ ) and Laissez Faire ( $F_2=5.34$ ,  $p=.005$ ). However, comparing these subfactors for the 2012 and 2013 sample, the independent sample t-tests on these subfactors show no differences in development of preference for these styles before and after the CCIP.

**Figure 6.8**  
Means for transactional leadership



**Table 6.6***Comparison of leadership preferences for CCIP 2013 (n=77) and 2012 (n=45) sample at T1, T2 and T3 and t-test for T3 (2013-2012)<sup>a</sup>*

	T <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>3</sub>	Mean ΔT <sub>3</sub> -T <sub>2</sub>	t	df	Maughly' s sphericity	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Transactional 2012	1.96	2.14	2.20	+06	1.14	117	.97	.25	2	.125	1.58
Transactional 2013	1.99	2.08	2.05	-.02							
Contingent Reward 2012	2.85	2.69	2.69	+01	.18	117	.99	2.10	2	1.05	8.54*
Contingent Reward 2013	2.61	2.82	2.80	-.01							
Management by exception Passive 2012	1.17	1.59	1.73	+10	.57	116	.93**	1.98	1.87	1.06	4.50*
Management by exception Passive 2013	1.43	1.49	1.50	+03							
Management by exception Active 2012	1.85	2.14	2.14	+03	.87	117	.91*	1.97	1.84	1.07	4.27**
Management by exception Active 2013	1.92	1.93	1.85	-.08							
Laissez Faire 2012	1.22	0.96	1.04	+07	-.20	117	.88*	2.29	1.78	1.28	5.34*
Laissez Faire 2013	0.89	0.97	1.06	+10							
Transformational 2012	2.68	2.53	2.48	-.05	-1.93**	118	.94**	.99	1.89	.52	10.30*
Transformational 2013	2.71	2.77	2.82	+05							
Idealized Influence Behaviour 2012	2.47	2.64	2.54	-.08	-	117	.97	.56	2	.28	2.07
Idealized Influence Behaviour 2013	2.70	2.75	2.84	+10	2.00**						
Idealized Influence Attitude 2012	2.49	2.50	2.60	+10							
Idealized Influence Attitude 2013	2.49	2.59	2.73	+15	-.665	117	.85*	.14	1.75	.08	.60
Inspirational Motivation 2012	2.95	2.63	1.93	-.68	-	115	.98	13.67	2	6.84	47.61*
Inspirational Motivation 2013	2.92	3.01	2.96	-.06	5.58**						
Intellectual Stimulation 2012	2.77	2.13	2.66	-.05							
Intellectual Stimulation 2013	2.75	2.81	2.80	+03	-.89	117	1.0	.60	2	.30	2.34
Individual Consideration 2012	2.72	2.68	2.64	-.03							
Individual Consideration 2013	2.71	2.80	2.82	+03	-.64	116	.93**	.18	1.87	.10	.58

\*p&lt;.01 \*\*p&lt;.05

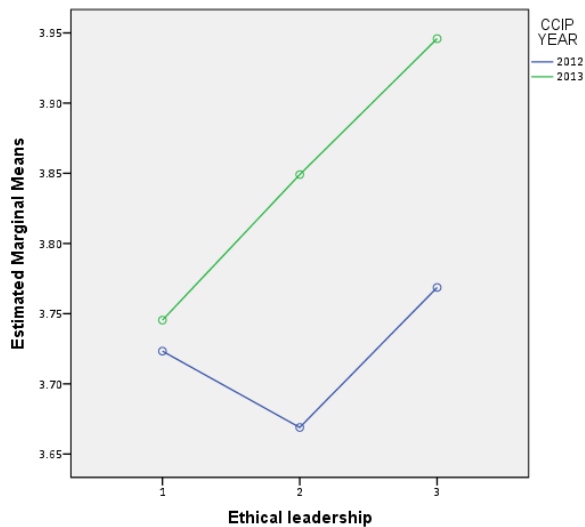
<sup>a</sup>For specific number of respondents in each sample see Sections 4.2 and 6.1

With regard to ethical leadership, no significant difference can be seen in the independent sample t-tests comparing the change (T3-T2) of the 2012 and 2013 sample (see Table 6.7). The GLM repeated measures analysis reveals marginal significant interaction effects for ethical leadership ( $F_{1.84}=2.73$ ,  $p=.073$ ) in general, and more particularly for people orientation ( $F_2=2.48$ ,  $p=.087$ ), role clarity ( $F_{1.77}=3.68$ ,  $p=.027$ ) and integrity ( $F_{1.89}=6.62$ ,  $p=.002$ ). After the CCIP in 2013, people orientation and integrity increased in contrast to the 2012 sample. Despite the increase of these factors for the 2013 sample, the marginal interaction effect may also be attributed to the MIP (Figure 6.9), because for the 2012 sample the factors role clarity, ethical guidance and integrity decrease after the MIP.

Furthermore, effects between groups are significant (See Appendix A:  $F_1=4.52$ ,  $p=.036$ ) suggesting that effects are the same, but one of the samples has a higher baseline at T1 (which counts, for example, for 'fairness', 'power' and 'ethical guidance'). Still, results do indicate a significant effect over time (See Appendix A:  $F_{1.84}=5.64$ ,  $p=.005$ ). Especially regarding integrity, the new CCIP has a positive impact. Results thus show that there is a significant difference in ethical leadership before and after the CCIP in 2012 and 2013, but the difference is the same for both samples. The latter indicates that interventions in the approach of the CCIP did not affect the development of ethical leadership.

**Figure 6.9**

Means for ethical Leadership



**Table 6.7**  
*Comparison of ethical leadership development for CCIP 2013 (n=77) and 2012 (n=45) sample at T1 T2 and T3 and t-test for T3 (2013-2012)<sup>a</sup>*

	T1	T2	T3	Mean ΔT3- T2	t	df	Maughly's sphericity	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Ethical leadership 2012	3.74	3.67	3.75	+0.09							
Ethical leadership 2013	3.75	3.85	3.94	+0.10	-.09	118	.91*	.384	1.84	.209	2.73
People orientation 2012	4.01	4.04	3.98	-.07							
People orientation 2013	4.02	4.17	4.21	+0.04	-1.05	116	.99	.716	2	.358	2.48
Fairness 2012	3.11	3.19	3.33	+0.14							
Fairness 2013	3.02	3.14	3.19	+0.05	.61	118	.99	.178	2	.089	.24
Power sharing 2012	3.66	3.81	3.72	-.09							
Power sharing 2013	3.87	4.01	3.96	-.06	-.31	118	.94**	.005	1.88	.003	.01
Ethical guidance 2012	3.34	3.24	3.51	+0.30							
Ethical guidance 2013	3.53	3.55	3.80	+0.26	.32	118	.98	.306	2	.153	.62
Role Clarity 2012	3.80	3.62	3.78	+0.18							
Role Clarity 2013	3.64	3.81	3.89	+0.09	1.0	118	.87*	1.406	1.77	.792	3.68**
Integrity 2012	4.43	4.19	4.12	-.05							
Integrity 2013	4.34	4.34	4.42	+0.08	-1.43	118	.94**	1.821	1.89	.964	6.62*

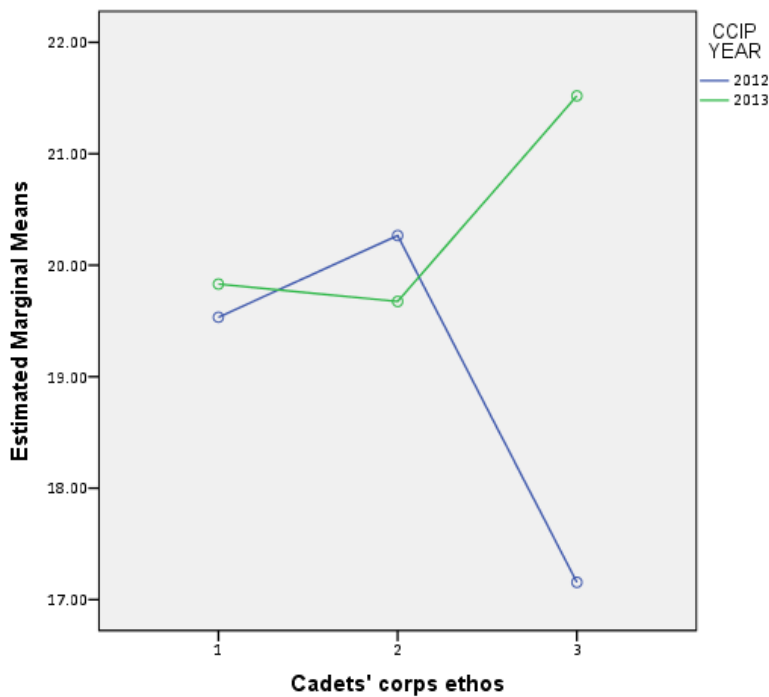
\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

<sup>a</sup>For specific number of respondents in each sample see Sections 4.2 and 6.1.

Results on adherence to Cadet Corps' values and effects on moral competence are not specifically clear. GLM repeated measures analysis concerning Cadet Corps' ethos shows a marginal interaction effect of the new CCIP (See Figure 6.10:  $F_2 = 3.05$ ,  $p = .083$ ). Furthermore, results in Table 6.8 reveal that for oath and ethos the new recruits seemed to have adapted more to the oath and ethos after the MIP in 2012, whereas the CCIP in 2012 reduced adherence to those values. The independent sample t-test analysis of  $\Delta T_3 - T_2$  shows for the Cadet Corps' ethos that the 2013 CCIP seems to improve the attributed value of new recruits to those specific virtues contributing to Cadet Corps' ethos, whereas the 2012 CCIP does not (Table 6.8:  $t_{120} = -1.92$ ,  $p = .057$ ).

Figure 6.10

Means for Cadet Corps' ethos



**Table 6.8**  
*Comparison of means for oath, ethos and moral competence of the CCIP 2013 (n=77) and 2012 (n=45) sample at T1 T2 and T3 and t-test for T3 (2013-2012)<sup>a</sup>*

	T1	T2	T3	Mean $\Delta T3-T2$	t	df	Maughly's sphericity	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Cadets' oath 2012	8.20	7.24	6.16	-1.09							
Cadets' oath 2013	7.83	6.09	5.58	-.51	-.492	120	.93**	9.43	1.88	5.03	.240
Corps' ethos 2012	19.53	20.27	17.16	-3.11							
Corps' ethos 2013	19.83	19.68	21.52	+1.84	-1.92**	120	.98	22.85	2	11.43	.139
Moral competence 2012	4.23	4.29	4.37	+48							
Moral competence 2013	4.33	4.46	4.57	+43	-.044	114	.99	.06	2	.030	.274
Awareness 2012	4.42	4.45	4.47	+07							
Awareness 2013	4.77	4.86	4.96	+.08	-.08	114	.92*	.12	1.86	.065	.307
Identify 2012	4.62	4.54	4.72	+.19							
Identify 2013	4.14	4.16	4.28	+.14	.467	114	.96	.060	2	.030	.112
Judgement 2012	4.39	4.30	4.44	+.14							
Judgement 2013	4.27	4.47	4.58	+.11	.276	114	.96	1.43	2	.717	2.80
Communication 2012	3.76	3.91	4.06	+.16							
Communication 2013	4.09	4.19	4.38	+.19	-.198	114	.99	.12	2	.060	.172
Action 2012	3.88	4.05	4.07	+.05							
Action 2013	4.04	4.11	4.29	+.18	-.689	114	.98	.29	2	.147	.332
Responsibility 2012	4.29	4.45	4.38	+.101							
Responsibility 2013	4.54	4.74	4.78	+.94	-.208	114	.99	.06	2	.030	.101

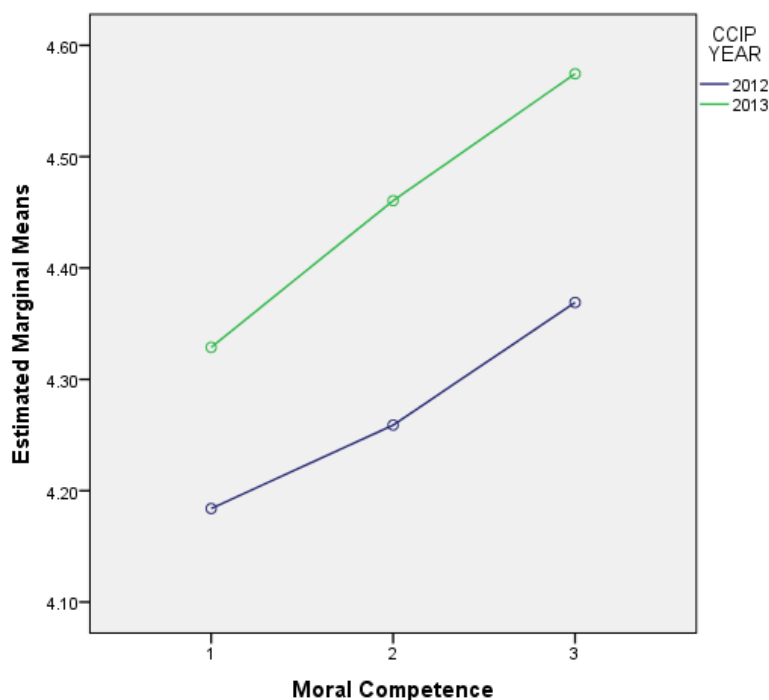
\*p<.01 \*\*p<.05

<sup>a</sup>For specific number of respondents in each sample see Sections 4.2 and 6.1

Considering the effects on moral competence (Figure 6.11), the GLM repeated measures analysis reveals no significant interaction effects of interventions in how the CCIP is approached (see Table 6.8). Results do show a significant development over time (See Appendix A:  $F_2=11.02$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and a marginal significant difference between the 2012 and 2013 sample (See Appendix A:  $F_1=3.87$ ,  $p=.052$ ).

**Figure 6.11**

*Means for moral competence*



### 6.2.1 Subconclusions comparison CCIP 2013 versus 2012

Results provide evidence that the interventions between the 2012 and 2013 CCIP were to some extent successful. Although not all developments over time within the group of 2013 new recruits were as expected, there are important and significant gains in enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps, which is also significantly different to the 2012 sample. This shows that the different approach was at least effective in achieving the main target of the CCIP; to raise

enthusiasm in new members of the Cadet Corps. Moreover, although the 2013 CCIP did not foster cohesion within the 2013 sample, cohesion did not drop as it did within the 2012 sample after the CCIP resulting in a significant difference in cohesion between the 2012 and the 2013 recruits after the CCIP.

Concerning the socialization of leadership preferences, results indicate positive developments for idealized influence behaviour and inspirational motivation as part of transformational leadership. The score on idealized influence, which might also be seen as charisma or exemplary behaviour, increased after the CCIP in 2013 and is significantly higher than the 2012 sample after the CCIP, which even showed a trend of decline on this leadership factor after the CCIP. In other words, the exemplary behaviour of the senior cadets in charge seemed to work as an inspiring role model. With regard to ethical leadership, people orientation and integrity seemed to be fostered more for the 2013 sample than for the 2012 sample, although in general, no improvement of ethical leadership preference was found. Results prove marginally that the new CCIP improved adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos. The 2013 sample attributed more value to Cadet Corps' ethos after the CCIP than the one in 2012, which even decreased in attributed importance to Cadet Corps' ethos. Other socialization effects developed more or less the same for the 2012 and 2013 sample. However, a critical look at the results also shows that some of the positive effects were already set at T2, suggesting an effect of the MIP that at best was only consolidated by the CCIP. Still, in 2012, the effects of the CCIP countered some of those effects whereas the 2013 CCIP consolidated or even enhanced those effects, suggesting that the new CCIP is more in line with military education.

### 6.3 Cross-sectional comparison

A cross-sectional comparison was conducted to analyse the differences between several educational years. Although no inferences over time can be made with cross-sectional analysis, the results of this part of the study at least reveal how the different educational years 'score' on the socialization effects, and because most of the educational years basically consist of the same kind of population, they can function as a reference group for the findings in the longitudinal part of this study.

Results of the socialization effects in Table 6.9 show that the first year cadets (entered in 2013) are the most enthusiast for the Cadet Corps, although differences are not significant. Based on interviews with cadets, this is unexpected, as senior cadets pointed out that enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps would increase over time as 'the first year cadets have to learn to appreciate the Cadets Corps.'. It is therefore likely that the new approach in 2013 resulted in high enthusiasm immediately, in contrast to the 2012 (2nd educational year) sample. However, the enthusiasm of the 2012 recruits did, indeed, increase a year after their third moment of measurement in their new recruits year. This suggests that the assumption that appreciation of the Cadets Corps over time also might be valid for the 2012 recruits.



**Table 6.9***Mean and standard deviation of socialization effects for first to fourth year cadets*

	1st 2013 (n=66)		2nd 2012 (n=60)		3rd 2011 (n=27)		4th 2010 (n=42)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Enthusiasm	4.37	.49	4.20	.67	4.09	.76	4.13	.75
Knowledge of Cadet Corps**	4.22	.44	4.19	.50	3.97 <sup>a</sup>	.55	4.31 <sup>a</sup>	.51
Acquaintance senior cadets*	3.73 <sup>abc</sup>	.73	4.33 <sup>a</sup>	.68	4.33 <sup>b</sup>	.68	4.55 <sup>c</sup>	.50
Acquaintance peer group	4.59	.58	4.47	.68	4.44	.64	4.55	.63
Hardiness**	3.55	.30	3.63 <sup>a</sup>	.27	3.43 <sup>a</sup>	.28	3.56	.36
Cohesion	4.07	.44	4.00	.53	3.93	.52	4.08	.64

\*  $p < .01$  \*\*  $p < .05$ . Means in the same row, marked with the same letter (i.e. a, b, c or d) in superscript, differ significantly from each other. For example, the mean acquaintance with senior cadets for first years (3.73) differs significantly from a: the second year, b: the third year and c: the fourth year.

Furthermore, results in Table 6.9 show that knowledge of the Cadet Corps is higher for fourth year than for third year cadets. Acquaintance with senior cadets is lower for new recruits compared to all other educational years, which seems plausible because even when other factors should be taken into account, over the course of time cadets get more, and more frequently in touch with each other. Knowledge of peers, hardiness and cohesion are basically stable across educational years.

Although it is not possible to draw conclusions over time for cross-sectional research, results of the comparison of means between the educational years of cadets reveal that enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps is not higher for higher educational years. This means that what cadets and senior officers thought happened, namely, that after the CCIP newcomers needed time to readjust and would come to appreciate the Cadet Corps over time, therefore needs to be contested in light of the results in Table 6.9. Instead, over the years, enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps seems to drop, showing a significant difference between first and fourth year cadets, but a considerable negative trend over the successive years.

The same trend is shown for knowledge on the Cadets Corps. As regards getting acquainted with other (senior) cadets, time spent at the KMA does seem to have an impact considering the significant difference between the first and second year. However, after the second year, getting to know senior cadets no longer improves, suggesting, with some cautiousness, that the first two years at the KMA contribute a lot to getting acquainted with senior cadets but thereafter no new contacts are made or, at least in the perception of the respondents, they think they know a lot of senior colleagues.

With respect to unit cohesion and knowledge of peers, the cross-sectional results are fairly similar across educational years. Again, although no conclusions can be drawn on

development over time, these results suggest that the perception of these socialization effects are set in the first weeks of education.

Hardiness shows a more capricious pattern. Third year cadets regarded themselves as a bit less hardy compared to their second year colleagues. A possible explanation for this fluctuation might be that first and third year cadets are subjected to harsh experiences (e.g. the CCIP in the first year and military survival and mental training in the third year), which influences how they perceive their personal resilience. This suggests that how cadets think about their personal ability to cope with extreme situations depends on conditions they have recently faced. If they had recently faced harsh conditions, they had a relatively humble view about their resilience. However, over time, they will probably forget about that and they appear to gain confidence when the recollection of that harsh period gradually fades.

Results presented in Table 6.10 on leadership socialization reveal capricious patterns and no significant differences over the years, with three exceptions. Individual consideration is highest for second year cadets and lowest for fourth year cadets. This might suggest that after the second year the perceived importance of these elements of leadership diminishes over time. Furthermore, there seems to be a trend whereby perceived importance of transformational styles increases from the first to the second year and thereafter decreases again.

The second exception concerns management by exception active, for which new recruits rate higher preferences than fourth year cadets. And thirdly, laissez faire leadership, whereby results, although already fairly low, show that second and fourth year cadets differ significantly from the first year cadets who attribute higher scores to laissez faire, with fourth year cadets attributing the lowest score. If anything, this might indicate that leadership education and socialization over time fosters initiative and action and not laissez faire.

**Table 6.10***Mean and standard deviation of multifactor leadership for first to fourth years' cadets*

	1st 2013 (n=66)		2nd 2012 (n=60)		3rd 2011 (n=27)		4th 2010 (n=42)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
<b>Overall Transformational leadership</b>	2.71	.33	2.78	.33	2.65	.21	2.64	.36
Inspiratioanal motivation	2.79	.48	2.85	.50	2.62	.34	2.71	.58
Intellectual stimulation	2.77	.40	2.80	.41	2.78	.36	2.72	.44
Individual consideration*	2.63	.45	2.82 <sup>a</sup>	.45	2.65	.44	2.47 <sup>a</sup>	.47
Idealized influence behaviour	2.70	.46	2.72	.43	2.69	.36	2.68	.55
Idealized influence attitude	2.64	.39	2.71	.33	2.51	.36	2.60	.47
<b>Overall Transactional leadership</b>	2.14	.39	2.14	.34	2.05	.29	2.04	.31
Contingent reward	2.78	.42	2.94	.39	2.77	.36	2.83	.37
Management by exception passive	1.57	.61	1.58	.55	1.62	.57	1.55	.53
Management by exception active**	2.06 <sup>a</sup>	.70	1.89	.64	1.76	.36	1.74 <sup>a</sup>	.43
Laissez faire*	1.13 <sup>ab</sup>	.56	.86 <sup>a</sup>	.47	.94	.48	.78 <sup>b</sup>	.52

\* $p < .01$  \*\* $p < .05$ . Superscript characters a, b, c and d indicate which means of educational years differ indicated by post-hoc tests; Means in the same row, marked with the same letter (i.e. a, b, c or d) in superscript, differ significantly from each other. For example, the mean laissez faire score for first years (1.13) differs significantly from a: the second year, b: the fourth year.

Taking ethical leadership into consideration, results in Table 6.11 reveal that, overall, there is no difference in ethical leadership across different educational years. However, for people orientation, for instance, the same trend is visible as for individual consideration. This facet of leadership is appreciated more after the first year, but is lower in perceived importance by higher educational years. Moreover, role clarity and providing clarity of their role as a leader increases after the first year, but ethical guidance as an element of leadership is lower after the second year of education. The latter is a striking reduction of importance, because providing ethical guidance for their personnel will be essential for future officers to refrain from, for example, moral disengagement.

**Table 6.11***Mean and standard deviation of ethical leadership for first to fourth year cadets*

	1st 2013 (n=66)		2nd 2012 (n=60)		3rd 2011 (n=27)		4th 2010 (n=42)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Ethical leadership	3.81	.29	3.89	.32	3.81	.26	3.80	.32
People orientation	4.08	.53	4.18	.55	4.07	.55	4.03	.45
Fairness	3.25	.61	3.24	.94	3.32	.45	3.17	.66
Power sharing	3.93	.51	3.88	.47	4.04	.31	3.90	.56
Ethical guidance	3.57	.52	3.60	.51	3.38	.55	3.37	.62
Role clarity*	3.72 <sup>a</sup>	.46	3.97 <sup>a</sup>	.43	3.94	.28	3.93	.51
Integrity	4.25	.49	4.37	.54	4.19	.41	4.36	.47

\*  $p < .01$  \*\* $p < .05$ . Superscript characters a, b, c and d indicate which means of educational years differ indicated by post-hoc tests; Means in the same row, marked with the same letter (i.e. a, b, c or d) in superscript, differ significantly from each other. For example, the mean role clarity score for first years (3.72) differs significantly from a: the second year

The trend suggested by the aforementioned results, which indicate that second year cadets attribute the highest scores to elements of socialization effects, also seems to be found in their self-evaluation of moral competence (Table 6.12). In general, second year cadets assess themselves as higher in moral competence than the fourth year cadets. Significant differences between second and fourth year cadets with regard to the feeling of being morally responsible is an example of this trend. However, as regards moral action, the first year cadets have the highest rate and differ significantly from the fourth year cadets. Although no causal inferences can be drawn from cross-sectional comparison, the intention to do something when moral issues are at stake apparently seems to decrease over time.

**Table 6.12***Mean and standard deviation of moral competence for first to fourth years' cadets*

	1st 2013 (n=66)		2nd 2012 (n=60)		3rd 2013 (n=27)		4th 2010 (n=42)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Cadets' oath	7.46	4.84	8.11	4.64	8.48	3.90	8.67	4.47
Cadet Corps' ethos*	24.74a	11.64	17.88a	9.69	22.89	8.77	21.10	8.93
Total Moral Competence**	4.34	.65	4.47a	.56	4.38	.38	4.19a	.57
Awareness of values	4.75	.70	4.93	.65	4.78	.52	4.76	.76
Identify moral dimension	4.09	.85	4.20	.82	3.97	.61	3.85	.81
Judgement	4.43	.79	4.55	.74	4.50	.52	4.31	.78
Communication	4.06	.88	4.16	.81	4.27	.60	3.91	.83
Moral action**	4.06a	.95	3.88	.80	3.81	.74	3.51a	1.05
Responsibility**	4.51	.71	4.79a	.59	4.61	.52	4.45a	.74

\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*  $p < .05$ . Superscript characters a, b, c and d indicate which means of educational years differ indicated by post-hoc tests; Means in the same row, marked with the same letter (i.e. a, b, c or d) in superscript, differ significantly from each other.

Results show that awareness of values does not seem to differ between the years when moral competence is assessed and there are differences between the educational years when the Cadet Corps' ethos is at stake (Table 6.12). Although attributed importance to honesty, obedience and loyalty (the cadet's oath) is slightly higher for more senior cadets, the attributed importance to the Cadet Corps' ethos is significantly lower for the second year recruits. It seems that first year cadets adhere the most to the Cadet Corps' ethos, but second year cadets the least.

## 6.4 Qualitative results 2013

Although the quantitative results appear to provide some evidence for improving the CCIP towards a more professional way of socialization, the actual feelings and opinions of the respondents, combined with observations of activities and actions during the CCIP, are important to further develop insight into the effectiveness of the new approach. The semi-structured interviews with the new recruits were transcribed and coded. Evidently, the results of the interviews address the suggested effects (i.e. enthusiasm, knowledge, cohesion, hardiness, leadership, adaptation to values and moral competence). Observations were categorized by the same concepts, but the more important behaviour of senior cadets was evaluated according to 'old' and 'new' behaviour (e.g. yelling and denigrating versus good example and challenging).

Analysing the interviews, besides the predetermined topics concerning socialization effects, three other topics emerged that were addressed by the new recruits during the interviews. Firstly, an important topic was the purpose of the CCIP itself. New recruits were in doubt about the actual purpose of the CCIP and responded to the first question ('How did you experience the CCIP?') with the counter question that, to generalize, might best be described as 'I often asked myself why I had to do this'. Therefore, the purpose and possible negative side effects of the CCIP are the first two topics that will be addressed in this section. Thirdly, elaborating on the purpose, most of the time the new recruits were asked whether they had learned something from the CCIP. This often resulted in a conversation about behaviour and conduct appropriate to an officer and whether (or how) the CCIP contributed to this.

#### **6.4.1 Purpose, side effects and learning**

##### **6.4.1.1 Purpose**

Most respondents describe the CCIP as worthwhile, although harsh. The purpose all respondents mention is the establishment of a bond between cadets or comradeship. Most of them also regard learning the traditions and values as a purpose of the CCIP. Some other purposes the cadets mention are: insight into their personal capacities and learning experiences and also working under (time) pressure.

*'I find the CCIP difficult to describe. I had many moments of fun, at times tears rolled down my cheeks from laughter but there were also moments when the tears came from frustration. Describing the CCIP, I would say: an educational and useful experience, but never again. In my opinion, the purpose of the CCIP is the establishment of a bond, between cadets but also with former cadets. Furthermore, I learned the rules, values and norms within the Cadet Corps. I cannot mention undesired side effects at the moment, the physical exertion was high. It took a whole week to recover from it.'* (Cadet 3).

Some also mention that they learned a bit about their personal capacities concerning leadership and hardiness.

*'In hindsight the CCIP was useful. It allowed me to get to know colleague students and to appreciate the traditions of the Cadet Corps and it helped me to gain insight into my personal mental and physical resilience.'* (Cadet 2)

Dealing with uncertainty is one of the goals of the CCIP mentioned by several respondents retrospectively.

*'The CCIP is heavy when you are in it, especially because I did not know what was going to happen. I did well on the physical part but not knowing what is next, is hard for me. In hindsight, I look back with joy because good memories prevail.'* (Cadet 4)

#### 6.4.1.2 Negative side effects

Not all cadets were positive about the CCIP programme and its purpose. As the period was experienced as harsh, with many different mental and physical challenges and a lot of time pressure, it was also described as overloaded and at times somewhat childish. Furthermore, new recruits complained that some of the senior cadets, but also some new recruits, had trouble distinguishing CCIP behaviour from normal behaviour. For example, some senior cadets relapsed in shouting and making denigrating remarks if things went wrong (to their opinion). New recruits on their behalf, probably expected a hard time and some of them acted as if they were already numb from the start, although the start was really different than the year before.

*'Some cadets cannot leave the CCIP mentality behind and have trouble in adjusting to 'normal' behaviour.'* (Cadet 1)

This suggests that, at least for some, behaviour during the CCIP is not experienced as normal. Apparently, the approach in which exemplary behaviour was, or should be, paramount was not experienced that way by all of the new recruits or was not executed the way it should have been by senior cadets. It is very likely that some (probably many) senior cadets had trouble behaving according to the new guidelines and referred to their own experience in the CCIP, taking that as exemplary behaviour to shape their own performance. This would limit the eradication of childish behaviour, because senior cadets tend to hold on to what they know instead of what they are supposed to do.

*'The CCIP in general was organized very well. I felt safe owing to the large group of mentors and the absence of alcoholic beverages. However, there are a lot of childish aspects. In my opinion, sometimes the CCIP could be organized in a more useful way to achieve a bigger educational effect.'* (Cadet 9)

The childish aspects often occurred in the dormitories where the senior cadets in charge had the opportunity of creating their own programme and approach for a great deal. It seems that, although the changes applied by the COCOM did have an effect, interviews show evidence that the new approach is not integrated completely into the behaviour of all senior cadets.

*'My personal opinion is that owing to the CCIP, I have improved some basic elements such as taking initiative, working together and acting under time pressure. However, I also think that these skills will have to be developed more after the CCIP in my further education.'* (Cadet 14)

The quotes concerning negative side effects suggest that there is still ample room for improvement.

#### 6.4.1.3 Learning experiences

In general, topics that are mentioned as actually having been learned during the CCIP are: tradition, norms and etiquette and the possibilities offered by the various sports and hobby clubs within the Cadet Corps. Some of the cadets also mention personal learning experiences concerning their leadership skills and, for example, hardiness.

*'I learned a reasonable share about the Cadet Corps but, moreover, about myself. About how I perform under harsh circumstances and how I react to that, for example. Furthermore, I learned how I deal with a, in my opinion, very unpleasant style of authority.'* (Cadet 4)

Several reported a growth in self-efficacy, especially concerning physical exertion.

*'I have learned that I can do much more than I thought, physically. And that sharing information and cooperation is of crucial importance. In the weeks before, during military training, everybody was in essence focused on themselves, but during the CCIP the interests of the group prevailed. Although not everybody got that message right.'* (Cadet 6)

One of the Cadet Corps' values is creativity. Several cadets reported that they did not expect this value to be important.

*'Creativity, which is something I presumed to be completely insignificant before the CCIP.'* (Cadet 14)

*'Especially to be honest and trustworthy, also towards yourself. I have noticed that I do things to be reliable, even if there is no control. Before the CCIP that was different. Moreover, I have learned to take initiative, I always raise my hand when volunteers are needed, whether I like the task or not. The CCIP is really different and more effective, what I have learned in the CCIP will always stay with me. In the CCIP more activities have the purpose of character building, whereas the military training before has a firm focus on practical skills but little attention is paid to attitude and character.'* (Cadet 15)



#### 6.4.1.4 Contribution to conduct becoming an officer

Most respondents agree that the CCIP contributes to conduct appropriate to an officer. They often mention the importance of a knowledge of history, traditions and etiquette, cohesion and comradeship, dealing with uncertainty and the opportunity for personal development. The values that are taught are often mentioned.

*'Yes, the CCIP contributes to conduct becoming an officer, because every officer participated in one. Furthermore, you learn about traditions within the KMA and the corps and you are taught some norms and values. Also, you can start building a network, consisting of senior cadets and new recruits buddies. In your future career, this can be of great importance since you know and trust each other.'* (Cadet 5).

However, most cadets are also sceptical about the approach and argue that behaviour in the future should prove the worth of the CCIP. Most of them (even the ones that see the CCIP merely as a rite of passage) agree that the Cadet Corps does contribute to conduct becoming an officer.

*'Especially the first two days were useful, important things were taught, such as values, norms and etiquette. Moreover, I expected a different CCIP. Our instructors treated us very maturely [contrary to the expectations of the respondent], the CCIP therefore requires some adjustment.'* (Cadet 1)

*'I think that it depends on the person. A lot of people are not open to the background of the Cadet Corps and its traditions, norms and values. A large number of students, for example, disavow the etiquette after the CCIP although it is part of being an officer. I think that most of them will appreciate conduct becoming an officer only later in their careers. That might have something to do with life experience.'* (Cadet 2)

It is interesting that the perspective some cadets have on being an officer puts more emphasis on task than on character.

*'I doubt whether the CCIP contributes to officership. My opinion is that a good officer is trained by instructors. I do see that cadets appreciate each other because they are a member of the Cadet Corps and have a mutual bond. Still, I am tentative as to whether the CCIP adds value to my work and tasks as an officer.'* (Cadet 8)

Most new recruits tend to respond that they show conduct becoming to a future officer, or at least worthy as a cadet, but they also mention that they do not regularly speak out to others who violate rules, and they mention that they are still young and are entitled to a bit of fun. Conduct becoming an officer is interpreted as the rules of the KMA, the Cadet Corps' values; however, most of the cadets also remark that they still do not know what is expected of them as/when they become an officer.

*'I think I behave as an aspirant officer should and I even address others when they misbehave. Although that (their behaviour) would be far out of line, because we are young and so a little bit of fun and mischief is appropriate to us.'* (Cadet 14)

## 6.4.2 Proximal effects

### 6.4.2.1 Enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps

The enthusiasm of most cadets for the Cadet Corps was higher after the CCIP than before the CCIP. Most of them expected (owing to stories from senior colleagues) the CCIP to be childish and denigrating, did not see a purpose in it and thought it to be an obligation. In the end, almost all new recruits assessed it as a professional well-organized period that stimulated them to participate in the Cadet Corps.

*'Before the CCIP I was not interested in the Cadet Corps at all. I even had some resistance against the whole concept, including the CCIP. Mostly for the reason that I thought the Cadet Corps to be a 'standard' student fraternity and I have a personal opposition against that. During the first period at the KMA and during the CCIP this seemed not to be the case. I have grown to appreciate the traditions of the corps and the fundamental thoughts underlying the CCIP. This still does not mean that I find every element of the CCIP relevant. In the meantime, I joined various sports and hobby clubs.'* (Cadet 2)

However, still some of the new recruits experienced the CCIP as a tense and obligatory period in which they were not challenged to learn something owing to the strict rules and regulations. However, the period of decomposing and normalization seems to be a lot shorter (almost immediately afterwards) for these cadets than in the 2011–2012 period (where it took most of the new recruits a few months to gain perspective).

*'No, I did not become more enthusiastic about the corps during the CCIP. Before I was more enthusiastic, but the CCIP put the corps in bad daylight. Only after the CCIP, when we were allowed to associate with senior cadets in a more relaxed way, then I got to see the value of the corps and my enthusiasm grew.'* (Cadet 3)

The organizing committee (COCOM) experienced trouble in changing the approach of all senior cadets. This has a lot to do with leadership and influence. The COCOM had a clear view of how the approach of the bull should be, but a lot of senior cadets still imposed the CCIP on the bulls the way they had experienced it themselves. At moments when control was more or less out of the hands of the COCOM, the approach sometimes was 'old fashioned' which, in turn, resulted in a decline in motivation amongst the new recruits.

*'...I was enthusiastic before the CCIP because of all the possibilities to participate in sports. I experienced the CCIP differently during the specific services and branches moments. There was a rather strict atmosphere*

during those moments. .... I did not have the feeling that I could talk to everyone freely at that moment.’  
(Cadet 10)

#### 6.4.2.2 Social Cohesion

Quantitative results in 2012 and 2013 indicate no significant changes for social cohesion after the CCIP. The interviews with new recruits support these findings and also make clear why.

*‘During the CCIP we were not allowed to talk with members of our group for a large part of the time. So we could not get acquainted as such. The introduction talks at the end of the week were not enough to get to know each other.’ (Cadet 1)*

*‘My buddies of the Air Force, I know them well. Within the other services, I know some better than the rest, partly owing to the CCIP. I have good contact with a number of senior cadets but that is because I knew them before I entered the KMA.’ (Cadet 2).*

*‘I do not know my year members well, I recognized them from face and bull platoon but to be honest it is a pity, I have spent a week with people in my bulls’ platoon but I don’t even know their last names. The connection with senior cadets within the Military Police section is fine, but outside the MP it stops with a simple hello or small talk.’ (Cadet 3)*

*‘Within the Air Force branch I have good contacts with my year members because we do various things together and meet on a regular base. Considering other year members contacts are not as good. I can start a conversation with all of my year members regardless of their service or branch. This is a form of respect we learned during the CCIP. I have good contact with senior cadets, especially the ones within the Air Force branch.’ (Cadet 7).*

A common experience in itself should foster social cohesion, but this group of new recruits already bonded in the military introduction period. Furthermore, the time pressure and the approach of the senior cadets made it hard to deepen the mutual knowledge that might tighten the bond within groups. A positive effect of the CCIP is that all services and educational models are allotted throughout the various groups. This does foster mutual respect between the pre-structured groups but that does not account for an overall significant difference in social cohesion before and after the CCIP. Most of the new recruits do confirm that they made acquaintance with a lot of senior cadets, which they found to be helpful for future relations within the Cadet Corps.

### 6.4.2.3 Leadership

The CCIP is attributed a marginal contribution to leadership behaviour by new recruits. They more or less confirm that taking initiative and responsibility is related to leadership and fosters charisma. However, other practical leadership issues are more or less neglected. Some cadets state that they also learned to keep calm at stressful moments and think for themselves about a plan before jumping into action.

*'I think that the CCIP contribution to leadership is limited because the focus is more on comradeship and extraversion. People are triggered to show off and speak out loud in front of the group, even if they are not sure what to say. This contributes to their charisma, which helps in the future if you are a team leader, but it does not contribute to leadership in itself.'* (Cadet 2)

*'During the CCIP you are forced to take charge. This is a good thing because you learn faster that way.'* (Cadet 4)

*'I have learned that you become a better leader by just getting in front of the group. When you stand there and do stuff you make mistakes and learn from it. Before I thought that I could perhaps learn from mistakes of others but it does not work that way. Only by personal experience you are able to improve. For me the CCIP stimulated me to become a leader, more than before.'* (Cadet 5)

Findings are consistent with the quantitative results that show an increase of idealized influence (attitude and behaviour) after the CCIP in 2013.

*'With hindsight it [the CCIP] was a very special period. I certainly see the purpose and usefulness because it builds your character for sure in a short period of time. For instance, the virtue 'integrity' is now of paramount importance to me.'* (Cadet 15)

### 6.4.2.4 Adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos

In general, with few exceptions, almost no cadet explicitly states that he or she experienced change of personal values after the CCIP. Almost all of them argue that their virtues are developed during their 'whole' life.

*'My personal values and norms have not changed owing to or during the CCIP. My norms and values have evolved throughout my whole life and will not change easily. This probably also has to do with age, prior education and work experience, which differs quite a lot from most of the fellow students in my class.'* (Cadet 2).

However, there are some indications of implicit change which is congruent with the quantitative results that do suggest a slightly higher attributed importance to Cadet Corps' values. Some cadets are able to reflect on their behaviour and hesitantly admit that they have changed, at least a bit.

*'I did not change after the CCIP or the MIP, but the complete set did something. I notice that I have changed because people in my private life make remarks. Furthermore, I started to think differently and I have improved several skills and virtues. For me virtues such as loyalty, responsibility and sociability ...which might not be a value... are very important.'* (Cadet 3).

*'I do not notice a clear difference in my behaviour before and after the CCIP. It rather is a change of mindset. The minimalistic, marginal grey mouse attitude is eradicated completely.'* (Cadet 15)

*'My behaviour might have changed a little. I always was a calm lad, but I noticed that I also became calmer than before in conversations in the weekends. I only speak up if I have something to add and chose my words much more consciously. Moreover, people besides me noticed that my attitude has changed since I joined the armed forces. I am not sure whether that has something to do with my behaviour, for all I know, I still act the same as ever.'* (Cadet 4)

#### 6.4.2.5 Ethical behaviour

A lot of the respondents iterate that there might be a more stringent focus on the importance of virtuous behaviour and giving the good example, especially after the CCIP.

*'I think that for a number of students the CCIP does contribute to the development of norms and values and especially good manners. Especially the younger students seem to have trouble with following the rules and during the CCIP you learn the consequences. The question remains if this development sustains after the CCIP because there is less attention to those values during the regular educational programme. Especially the role of the officer in the bigger picture is underexposed if you ask me.'* (Cadet 2).

*'During the CCIP you get the idea that it is all very serious and that you have to live very strictly according to the rules. Immediately after the inauguration there is a completely different picture than what you've just learned. Some things just do not fit with what you have learned. This may lead to confusion and I presume that that is not the intention.'* (Cadet 10).

Results from the interviews indicate that most new recruits have the opinion that they already possessed the relevant virtues to a great extent, but the importance of those virtues in relation to officer attitude and behaviour was acknowledged more.

*'The CCIP for me was more an acknowledgement than a learning experience. Responsible behaviour was always important to me and the Cadet Corps' norms and values suit me well, mostly because they overlap with ones I already found important.'* (Cadet 5)

Still, most new recruits also indicate that they are at the KMA to learn and they are open to new experiences to develop their ethical skills.

*Morals are important for a good leader. I think that I still have to learn a lot about ethics. The CCIP did increase my moral competence, for instance, I am stronger in holding my own opinion and less easily upset or impressed by senior or higher ranking officers.'* (Cadet 3).

### 6.4.3 Subconclusions qualitative results CCIP 2013

Observations and interviews support the effects of the intervention. Respondents indicate that they learned about the traditions and possibilities of the Cadet Corps and that made them more enthusiastic than before. Whereas the behaviour of the senior cadets in 2012 resulted in a decline in enthusiasm, the new approach seemed to work. Furthermore, consistent with the quantitative findings, respondents indicate that they attributed a lot of importance to exemplary behaviour and initiative. Exemplary behaviour or charisma and the will to take charge are mentioned as gains from the CCIP.

Regarding the adherence to values, results are less clear. Most cadets do not explicitly state that they have changed their values, or find other values more important. Quantitative results, however, do indicate mild evidence for higher importance attributed to Cadet Corps' values and respondents implicitly do admit that they have changed for at least a bit (e.g. *'it is rather a change of mindset'*). Yet we have to bear in mind that all recruits have also been through a rigorous selection procedure, which might account for a bias in value patterns that are very similar to the aims of the CCIP in the first place.

Despite these marginal results identified for cohesion, leadership and moral competence, there have been a lot of gains from this new approach. Not in the least in the perception that it is possible to change the CCIP, as it seemed indisputable and unmalleable for many years, especially in the eyes of the cadets in charge.

Still, there are many points to improve after the first attempt at introducing new recruits to a different CCIP approach. The sense that there is a difference between CCIP behaviour and normal behaviour is a contradiction that needs to be reduced to a minimum. Exemplary behaviour during the CCIP should display the behaviour that is actually expected from all cadets, and especially the new recruits. Furthermore, many respondents indicate that the CCIP is a start, but the actual test of conduct would be in the weeks and months afterwards, which is when people have to choose for themselves how they behave and act. Therefore, as a mentor and a scholar I did not stop with my observations after the data collection period

of 2012-2013, but kept close track of the evaluations and, in particular, of the evolution of the processes within the COCOM.

## 6.5 2014 and beyond: Evaluation and Evolution

Although this research focused on the effects of the CCIP in 2012 and 2013, my role as a mentor did not stop after that period. My intention to make a difference that would persist was affirmed by the developments in 2014 and 2015. Evaluations of new recruits in 2013 were taken very seriously by the members of the COCOM. Again, the new COCOM thought critically about certain parts of the CCIP. For instance, the night of values and norms, in which originally the Cadet Corps' values and norms were recited by number ('1=behave according to the cadet's promise, 2=...'), was changed in 2014 to a night with assignments relating to those values and which could be accomplished by virtuous behaviour. Furthermore, the end of the assignment was not the reciting of the value, but a short evaluation by a senior cadet of the observed behaviour and its connection with the expected behaviour of cadets.

It is also interesting that in 2015 the main body of the COCOM was formed by cadets who had experienced the 2013 CCIP themselves as bulls. This body of cadets was not directly exposed to the 'old' approach and no longer knew how things had been before (although they might have heard some stories through the grapevine). There were some additional senior cadets present who did have experience with the old CCIP, but for the main part they were the most senior cadets specifically involved with the socialization of new recruits. In discussions during meetings I often heard people ask 'why do you say that' or 'why are you of that opinion' when a member of the committee suggested an activity or a change in the programme. Although the basic reaction to changes was still one of reluctance, most of the time they were willing to explore the effects it would generate and they listened to each other's opinions, asking questions that were related to the goals of the CCIP. For example, in the discussion after the introduction of a new approach owing to time limitation by higher command:

(C = cadet, R = researcher)

C1: But what is it that you want? This way the whole ambience is different. If we do this at night, it might be more mystical.

C2: Why do you think so?

C1: You get a more isolated feeling or so, it just fosters comradeship I guess...

C3: You are right that the ambience is different and the side effect might be more cohesion. But to what extent does that contribute to what we want to achieve?

C1: Well, in my opinion, this would not support cohesion as much as the old way of action...

C2: And what is the purpose of this activity again?

C1: Yeah, but still I do not want it to end in a soft tea party.

*C3: So what is it that you want exactly?*

*C1: What I miss is the CCIP experience, the feeling...*

*C2: Is that how everybody feels?*

*R: How would you describe that, 'the CCIP feeling'?*

This discussion went on for a while, resulting in a change of programme with unanimous consent. It is best summarized by the remark, 'I would give it a try this way, just experience what effects we can achieve'. In my opinion, the new approach that was suggested contributed to the 'magic' of the CCIP, as well as to the goals they actually wanted to achieve with the activities and the new setting.

Another important difference in the new approach in 2015 was the changed ambience. Up to this point the ambience focused on the behaviour of the senior cadets. It started with strict and formal behaviour and ended with mild and social behaviour, with some highs and lows that were supposed to test the mental flexibility of the new recruits. The new approach focused on what the new recruits had to learn, and put special attention on the rationale behind, and justification of, their newly acquired or expected behaviour and attitude. For example, at times the bulls were asked to explain why they must act according to the rules. This should, to a greater extent, foster awareness of traditions and customs and also create acceptance and adherence. At the end of the new CCIP, the focus shifted to how new recruits would consolidate what they had learned and agree on new conduct in their future behaviour. This last step, implementing behavioural rules in practice, was completely lacking in earlier CCIPs. It was hoped that this would now demonstrate that the Cadet Corps' mores are not just formalities that new recruits have to go through during the swift socialization period, but are, in essence, how cadets actually behave in practice. Obviously, a gap still remains between how cadets ultimately should behave according to the fundamentals of the Cadet Corps' ethos and how several (not to say all) cadets behave in practice. For that matter, the discrepancy between theory and practice will never be fully closed. However, the implementation of this last step as a specific part of the CCIP suggests that senior cadets acknowledge the importance of the promoted rules and behaviour as part of their officer education, and do not leave it up to interpretation by individuals after the CCIP. However, the extent to which individuals adapt to the Cadet Corps' mores might, for example, also be influenced by personality traits. Which is the subject of the next chapter.



## 7. Results for the role of personality traits in socialization at the KMA

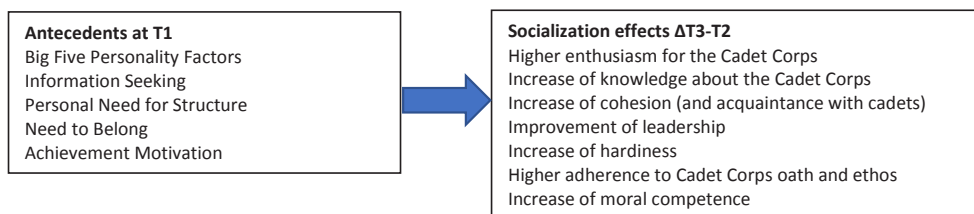
### 7.1 Introduction

The main research question to be addressed in this chapter concerns the role of personality factors in relation to the effects of the CCIP as socialization period. In other words, what role do personality traits play in this swift socialization period or, to what extent can organizational socialization of new recruits be predicted by personality traits. Theory suggests that information-seeking behaviour and personality traits influence adaptation to organizational values and other proximal socialization effects. Earlier research found partial support for relations between personality and socialization effects. Although more complex relations are suggested (e.g. Fang et al., 2011, p. 129; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a, p. 239) this study tries to establish whether there is a linear relationship between antecedents and effects of military socialization intended by the CCIP.

In other words, the changes reported by the newcomers over time are positioned as an effect of personality factors. Personality factors are measured at the moment of entrance (T<sub>1</sub>), the difference between effect variables before and after the CCIP is regarded as change. In general Figure 7.1 depicts the conceptual model displaying the suggested relations between antecedents and effect variables. Considering the effect variables as an indication of socialization, five hypotheses with regard to a main socialization effect can be deduced.

**Figure 7.1**

*Antecedents and effects of officer socialization at the KMA*



In general, the investigation of the role personality factors play in military officer socialization, in this case specifically at the KMA, leads to the following question:

To what extent do personality traits predict socialization of newcomers at the KMA?

In order to find out the predicting role of personality factors, every outcome variable is analysed separately with all personality factors as possible group of antecedents. To understand how the several variables relate and to be sure there is no co-variation, first

the correlations between independent variables are calculated. After that, the correlations between the dependent variables are studied. In the next step the correlations between independent (antecedents) and dependent (outcome) variables are analysed to investigate which variables are useful to find the personality factors that predict socialization effects. Without correlations, regression analyses generally are useless. Furthermore demographical variables are taken into account as control variables.

After an examination of correlations of both independent and dependent variables, regression analyses will be carried out and reported in section 7.3. Presented results of the regression analyses show variables entered as one suggested model of antecedents after a first analyses of a model with more (control) variables.

However, owing to the small sample size it is not possible to analyse full scale models with several independent variables at the same time as each correlation accounts for at least 10 to 20 respondents (Harrell, 2015). Based on the sample size it is to be expected that models with two or three independent variables predicting one dependent variable is the best possible outcome.

## 7.2 Means and correlations

### 7.2.1 Independent variables and control variables

To gain more insight in the independent variables the following section will describe the personality traits means and intercorrelations in some more detail. Results in Table 7.1a show that the participants' means for personality traits in this study are rather centred around the middle three stanines (4-5-6) for the NEO-FFI indicating no explicit high or low selection effect. The Kolmogorov test of normality shows that most of the variables are normally divided statistically and skewness and kurtosis are within -1 and 1 boundaries for almost all variables. Some traits are less evenly distributed and show higher skewness and kurtosis (above 1.0) that appear to indicate more selection bias (e.g. information seeking, achievement motivation and facilitating anxiety have reasonable high means together with high kurtosis). Emotional stability (i.e. low neuroticism), extraversion and conscientiousness are the 'strongest' traits for this sample and although most means of traits seem rather obvious, the mean of the need to belong seems rather low for recruits who are entering a new organization. This could indicate that in general this sample is more individually oriented and for example to a lesser extent attributes value to feelings of mutual appreciation. Bi-variate correlations between the independent variables show interesting relationships. The associations among the personality factors of the Five Factor Inventory, especially between extraversion and neuroticism are altogether consistent with other studies (McCrae & Costa, 2004; Schmitz, Hartkamp, Baldini, Rollnik, & Tress, 2001).

**Table 7.1a***Independent variables means and inter-correlations (n=62)*

	scale	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Information Seeking	1-5	4.03	.59	1									
2. Neuroticism	1-9	3.71	1.58	-.05	1								
3. Extraversion	1-9	6.00	1.74	.12	-.32*	1							
4. Openness	1-9	4.24	1.79	.13	.13	.40*	1						
5. Agreeableness	1-9	4.74	2.22	.00	-.37*	.42*	.24**	1					
6. Conscientiousness	1-9	6.15	2.13	.18	-.60*	.32*	.02	.36*	1				
7. Achievement motivation	1-9	7.56	1.48	.15	-.28**	.19	.12	.20	.66*	1			
2. Debilitating Anxiety	1-9	1.97	1.07	-.32*	.57*	-.32*	.00	-.14	-.58*	-.35*	1		
3. Facilitating Anxiety	1-9	7.15	1.10	.23**	-.06	.29**	-.05	-.09	.09	.06	-.22**	1	
4. Personal need for structure	1-5	3.04	.45	.20	.10	-.22**	-.19	-.17	.06	.04	.12	.01	1
5. Need to belong	1-5	2.86	.43	.26**	.18	-.05	-.08	.02	-.07	-.15	.07	.22**	.31*

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Information seeking relates negatively to debilitating anxiety and positively to facilitating anxiety which indicates that cadets with a stronger proactive information-seeking attitude to a lesser extent have the fear of failure resulting in bad performance under pressure and to a larger extent experience pressure as something to use for the benefits of their performance. Furthermore, information seeking seems positively related to the need to belong, persons with a larger wish to be included tend to report a higher information-seeking attitude.

Neuroticism, relates negatively to several other more 'positive' traits (i.e. extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and achievement motivation) and positively with more 'negative' traits (i.e. debilitating anxiety) which indicates that in this sample people with generally high emotional stability (indicated by a relative low mean on neuroticism) also are more extravert, agreeable, conscientious and have higher achievement motivation and lower debilitating anxiety.

Extraversion is positively related to agreeableness, openness and conscientiousness. This connection with all other personality traits is an important indication that extraversion either lacks uniqueness as personality trait or is a general factor that for this sample 'guides' all other traits. Altogether, extraversion and neuroticism appear to be important traits considering the recruits at the KMA.

Openness to experience relates to agreeableness to which in turn is related to conscientiousness. Conscientiousness, as expected in theory, relates strongly to achievement

motivation but also has a firm negative relation with debilitating anxiety indicating a close connection between emotional stability and persistence for this sample.

Lastly the personal need for structure and the need to belong are related indicating that recruits who prefer to organize and structure their information also have a higher need for mirroring, twin-ship and idealization.

As Table 7.1a points out, the personality traits as independent variables are mutually correlated and probably highly intertwined. Therefore multi-collinearity might be a risk for the regression analyses which should in section 7.3 provide an indication for the role of personality traits with regard to socialization effects. To make sure collinearity is not a risk for the reliability of the regression analyses, all independent variables were tested separately on multi-collinearity and none of the variance inflation factors exceeded 3.0.

To control for other confounding elements, demographical variables are used as control variables. Table 7.1b presents the spearman correlation between these variables indicating that participants higher of age also have higher educational level, more service experience and generally belong to the non-bachelor (short) educational model. Gender and service branch are not correlated with age.

**Table 7.1b**

*Inter-correlations between demographical variables*

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Age	1					
2.	Gender	.06	1				
3.	Educational model	.70*	.02	1			
4.	Educational level	.71*	-.06	.62*	1		
5.	Service branch	.08	.09	.39*	-.10	1	
6.	Living situation	.65*	-.01	.64*	.54*	.22	1
7.	Service experience	.50*	-.17	.35*	.54*	-.06	.32**

Spearman correlations \* $p < .01$ , \*\* $p < .05$

### 7.2.2 Dependent variables

Table 7.2 shows the means and standard deviation of the difference between outcome variables at T3 and T2. As presented in Chapter 6 (Section 6.1 and 6.2) results indicate an effect of the 2013 CCIP on enthusiasm, knowledge about the Cadet Corps and moral competence.

Correlations between the effect variables show increased knowledge about the Cadet Corps is related to an increase in hardiness. An increase in cohesion is related to more acquaintance with peers suggesting that, although a 1-item measure, acquaintance with peers and cohesions share a common ground.

Regarding leadership predispositions, cohesion is related to a positive change in predisposition to transformational leadership and increased hardiness and knowledge about the cadets corps are negatively related to an enlarged predisposition to transactional leadership. Furthermore enlarged adherence to Cadet Corps' oath and ethos are related to an increased predisposition to ethical leadership and an increase in a predisposition to transformational leadership is related to an increase in moral competence. Furthermore, correlations indicate that more acquaintance with senior cadets is related to a higher change in adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos.

Although some correlations suggest some entanglement of measured variables, the dependent variables are not inter-correlated at large.

**Table 7.2**

*Inter-correlations m3-m2 dependent variables (n=62)*

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

	scale	MEAN	Δ	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Δ Enthusiasm	1-5	.52	.58		1										
2. Δ Knowledge about corps	1-5	2.04	.82	.15		1									
3. Δ Acquaintance with senior cadets	1-5	1.31	1.40	.18	.12		1								
4. Δ Acquaintance with peers	1-5	-.10	.50	.10	-.09	.09		1							
5. Δ Hardiness	1-5	.00	.25	.04	.37*	.06	.01		1						
6. Δ Cohesion	1-5	-.02	.39	.03	-.02	.23	.58*	.05		1					
7. Δ Transactional leadership	0-4	.00	.35	.02	-.31**	-.03	.04	-.34*	.07		1				
8. Δ Transformational leadership	0-4	.05	.27	.14	-.12	.04	.03	-.06	.37*	.23		1			
9. Δ Ethical leadership at work	1-5	.08	.25	-.01	-.10	.10	.04	.00	.06	-.11	.01		1		
10. Δ Cadets' oath	0-27	-.47	4.32	-.06	-.01	.06	.09	.00	-.27	-.21	-.21	.36**		1	
11. Δ Cadet Corps' ethos	0-55	3.02	10.47	.05	-.01	.31**	.07	.10	.23	-.12	.07	.31**	.06		1
12. Δ Moral competence	0-6	.44	.12	.02	.15	.21	.20	.06	.20	.02	.26**	.15	.17	.08	

### 7.2.3 Correlations between antecedents and effect variables

In this section correlations between independent (antecedent) variables and the dependent (effect) variables are reported to test whether and in what way the antecedents (i.e. the personality factors) and effects (i.e. intended effects of the CCIP) are related. The first step towards a regression analyses is to review the bi-variate correlations. All correlations between personality factors and socialization effect variables are presented in Table 7.3 as well as the correlations with the demographic variables in order to control for effects that may stem from other influences than personality traits.

Table 7.3 shows that increased enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps is positively correlated with extraversion, openness to experience and conscientiousness and negatively with neuroticism, debilitating anxiety, personal need for structure and the need to belong.

Furthermore, the correlation between gender and enthusiasm surprisingly indicates that female cadets show more increase in enthusiasm about the Cadet Corps after the CCIP. Although mean differences at T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub> and T<sub>3</sub> are not significant, results do indicate that after the MIP female cadets are less enthusiastic about the Cadet Corps compared to their male colleagues. In contrast, after the CCIP the female cadets show greater enthusiasm, which may indicate that their CCIP experience actually fostered their enthusiasm to a greater extent than for the male cadets.

The correlation between lower neuroticism, higher openness to experience, and lower need for structure with a positive change in enthusiasm seems consistent with socialization theory. Enthusiasm for new organizations is more likely to be established in people who prefer to be in changing situations and do not need to control and structure the new information to any great extent. The negative correlation between need to belong and enthusiasm indicates that cadets with growing enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps are, surprisingly, to a lesser extent the ones who score high on the need to belong.

Regarding the effect on knowledge about the Cadet Corps lower neuroticism and lower debilitating anxiety indicate that high neuroticism and high debilitating anxiety are not beneficial for cadets who have to absorb large amounts of information about the history, traditions and customs of their new environment. Furthermore an increase of knowledge about the Cadet Corps is positively related to conscientiousness.

Considering increased acquaintance with senior cadets and cohesion, correlations show that age and service experience are negatively related. As regards increased acquaintance with senior cadets also educational model and educational level are negatively related, altogether indicating that recruits with more experience, education and higher of age show less increase in acquaintance and cohesion. Earlier results indicated that experienced cohesion for the total group only changed after the MIP and not so much after the CCIP. Newcomers who already have experience in the military or who may have experienced social bonding with fellow students during other education, therefore appear to show less change in experienced cohesion and acquaintance with peers and senior cadets. Furthermore, personal need for structure and need to belong are negatively related to acquaintance with seniors. Facilitating anxiety however is positively related with an increase in cohesion. Increase of knowledge of peers shows the opposite, it is positively related to neuroticism and debilitating anxiety whereas it is negatively related to service experience and conscientiousness.

Possible antecedents for the development of hardiness are neuroticism, debilitating anxiety (both with a negative relation) and conscientiousness and achievement motivation (both with a positive relation). All four of the relations are consistent with theory.

Considering personality factors related to the development of (preferences for) transformational leadership openness to experience is positively related, which almost seems to suggest that transformational leadership is something new and unexpected that can be embraced when one is open for new experiences. Neuroticism seems to be the trait related to transactional leadership, which might suggest that transactional leadership is a

style connected to the fear for loss of control. Yet age and openness for experience (marginal) also are positively related to an increase in the predisposition to transactional leadership. Furthermore, an increase in ethical leadership is positively related to neuroticism and negatively related to the need to belong, both relations that although not expected, might indicate that people who tend to have a higher predisposition to ethical leadership are less emotional stable and do not have an enlarged hunger to be a part of the Cadet Corps.

As regards adherence to Cadet Corps' oath, achievement motivation is negatively related, which suggests that the ambition to perform well is not related to a (positive) change in adherence to Cadet Corps' values. Furthermore Cadet Corps' ethos is negatively related to need to belong which is in contrast with the idea that the hunger to be a part of the Cadet Corps' mores would lead to an enlarged adherence.

Growth in moral competence seems to be negatively related to service experience and achievement motivation and positively with extraversion. These correlations indicate, in the first place, that the less experienced cadets develop their moral competence to a greater extent than their older and more experienced counterparts. For the less experienced group of cadets, the CCIP might function as a catalysing process in which parts of moral competence are stimulated (for example awareness of one's values) to a greater extent than for their somewhat more experienced fellow cadets.

Table 7.3

*Bi-variate correlations between demographic characteristics, personality traits and socialization effects ( $\Delta T3-T2$ ) ( $n=62$ )*

	$\Delta$ Enthusiasm	$\Delta$ Knowledge	$\Delta$ Know group	$\Delta$ Know senior	$\Delta$ Cohesion	$\Delta$ Hardiness	$\Delta$ Transformational leadership	$\Delta$ Transactional leadership	$\Delta$ Ethical leadership	$\Delta$ Cadets' oath	$\Delta$ Cadet Corps' ethos	$\Delta$ Moral competence
Gender	,26*	,03	,08	-,09	,14	,07	,11	,18	-,18	-,20	-,04	,06
Educational Model	,10	,04	-,02	-,29**	-,13	,04	,15	,10	-,03	-,18	-,11	-,13
Educational level	,10	-,16	-,16	-,36*	-,06	,07	,07	,23	,01	,08	-,15	-,19
Service Branch	,10	,19	-,01	-,01	,01	,08	-,01	-,12	,09	-,05	,00	-,05
Living situation	,08	-,01	-,02	-,25	-,08	,02	,18	,15	-,08	,03	,06	-,11
Age	,01	-,16	-,11	-,39*	-,19***	-,06	,10	,23**	,04	,07	-,09	-,20
Service experience	-,14	-,21**	-,28**	-,22**	-,30*	,11	-,10	-,06	-,03	-,06	-,05	-,32*
Information seeking	,07	,14	-,06	-,10	-,10	,14	,13	,02	-,06	,13	-,15	-,07
Neuroticism	-,24**	-,49*	,19***	-,02	,06	-,31*	-,01	,32*	,21**	,11	,10	-,01
Extraversion	,20***	-,07	,00	,14	,08	-,10	,15	,06	-,11	-,15	-,01	,26**
Openness to experience	,25**	-,12	,10	,01	,09	-,04	,29*	,20***	,10	,00	,09	,08
Agreeableness	-,02	,13	-,13	,09	-,05	-,04	-,13	-,01	-,13	-,12	,06	,03
Conscientiousness	,22**	,20***	-,17***	,02	-,01	,24**	,04	-,08	-,06	-,26***	-,10	-,09
Achievement motivation	,08	,10	,03	,05	,09	,32*	-,05	-,02	-,03	-,29**	-,07	-,29*
Debilitating anxiety	-,17***	-,32*	,21**	,03	,07	-,25**	-,02	-,03	-,06	,16	,15	,04
Facilitating anxiety	,06	-,12	,06	,15	,18***	,00	,13	,09	-,05	-,09	,16	,13
Personal need for structure	-,39*	-,09	-,08	-,23**	-,15	,00	-,13	-,14	-,06	,06	,04	-,14
Need to belong	-,25**	-,04	-,08	-,21**	-,04	,02	,00	,06	-,24**	-,19	-,24**	,07

*For the nominal and ordinal variables above the dashed line correlations are tested with Spearman's Rho non-parametric correlation test*

*\*correlation is significant at the  $p < .01$  level, \*\*correlation is significant at the  $p < .05$  level, \*\*\*correlation is marginally significant. .08 >  $p > .05$ .*



### 7.3 Regression Analyses

Next, based on the correlations presented in the previous sections, regression analyses are performed to investigate the predicting value of the antecedents that are correlated with change in socialization effects. For each effect variable a separate model is tested.

#### 7.3.1 Enthusiasm

Correlation analyses suggest that neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, debilitating anxiety, need to belong and personal need for structure may be personality traits of influence with gender as demographic variable to control for. To use gender as control variable it was dummy coded (with 0= male and 1= female). First analyses showed that these variables together result in a significant model ( $RS = .28$ ,  $F = 2.53$ ,  $p = .02$ ). Although the model with gender, neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, debilitating anxiety, need to belong and personal need for structure significantly explains 28% of the variance in enthusiasm, not all antecedents significantly contribute to this model. Altogether, only gender as control variable ( $\beta = .58$ ,  $t = 2.78$ ,  $p = .01$ ) in the first step and personal need for structure in the second step seemed to significantly impact the growth of enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps ( $\beta = -.38$ ,  $t = -2.15$ ,  $p = .04$ ).

Therefore Table 7.4 presents a more specific model with only these two variables as antecedents for the growth of enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps. Results show that (lower) personal need for structure is the best predictor for the growth of enthusiasm during the CCIP even when controlled for gender which loses significance in step 2.

**Table 7.4**

*Hierarchical regression model for change of enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps after the CCIP (n=62)*

Model summary	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F ( $\Delta R^2$ )	p
Step 1	.11	.11	7.75*	.01
Step 2	.20	.09	6.36*	.01
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	F	p
Step 1	2.34	1	7.75*	.01
Step 2	4.10	2	7.40*	<.01
Step 1	$\beta$	Standardized $\beta$	t	p
Constant				
Gender	.58	.34	2.78*	.01
Step 2	$\beta$	Standardized $\beta$	t	p
Constant	1.29			
Gender	.41	.24	1.92	.06
PNS	-.40	-.31	-2.52	.01

### 7.3.2 Organizational knowledge

Correlation analyses suggest that neuroticism, conscientiousness and debilitating anxiety are possible predictors for the growth in organizational knowledge with service experience as variable to control for. First analyses showed that these variables together result in a significant model ( $RS = .29$ ,  $F = 5.69$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Although the model with service experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness and debilitating anxiety significantly explains 29% of the variance in knowledge about the Cadet Corps, not all antecedents significantly contribute to this model. Altogether, service experience as control variable ( $\beta = -.12$ ,  $t = -1.69$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in the first step and neuroticism in the second step seemed of significant impact to the growth of enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps ( $\beta = -.25$ ,  $t = -3.27$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

Therefore Table 7.5 presents a more specific model with only these two variables as antecedents for the growth of knowledge about the Cadet Corps. Results show that neuroticism (i.e. emotional stability because effects are in the opposite direction) is the best predictor for the growth of knowledge during the CCIP even when controlled for service experience which loses significance in step 2.

**Table 7.5**

*Hierarchical regression model for change of organizational knowledge after the CCIP (n=62)*

Model summary	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F ( $\Delta R^2$ )	p
Step 1	.05	.05	2.83	.10
Step 2	.27	.22	17.97	<.01
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	F	p
Step 1	1.86	1	2.84	.10
Step 2	11.04	2	10.81	<.01
Step 1	$\beta$	Standardized $\beta$	t	p
Constant	2.10		19.21	<.01
Service experience	-.12	-.21	-1.69	.10
Step 2	$\beta$	Standardized $\beta$	t	p
Constant	3.00		12.85	<.01
Service experience	-.10	-.18	-1.62	.11
Neuroticism	-.25	-.47	-4.24	<.01

### 7.3.3 Acquaintance and cohesion

Acquaintance and cohesion are connected constructs as people need to get acquainted before they can grow cohesion. Therefore the results of regression analyses for acquaintance with peers and senior cadets as well as group cohesion are presented in this section.

Considering acquaintance with senior cadets bi-variate correlation analyses show that personal need for structure and need to belong are possible antecedents. However, as possible variables to control for, age, service experience, educational model and educational level seems to be of importance as well. To use educational level as control variable in a regression analyses it was dummy coded (with 0= preliminary scientific education and 1= bachelor or master educational level). Although first analyses show that these variables together result in a significant model ( $RS = .23$ ,  $F = 2.69$ ,  $p = .02$ ) none of the variables have a significant influence on acquaintance of senior cadets.

Correlation analyses of acquaintance with peers show that neuroticism and debilitating anxiety are positively related and conscientiousness is negatively related. Regression analysis of these factors with service experience as control variable does not result in a model that is significant ( $RS = .13$ ,  $F = 1.18$ ,  $p = .32$ ). If anything results show that service experience seems to be an important factor of influence which also applies to the regression analyses with change in cohesion as dependent variable.

Correlation analyses suggest that neuroticism, conscientiousness and facilitating anxiety are possible predictors for the growth of cohesion with service experience as variable to control for. First analyses show that these variables together do not result in a significant model ( $RS = .13$ ,  $F = 2.15$ ,  $p = .09$ ). Although the model with service experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness and facilitating anxiety significantly explains 13 % of the variance in acquaintance with peers, service experience seems to have the largest (negative) impact in step 1 ( $\beta = -.09$ ,  $t = -2.24$ ,  $p = .03$ ).

According to the correlation analyses the only antecedent (of marginal relevance) for cohesion would be facilitating anxiety with age and service experience as control variables. Results of regression analyses in Table 7.6 reveal that none of the personality factors predict the growth of cohesion. Service experience however is likely to influence the growth of cohesion. Effects are in the opposite direction, which means that higher service experience causes less growth of cohesion during the CCIP.

**Table 7.6***Hierarchical regression model for change of cohesion after the CCIP (n=62)*

Model summary		R <sup>2</sup>	ΔR <sup>2</sup>	F (ΔR <sup>2</sup> )	p
Step 1		.09	.09	3.01	.06
Step 2		.14	.05	3.03	.09
ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	F	p
Step 1		.84	2	3.01	.06
Step 2		1.25	3	3.09	.03
Step 1		β	Standardized β	t	p
Constant		.20		.55	.59
Age		-.01	-.07	-.51	.61
Service experience		-.07	-.27	-1.92	.06
Step 2		β	Standardized β	t	p
Constant		-.32		-.68	.50
Age		-.01	-.07	-.53	.60
Service experience		-.07	-.29	-.09	.04
Facilitating anxiety		.08	.21	1.74	.09

**7.3.4 Hardiness**

Correlation analyses suggest that neuroticism, conscientiousness, achievement motivation and debilitating anxiety are possible predictors for the growth in hardiness. There are no demographical factors related to hardiness so all possible antecedents are entered in the equation directly. First analyses shows that these variables together result in a significant model ( $RS = .17$ ,  $F = 2.95$ ,  $p = .03$ ).

Although the model with neuroticism, conscientiousness, achievement motivation and debilitating anxiety significantly explains 17% of the variance in hardiness development, not all antecedents significantly contribute to this model. Altogether, neuroticism ( $\beta = -.05$ ,  $t = -1.78$ ,  $p = .08$ ) and achievement motivation ( $\beta = .06$ ,  $t = 2.09$ ,  $p = .04$ ) seemed of significant impact to the growth of hardiness. Therefore Table 7.7 presents a more specific model with only these two variables as antecedents for the growth hardiness. Results show that achievement motivation is the best predictor for the growth of hardiness during the CCIP together with emotional stability (i.e. a low score on neuroticism) with marginal significance.

**Table 7.7**

*Hierarchical regression model for the change of hardiness after the CCIP (n=62)*

Model summary	R <sup>2</sup>	ΔR <sup>2</sup>	F (ΔR <sup>2</sup> )	p
	.16	.16	2.739	.01
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	F	p
	.60	2	5.43	.01
	β	Standardized β	t	p
Constant	-.18		-.93	.36
Achievement motivation	.04	.25	2.01	.05
Neuroticism	-.04	-.24	-1.95	.06

### 7.3.5 Leadership

Correlation analyses (see Table 7.3) show that each leadership style correlates with different personality traits. An increase in predisposition to transactional leadership correlates with neuroticism and openness to experience. Furthermore, age might be of influence on the predisposition to transactional leadership. Transformational leadership correlates with openness to experience and ethical leadership correlates with neuroticism and the need to belong.

Considering transactional leadership, a first analysis shows that age, neuroticism and openness to experience together result in a significant model ( $RS = .17$ ,  $F = 3.95$ ,  $p = .01$ ). Although the model with these variables significantly explains 17% of the variance in the development of transactional leadership, not all antecedents significantly contribute to this model. Altogether, age as control variable ( $\beta = .03$ ,  $t = 1.82$ ,  $p = .07$ ) does not contribute significantly and in step two neuroticism seemed the variable of significant impact to the growth of transactional leadership predisposition ( $\beta = .07$ ,  $t = 2.45$ ,  $p = .02$ ).

Therefore Table 7.8 presents a more specific model with only these two variables as antecedents for the growth of predisposition to transactional leadership. Results show that neuroticism is the best predictor for the growth of transactional leadership during the CCIP even when controlled for age which loses significance in step 2.

Regarding the development of transformational leadership openness to experience is the only factor of influence according to the correlations presented in Table 7.3. Regression analyses of openness to experience and transformational leadership shows that openness to experience predicts 8% of the variance in the development of transformational leadership ( $RS = .08$ ,  $F = 5.54$ ,  $p = .02$ ,  $\beta = .29$ )

**Table 7.8**

*Hierarchical regression model for change in transactional leadership after the CCIP (n=62)*

Model summary		R <sup>2</sup>	ΔR <sup>2</sup>	F (ΔR <sup>2</sup> )	p
Step 1		.05	.05	3.33	.07
Step 2		.15	.10	6.81	.01
ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	F	p
Step 1		.39	1	3.33	.07
Step 2		1.11	2	5.23	.01
Step 1		β	Standardized β	t	p
Constant		-.57		-1.680	.07
Age		.03	.23	1.119	.07
Step 2		β	Standardized β	t	P
Constant		-.78		-2.488	.01
Age		.02	.21	1.082	.08
Neuroticism		.07	.31	2.874	.01

Influential factors on the development of ethical leadership suggested in Table 7.3 are neuroticism and the need to belong. Results of the regression analysis presented in Table 7.9 shows that these variables together predict 12% of the variance in ethical leadership. Results indicate that higher neuroticism and a lower need to belong are beneficial for the development of ethical leadership during the CCIP.

**Table 7.9**

*Hierarchical regression model for the change of ethical leadership after the CCIP (n=62)*

Model summary		R <sup>2</sup>	ΔR <sup>2</sup>	F (ΔR <sup>2</sup> )	p
		.12	.12	4.01	.02
ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	F	p
		.44	2	4.01	.02
		β	Standardized β	t	p
Constant		.41		1.93	.06
Neuroticism		.04	.26	2.09	.04
Need to belong		-.17	-.28	-2.26	.03

### 7.3.6 Adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos

Correlations indicate that conscientiousness, achievement motivation and the need to belong are possible antecedents to respective adherence to Cadet Corps' oath and ethos. Regression analyses on both effect variables suggest a marginal predicting role for the need to belong on cadets corps ethos ( $RS = .05$ ,  $F = 2.88$ ,  $p = .09$ ,  $\beta = -.21$ ) moreover, the relation is counter intuitive; higher levels of the need to belong pair with lower levels of growth in adherence. However strictly seen results do not provide support for the predicting role of any of the variables.

### 7.3.7 Moral Competence

Considering the correlations (Table 7.3) achievement motivation and extraversion are possible antecedents for the increase in moral competence with service experience as control variable. Results of hierarchical regression analyses in Table 7.10 show that (lower) achievement motivation and higher extraversion contribute significantly to the growth of moral competence after the CCIP. Nevertheless the influence of service experience as control variable does not cease to exist in step two, yet it does lose some significance. Altogether, achievement motivation (or the lack of it as the bi-variate correlation is negative) seems the strongest predictor for the development of moral competence.

**Table 7.10**

*Hierarchical regression model for change of Moral Competence after the CCIP (n=62)*

Model summary	R <sup>2</sup>	ΔR <sup>2</sup>	F (ΔR <sup>2</sup> )	p
Step 1	.10	.10	6.46	.01
Step 2	.24	.14	5.48	.01
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	F	p
Step 1	1.10	1	6.46	.01
Step 2	2.74	3	6.13	<.01
Step 1	β	Standardized β	t	p
Constant	.16		2.97	<.01
Service experience	-.09	-.31	-2.54	.01
Step 2	β	Standardized β	t	p
Constant	.44		1.53	.13
Service experience	-.07	-.23	-2.00	.05
Extraversion	.07	.29	2.40	.02
Achievement motivation	-.09	-.32	-2.73	.01

#### 7.4 Sub conclusions for the role of personality factors

Reflecting on the role of personality factors with regard to the development of socialization effects, results appear somewhat ambiguous. Table 7.11 provides a brief oversight of all relations found in this chapter considering personality factors and socialization effects in the CCIP. In short, results prove that an increased enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps is best predicted by a low personal need for structure and low neuroticism best predicts the development of organizational knowledge. No support was found for the prediction of increased cohesion by personality traits. The only factor of (negative) influence on the change of cohesion is experience in military service, indicating that cadets with more experience are not likely to increase their sense of cohesion owing to the CCIP. The development of hardiness during the CCIP is best predicted by achievement motivation together with low neuroticism (i.e. high emotional stability).

With regard to leadership development, different personality traits relate to different predispositions to leadership styles. A larger predisposition to transactional leadership after the CCIP is best predicted by high neuroticism compared. The development of a predisposition to transformational leadership is best predicted by openness to experience. The development of ethical leadership is best predicted by high neuroticism and a low need to belong. This might indicate that cadets who have a firm need to belong to their new group and organization are likely to disregard their norms and values as a leader, just to connect to their new peers. Newcomers higher on neuroticism on the other hand appear to grow their ethical leadership, seems to be inconsistent with findings in other studies but can be explained when looked at the subscales indicating that role clarification as part of ethical leadership is related to neuroticism (Kalshoven, 2010).

The only factor of marginal influence on stimulation of adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos seems to be the need to belong. With regard to moral competence, the antecedent personality traits are achievement motivation and extraversion. Cadets high on achievement motivation develop moral competence to a lesser extent compared to their colleagues that are low on achievement motivation. Highly extravert cadets develop moral competence to a greater extent.



**Table 7.11**  
*Results of correlation and regression analyses*

Control variables*		Big Five Personality traits	Personal Need for Structure	Need To Belong	Achievement Motivation
Δ Enthusiasm	Female cadets show larger increase in enthusiasm	Weak negative correlation with N. Weak positive correlation with E (ns), O and C.	<b>Predicts decrease in enthusiasm</b>	Low significant negative correlation	Weak negative correlation with debilitating anxiety.
Δ Knowledge about cadets' corps	Negative correlation with service experience	<b>N predicts decrease in knowledge.</b> Weak positive correlations with A(ns) and C.	Significant negative correlation	Significant negative correlation	Significant negative correlation with debilitating anxiety.
Δ Acquaintance with senior cadets	<b>Negative correlations with age, service experience, educational level and model</b>				
Δ Acquaintance with peers	<b>Little service experience predicts an increase</b>	Low positive correlation with N (ns). Low negative correlation with C (ns)			Significant positive correlation with debilitating anxiety
Δ Cohesion	Negative correlation with age. <b>Lower service experience predicts increase of cohesion.</b>		Negative weak correlation (ns)		Positive weak correlation (ns) with facilitating anxiety.
Δ Hardiness		<b>N predicts decrease in hardiness.</b> Weak positive correlation (ns) with C.			<b>Achievement motivation predicts increase of hardiness.</b> Low significant negative correlation with debilitating anxiety.
Δ Transformational leadership		<b>O predicts increase of transformational leadership</b> (with marginal significance)			
Δ Transactional leadership	Positive correlation with age	<b>N predicts increase.</b> Weak positive correlations (ns) with O.			
Δ Ethical leadership		<b>N predicts increase of ethical leadership.</b>		<b>NTB predicts decrease of ethical leadership</b> (with marginal significance)	
Δ Cadets' corps ethos				<b>Low NTB marginally predicts increase.</b>	
Δ Moral Competence	<b>Little service experience predicts increase.</b>	<b>Extraversion predicts increase of moral competence.</b>			<b>Low achievement motivation predicts increase.</b>

\*No significant relations were found for orientation and information-seeking behaviour in general, a breakdown in elements show some weak non-significant correlations. Big Five Personality traits: N=Neuroticism, E=Extraversion, O=Openness to experience, A=Agreeableness and C=Conscientiousness

# Conclusions & Discussion

*On the mountains of truth, you can never climb in vain: either you will reach a point higher up today, or you will be training your powers so that you will be able to climb higher tomorrow.*

*Friedrich Nietzsche*



## 8. Conclusion & Discussion

### 8.1 Introduction

Military initiation rites and introductory activities have come under international scholarly and public scrutiny. However, owing to the often secretive character of many of those hazing-like events research on this topic is scarce. Furthermore, it is usually incidents occurring during these events that have attracted public attention. Among academics, the attention paid to initiation rites is mainly descriptive and anthropological in nature (e.g. Turner, 1987; Weber, 2012; Winslow, 2004). This study attempts to analyse the socialization effects of a specific military officer initiation period (i.e. the Cadet Corps' introduction period) and moreover, by method of action research this study offers suggestions for improvement of that period.

Although history shows that the hazing-like character of the CCIP entails inherent risks for the (psychological and physical) safety of the cadets, this study took the CCIP as a specific swift socialization case for military officer initiation. The general idea behind this study is that officer initiation might well stem from hazing-like activities, but the modern introduction period should, at least under current societal circumstances and demands, contribute to some extent to the development of military officers of the twenty-first century and beyond. This 'contribution' has often been suggested, but was never actually investigated.

Within the KMA the Cadet Corps plays an important role in character development, at least according to cadets and staff. It is suggested that the CCIP fosters several important character traits new recruits hope to obtain with regard to development and promotion to the position of officer. The researcher's personal experience and observations led him to question whether the CCIP actually achieves the effects that are suggested by senior cadets in the Cadet Corps. This critical outlook, bolstered by the observation that the CCIP in 2012 was almost identical to the one in 1992 (when the researcher was himself a recruit), led to the idea that it ought to be possible to improve or optimize the CCIP. The central research question of this dissertation was therefore formulated as follows:

**What are the effects of interventions in the CCIP on the swift socialization of newcomers at the KMA and what role do personality traits play in that swift socialization?**

The role of personality traits was added to the research question because selection of new recruits may play an important role in socialization effects. If the (old or the new) CCIP is effective to some extent, this might also be an outcome of specific personality traits and, furthermore, have valuable practical implications for selection and socialization practices.

In answering the central question, four specific research questions provided direction to this study. In short, the analyses of the effects of the CCIP before (1) and after (2) interventions

provide an answer to the first part of the central research question. The analyses of differences between the effects (3) of the CCIP in 2012 and 2013 provide insight into the effectiveness of the interventions to improve the CCIP and finally the analyses of the relation of personality traits (4) with the effects of the (new) CCIP provide an answer to the second part of the research question. The following section presents the main findings. Subsequently this chapter describes theoretical and methodological strengths and limitations, practical implications and directions for future research.

## 8.1 Main findings

### 8.1.1 *Effects of interventions in the CCIP*

Effects of the CCIP on socialization outcomes (Chapter 4) are small and sometimes even the opposite of what is intended. The new recruits confirmed that they had learned a lot about the history and traditions of the Cadet Corps, and they had got to know each other and senior members in particular. However, the CCIP did not succeed in making the new potential members enthusiastic about their new society. Altogether, the analyses of the 2012 CCIP suggest that there is ample room for improvement.

Based on the general idea that revitalizing social beliefs (Huy, 2001) about the CCIP was necessary, the coordination commission (COCOM) developed a new programme for the CCIP from a social learning perspective (Bandura, 1971) combined with the principles of ethics in military education (Robinson et al., 2008) and the Socratic approach (Brooke, 2006). The use of the Socratic Method helped the COCOM think about purpose and values and how to teach these to newcomers. This seemed to be an effective way of developing a new approach by senior cadets in the officer initiation period. The effects of the discussions in the COCOM were threefold. First, the cadets were forced to think about their personal behaviour and the way they appreciated the Cadet Corps' values themselves. Second, they had to think about the content of those values and attempt to gain a proper understanding of what they meant. Third, they had to integrate both and draw conclusions about how the adaptation of new recruits could be fostered 'the right way'. The main differences between the old and the new CCIP were found in the attitude of the senior cadets and the focus on challenges linked to professional officer behaviour.

As mentioned in Chapter 5, the senior cadets acted in a less aggressive and denigrating way and more from a position based on good exemplary behaviour. The assignments given to the bulls were more related to actual performance as a (future) officer. The idea behind this approach was not to confront new recruits with what they were less capable of, but, as good and more experienced colleagues, to give them new tools so that the new recruits could perform well in the future.

Chapter 6 shows that this combination of theory and practice resulted in improved enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps amongst new recruits in 2013. Improved as compared to their self-evaluations before and after the CCIP and also improved when compared to the bulls of the prior educational year (i.e. the old CCIP). This is an important development because, after all, one of the main targets of the COCOM was to create enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps, something it was unable to achieve with the old CCIP. Observations and interviews support the effects of the intervention. New recruits learned about the traditions and possibilities of the Cadet Corps and became more enthusiastic about the Cadet Corps after the CCIP. Whereas the behaviour of the senior cadets in 2012 resulted in a decline in enthusiasm, the new approach achieved the intended effects.

Knowledge about the history and mores of the Cadet Corps was fostered by both CCIPs to the same extent and neither of the CCIPs seemed to have great impact on cohesion and hardiness. However, although the new CCIP itself did not contribute to cohesion, the level of cohesion among the new recruits stayed the same after the CCIP in 2013 whereas it had dropped after the 2012 CCIP. This indicates that despite no explicit beneficial effect of the CCIP in general, the negative effect on cohesion of the 2012 period has been eliminated. Furthermore the new CCIP resulted in enhanced scores on idealized influence and inspirational motivation as subfactors of transformational leadership. Both findings indicate that when senior cadets show exemplary leadership behaviour, they are an inspiring role model for the new recruits.

The new approach and the 'better' intentions of the COCOM and senior cadets did not result in an improvement of ethical leadership or moral competence. The new approach in 2013 did have a positive effect on the adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos.

Addressing the first part of the central question, this study shows that some modesty has to be obtained when attributing effects to military officer socialization. Despite that, this study reveals important changes in the mindset of senior cadets when organizing the CCIP. The interventions that were practised resulted in the new CCIP with new activities that caused stress and discomfort but which are, in fact, real challenges with a learning purpose rather than activities simply for the purpose of denigrating the new recruits. As an effect of interventions the new CCIP as a short socialization period seems to have an influence on: enthusiasm, leadership development and adherence to organizational ethos.

Therefore, in conclusion this study shows how short periods of socialization, although generally considered to be of low impact (Ashforth, 2012; Gómez, 2009), can influence the attitude and (predisposition to) specific behaviour if the approach consists of realistic, fair and challenging behaviour by senior cadets instead of behaviour that might be considered as hazing. Furthermore, this study provides indications that organizational culture can be changed, especially when bearing in mind that cadets only spend three years at the KMA. During the first two years, senior cadets put up some resistance to a new approach, for the plain reason that they thought the socialization period should continue in the way they had experienced it themselves. But after three years of applying a new CCIP approach it finally



seemed to be 'normal' to the most senior cadets. Nevertheless, it is important to keep challenging senior cadets to think critically about the introduction programme. The future will bring other changes and challenges.

It is, therefore, of great importance that the strategy of intervention, which mainly involved stimulating cadets in charge to think about their purposes and goals using the Socratic Dialogue, is deeply embedded in the preparation and planning procedure of the COCOM. In this study, this approach proved to be a fruitful intervention in changing initiation rituals and culture. Findings from meetings held in 2014 and 2015 support the continuation of the use of this method in the 'culture' of COCOM meetings. In short: if the COCOM learns how to discuss goals and behaviour in a Socratic way, this might influence the way all senior cadets behave during the CCIP and beyond.

However, since the COCOM changes of composition every year, the role of a facilitating mentor will be essential. This, in turn, will hopefully also help close the gap between direct and vicarious learning. Furthermore, if cadets can retain this way of critical thinking and questioning, it can become part of the way cadets discuss things and behave in the future. Moreover, when future officers adapt this skill as part of officer behaviour, it could have positive long-term effects on the organizational culture.

However, a critical look at the results also shows that some of the positive effects were already set at T2, suggesting an effect of the military introduction period (i.e. the first four weeks of military officer education) that at best was only consolidated by the CCIP. Still, in 2012, the effects of the CCIP countered some of those effects whereas the 2013 CCIP consolidated or even enhanced those effects, suggesting that the new CCIP is more in line with organizational educational objectives. Besides the influence of the military introduction period, this study also looked at the influence of personality traits in the swift socialization process of the CCIP.

### **8.1.2 The role of personality traits**

The results in Chapter 7 of this study show that personality traits predict the effects of the CCIP, at least to a certain extent. Of all traits, neuroticism is found to be an important antecedent, which is negatively related to gaining organizational knowledge, hardiness and the development of transactional leadership. This is an interesting finding because it supports the idea that emotionally stable cadets are better in retaining knowledge than others whilst also developing their mental hardiness. Furthermore, neuroticism fosters the predisposition to transactional leadership. This style of leadership, although in some cases very effective, is not the kind of leadership style that either the CCIP or the Defense organization wishes to foster initially with young recruits.

However, newcomers with a high propensity for neuroticism appear to develop a predisposition to transactional leadership after the short socialization period CCIP. Results

suggest that the need for security and a stress-free environment (i.e. high neuroticism) plays an important part in changing the perception of newcomers with respect to the kind of leadership appropriate to their new organization. At the same time neuroticism also influences their self-perception of, in the main, their emotional stability (i.e. hardiness) after the CCIP. Furthermore, new recruits with a more open personality more often have a disposition towards transformational leadership in comparison to recruits who are indicated as having a less open personality.

Regarding other traits of the Big Five personality traits, conscientiousness is considered to be a positive trait in selection psychology, but results in this study only show marginal correlations with the increase of enthusiasm, knowledge and hardiness. Extraversion, on the other hand, seems to be beneficial in the development of moral competence. Apparently the trait of being forward and outspoken contributes to the awareness of and the communication about values and virtues. Moreover, openness to experience as factor of the Big Five (Five Factor Inventory) predicts the change of a predisposition towards transformational leadership, a leadership style more consistent with the Netherlands Defense leadership vision (Dalenberg et al., 2014). This suggests that the trait of keeping an open mind for new situations, new values and new experiences is beneficial to military socialization outcomes.

Furthermore, low personal need for structure predicts larger enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps. This indicates that the trait of having a high motivation to achieve and structure information and as such reducing anxiety, is counter effective for the development of enthusiasm for the fast changing and sometimes ambiguous new environment. This makes sense when looked at together with the idea that openness to experience (a trait contrary to the need for structure) is, in a mildly positive way related to a (bigger) change in enthusiasm. These findings suggest that officer cadets with a low need for structure are thought to be more susceptible for Cadet Corps' initiation. However, their 'fit' with the Cadet Corps might also depend on their need to belong.

The results in Chapter 7 study show that a high need to belong correlates negatively with a change in enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps and is a (negative) antecedent for change in adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos. Furthermore, a high need to belong predicts a decrease in the predisposition towards ethical leadership. These outcomes perhaps show the socialization paradox as it seems that newcomers with a high need to belong become less enthusiastic than newcomers with a low need to belong. This may suggest either that newcomers with a high need to belong were more enthusiastic about the Cadet Corps in the first place or they had grown less enthusiastic and were disappointed in the way they were treated during the CCIP. A higher need to belong predicts a decrease in predisposition towards ethical leadership which might suggest that newcomers still experience a lack of procedural fairness (a subscale of ethical leadership) whilst identifying with their new organization.

The same detrimental effect might hold true for achievement motivation. Achievement motivation relates positively to change in hardiness, but also predicts a negative change

in moral competence. This suggests that the will to perform goes hand in hand with an increased feeling of mental resilience after the CCIP as well as the subject having mixed feelings about the personal ability to act in a morally responsible way. Wanting to finish the CCIP at all costs might indicate that the dark side of achievement motivation is at play. The relation between achievement motivation, the growth of hardiness and the decline of moral competence might be an indication for the existence of mental numbness, which is a negative side of hardiness. Although aiming for the opposite, as regards this result, high achievement motivation does not prove to be a factor that contributes to the development of moral competence; on the contrary, it may in fact stimulate moral disengagement in favour of the goal that has to be reached. This suggests that, bearing in mind the risk of moral disengagement, the urge and eagerness to perform well is beneficial to several socialization outcomes.

The only socialization effect that is not predicted by any of the antecedents is cohesion. Moreover, one of the personality traits that is supposed to be of influence, information-seeking attitude, has no effect at all. When information-seeking is taken into consideration, results show no significant relation with any of the intended socialization effects. Whereas most research suggests that information acquisition fosters socialization outcomes, this study does not contribute to those findings.

Results in this study provide evidence that the CCIP can contribute to officer development if it is conducted according to the new approach. However, all results should be considered tentatively and put in perspective. Therefore the next section reflects on the theoretical and methodological strengths and limitations.

## 8.2 Reflection and discussion on theoretical and methodological strengths and limitations

This study is one of many looking at organizational socialization and concepts of cohesion, leadership and hardiness. But it is also one of few that was conducted using a participatory action method, thereby creating many new avenues and possibilities for future research. This study searched for an answer to the question of what the effects of interventions in the CCIP were and how it could be improved to reach the outcomes it aimed for. The historical developments and the theoretical background of the means and ends of the CCIP as specific officer socialization period pointed out in Chapter 2 show that, in essence, the CCIP (and probably officer socialization in general) is quite a paradox. The paradox is thus: facilitating enthusiasm and cohesion together with individual initiatives and leadership behaviour of new recruits whilst also attempting to increase the hardiness of the newcomers, is done using a programme that still might be defined as institutional socialization. As big a challenge as this is for the organization of the CCIP, it is as much a challenge to conduct research on the topic at hand. This section reflects on various aspects of the study with regard to the strengths and limitations regarding the theoretical framework, the general procedure, quantitative



and qualitative data administration, the samples, the interventions and the interpretation of the results.

### **8.2.1 Strengths and limitations of the theoretical framework**

The theoretical framework as presented in Chapter 2, starts with a historical outline of the development of the CCIP, and thereafter is firmly orientated on organizational and military socialization, social learning psychology, ethics education in the military and personality traits. The integration of theoretical knowledge with the insights provided by the historical background creates the possibility to intervene and contribute to long lasting effects rather than incident driven interventions that, as the historical overview points out, only represses the occurrence of undesirable behaviour temporarily. This integrative approach might be considered a strength of this study.

Regarding the theory of military socialization and swift socialization, this study contributes to the debate about the effects of swift socialization periods. Although quantitative results in this study show that effects of swift socialization are only modest, the study does indicate that it is possible to influence the attributed importance to, for example, organizational ethos, leadership styles and aspects of moral competence within a number of days.

At the same time no study is completely holistic, and the choices made to create a theoretical framework also infer some limitations. This section will discuss the issue of liminality (Turner, 1987) which is neglected to a certain extent, the need for mortification (Goffman, 1961) which might have become obsolete and the ambiguity of concepts which may raise questions when discussing the conclusions of this dissertation.

Firstly, concepts such as socialization, social learning and personality are applied to the settings of initiation periods which are often described and analysed from an anthropological point of view. Therefore, considering the theory used to create a theoretical framework for this study, the critical remark can be made that, as pointed out by Turner (1987), the characteristic liminality of initiation periods has been more or less neglected. In this approach, 'liminality' is defined as the formative effect of being in places 'betwixt and between', the intended effect being a change from civilian to soldier. Moreover, the focus of this study lies firmly on the effects of the CCIP and disregards the socialization effects of the period that comes afterwards and probably also fosters organizational socialization, although in a less formal and organized (not to say institutional) way.

From this more anthropological point of view the complete four year period of education at the KMA can be considered a period of liminality between civilian and military officer. Moreover, regarding the possible impact of socialization effects that have been more organically achieved (i.e. without formal introduction), the CCIP as a swift socialization period might even be considered obsolete. Especially when bearing in mind the reports

about incidents and accidents, the CCIP might have even been considered an episode of hazing that was structurally unsafe for the participants. Although both arguments might lead to the conclusion that there is no purpose in preserving the CCIP as a rite of passage, this study shows, at least partly, that the CCIP provides possibilities to foster exemplary behaviour, both in new and senior cadets.

As pointed out before, modern-day educational characteristics at the Military Academy no longer totally fit the 'total institution'. Still, the institution should provide a sense of home for the new recruits and a safe place for them to develop into officers. Being able to maintain connections with 'the outside world' in a somewhat less restrictive environment makes it less urgent for new recruits to adapt to the institutional values and easier to maintain a sense of personal identity. Creating a new balance between giving up one's own identity and adapting to the group identity may still require a period of transition, but this study shows that the 'old' CCIP did not meet fulfil that task anymore. Nevertheless, the CCIP as a transition might also put an end to a period of liminality. After the CCIP the new recruits 'really' joined the Armed Forces and should recognize how their personal values and virtues are reflected in the values of their new organization. Thereafter, a new period of liminality can begin, the transition from recruit to officer.

A second critical remark concerns mortification of the self, and more specific, adherence to the organizational ethos. It is only recently that individualistic behaviour has been acknowledged as an expression of group norms. The social identity perspective, with its emphasis on conformity and assimilation to group norms, has traditionally been seen as a description of the collectivistic moral and group behaviour. 'This view of the social identity perspective, however, overlooks the reality that many groups are characterized by norms of individualism' (Hornsey & Jetten, 2004, p. 255). Hence a paradoxical situation develops in which conformity to group norms, becomes equal to adherence to individual norms and consequently individualistic behaviour.

However, military organizations, and the Cadet Corps in particular, still highly value group loyalty and group bonding. Conformity to group norms and organizational values is inherent in attaining an occupation within the military, in essence because being a soldier implies using force in the name of politics, which consequently means that individual opinions are not relevant at certain moments. On the other hand, if the goal of the organization is to develop morally responsible transformational leaders, critical thinking is an important ability. Whilst trying to attain the different goals of military socialization, the resulting paradox may be that people are focussing on achieving goals without critically reviewing the way in which goals are achieved or questioning the 'why' of these goals.

Thirdly, this paradox is also present in the translation of theory to measurement. Conceptual ambiguity applies to many of the measures of concepts used in this study. Many variables (dependent and independent) consist of subscales, which might blur the view on the actual concept at hand. For instance, moral competence consists of six subscales, all leadership scales have subscales and even the need to belong is not one specific concept.

Although conceptual vagueness might reflect reality to a certain extent as many concepts have a number of manifestations, and although dividing broader concepts such as transformational leadership in building blocks of more specific behaviour is quite common in psychological research, it is also important to take notion of the sound empirical testing of psychometric qualities that lies at the fundamentals of these scales (see Appendix B).

Another important issue that needs to be addressed concerns the relation between surveys and behaviour. Almost all quantitative data (except, for example, organizational knowledge and Cadet Corps' ethos) retrieved from the respondents consists of scales that relate to a certain extent to behaviour (i.e. leadership, hardiness, cohesion, moral competence). However, answers on paper and pencilled-in questions do not guarantee that new recruits actually do what they purport to do and thus participants more or less report their intentions rather than their actual behaviour (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). For instance, adherence to ethos is not directly related to moral competence. Although awareness of and adherence to personal values and virtues (e.g. which virtues are important to me?) suggest a rather close connection, it must be recognized here that there might be a discrepancy between the opinion and overt action.

Moreover, considering the differences in scores on the subscales of moral competence (e.g. awareness scores higher than actual moral action), results indicate that the participants are able to assess to what extent certain behavioural indicators (i.e. the items of the moral competence subscales) apply to them in practice. Still, these self-reported results also confirm that cadets find it more difficult to act in a morally responsible way than to identify that moral action is required. However, even if the respondents answer according to a socially desirable pattern, or when they intentionally distort their self-reported attitudes, at least the measurements mirror the respondents' representation of self (Thurstone, 1928). Especially for concepts such as integrity and moral competence there might exist a firm gap between the cadet's intention to do the right thing and the cadet's actual behaviour in practice. If attitude and behaviour differ quite largely, it could be that cognitive dissonance exists in the mind of the cadet. Therefore, in the end, this state of mind might result in such a discrepancy between attitude and action that the cadet feels uncomfortable with him or herself. So, although there are considerable methodological challenges, the items obtained are nonetheless a measure of intentions, at least, and it is suggested that intentions predict behaviour (Eccles et al., 2006; Webb & Sheeran, 2006). Prediction will be especially strong when subjects use moral connotations for their behavioural intentions (Godin et al., 2005). There is, in practice, no reason to expect that cadets will lie about their opinion or attitude towards certain personal traits or adherence to values other than their personal wish to improve or perform better in a second test.

As regards the role of personality in the socialization process there are also some critical remarks to make. Often the optimum regarding the various concepts measured as antecedent or outcome variable lies in the middle. Too little neuroticism for instance would result in reckless and thrill-seeking (hence irresponsible) behaviour whereas too

much neuroticism in newcomers would obviously lead to an inability to keep a clear mind under pressure. As such, too much hardiness would probably result in the onset of moral disengagement or moral numbness, whereas too little hardiness might not help newcomers to deal with the daily hassles, or worse, the ability to deal with combat situations. The same goes for cohesion, of which too much might result in group think and the inability to think independently and critically, whereas too little does not help in building trust in each other or even might induce alienation of individual newcomers during the sometimes hardy times of the officer education.

Furthermore, a question that rises considering personality traits is, whether these personality traits are worth looking into when analyzing officer socialization effects. Especially when bearing in mind that newcomers starting their education at the KMA are already scrutinized according to a 'military officer profile', the sample might be too homogeneous to draw specific conclusions about the predictive value of various personality traits. It might be that selection bias, or even anticipated socialization (Lammers, 1963; Lee et al., 1992) results in newcomers attaining a generally lower score on neuroticism and a generally higher score on extraversion and openness to experience. Some kind of 'healthy soldiers effect' (McLaughlin, Nielsen, & Waller, 2008) may apply to the results of this study regarding the influence of personality traits.

Altogether the critical remarks on the theoretical framework show that the subject of study, the CCIP and its effects, is hard to determine in a single unambiguous way. Separate examination of the various concepts at hand should provide clarification of various relations. However, it seems that the only way to understand this specific officer socialization period completely is to grasp it as a whole. To study the CCIP in this broad scope, a participative action research strategy was chosen, of which the strengths and limitations will be discussed in the next section.

### **8.2.2 Methodological strengths and limitations**

Participatory action research is often used with the purpose of stimulating learning experiences or foster organizational change. Therefore, considering the aims of this study, it seems that the strengths of participatory action research (i.e. combining theoretical insights and empirical efforts with observations and interventions leading to robust applications and change in practice that directly respond to the need of participating stakeholders (Brydon-Miller et al., 2003)) are most appropriate. In the next section will be a discussion of the methodological limitations in this study concerning data-triangulation and questionnaires, the (attrition of) participant samples and the issues concerning the choice of interventions.

### 8.2.2.1 Triangulation and questionnaires

This study combined quantitative data analysis with qualitative analysis which consists of observations and interviews, hence providing the possibility for the triangulation of results which is common in participatory action research (Creswell, 2009).

As regards the quantitative data, it is important to note that all data concern self-report measures. Questionnaires are typically self-administered and therefore subjective in nature. Generally, questionnaires are used to obtain answers from a sample that can be transformed into variable labels and statistically analysed. In turn, owing to the nature of SPSS analysis (i.e. between and within -group comparisons of means), results can be generalized to cover a wider population. The use of questionnaires to collect statistics has been criticized, because they often lack the ability to examine the complexity of the social issues being addressed. Moreover, for some of the variables this study used the same questionnaires at organizational entry, before and after the CCIP, which results in the risk of mono-method bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) and test-retest bias (Bryman, 2012) as discussed in Chapter 3 (Section 3.4 and 3.5).

Two variables deserve special attention concerning limitations of this study. First, as regards the reliability of the Cadet Corps' ethos there might exist limitations on the interpretation of the results presented in this study. The measure consists of 10 virtues that are identified out of a list of 40 items and prioritized from 1 to 10 with 10 being the virtue that is considered the most important to the respondent. Although this kind of measure allows the greatest possibility of free choice for the respondent, there is no statistical way to establish the reliability of the Cadet Corps' ethos scale. Although double testing (two list of 40 from a different point of view filled in by the same respondent) provided a rather moderate to fair correlation, the actual reliability of the scale is at least in dispute. Nevertheless, the separate virtues that are represented within the Cadet Corps' ethos do reflect the values and virtues of the Cadet Corps. Therefore, the analyses of the means and ranking of those virtues provide an interesting view on the sets of virtues present amongst new recruits and how their perceptions change after their military socialization. Moreover, despite the problems of establishing a firm measure of reliability, using the method of free choice and ranking for Cadet Corps' ethos, in contrast to a 5 or 7- point scale, prevented the results from being biased to a socially desirable 'all equally important' conclusion which is generally found in research on the attributed importance to organizational values (Van Schilt, 2011).

Second, this research uses the self-developed mental hardiness scale as outcome variable because the content of that scale appeals more to members of the armed forces of the Netherlands. For generalization purposes it might have been sensible to use the Dispositional Resilience Scale (Hystad et al., 2010) but the scale used in this study appealed more to the concept of mental hardiness in the minds of Dutch officer cadets. Moreover, in the questionnaire for the 2012 sample, the DRS was included and correlations between

the DRS and the hardiness scale were sufficient to trust that the concept of hardiness was measured to satisfaction.

### 8.2.2.2 Participants

The foremost limitation concerning the participating respondents is that this study lacks a control group in order to compare the effects of the CCIP in relation to groups that did not experience a military socialization period or, for instance, another socialization period, such as the one experienced by university students who join a fraternity. Despite ample attempts to include, for instance, a control group of civil students, the return rate of questionnaires was too low to use in analysis. Nevertheless, measurements made at three moments in time, plus the cross-sectional data combined with the qualitative part of the research, should minimize the negative effects of mono-method bias and provide valuable information to further improve and investigate swift socialization attempts in the future.

Another aspect to be addressed concerns the attrition of respondents. Although the longitudinal quasi experimental design (Shadish et al., 2002) is one of the strengths of this study, unfortunately, not all participants took part in all three moments of measurement. There are numerous reasons for this attrition, not the least owing to bad timing of the researcher, but mainly because of practical circumstances for the cadets and choices of their commanding officers.

A third issue concerns the cross-sectional analysis which provides the possibility of comparing results across educational years. However, to compare cross-sectional results, the short model (non-bachelor) has been excluded because there are no second, third and fourth year cadets present in non-bachelor education. The consequence for this analysis, already consisting of relatively small samples, was the very small sample size, especially in 2012. Comparison of means with such small sample sizes should be regarded with some caution. However, high attrition rates are not uncommon in longitudinal research and the remaining group of participants still seems to be a good representation of the officer cadets' population. After all, comparisons of demographical data and the means of effect variables do not differ between respondents included in different parts of the study and respondents who dropped out.

A final issue regarding the participants concerns the targeted groups of cadets for intervention. The researcher, being the mentor of the group, primarily focused on the coordination commission and secondarily on the group of senior cadets involved in executing the CCIP (the coordinators). As the first group is rather small, effects in 2013 were probably influenced by the inability to influence the majority of senior cadets who, in essence, carried out the CCIP according to their own experience. Only from 2013 onwards did the new approach find support amongst a larger part of the senior cadets. The last CCIP, which introduced the CCIP workshop for senior cadets and the elimination of the mutant

platoon, showed that more senior cadets felt responsible for their newly arrived colleagues. A third (2014) and fourth (2015) quantitative survey would therefore have provided a better analysis of the development of the CCIP as a swift socialization effort. On the other hand, the strategy of incremental change of beliefs and social relationships, consistent with the 'O'-theory (Huy, 2001) starting with a small group of change agents (i.e. the coordination commission), is one that proved to be successful.

Taking the targeted audience of socialization into consideration, the new recruits, there is another aspect to address. The selected young people who desire to become officers are characterized as being highly motivated to perform well. Moreover, in the first weeks of their education they are presented with ample tasks in which they have to take a certain degree of responsibility. Hence, it may well be that these young people are developing a sense of responsibility regarding leadership and ethical behaviour by choice, because they wanted to enter the profession of officer in the armed forces. Results indicating developments regarding leadership and responsible behaviour therefore might also reflect a general development instead of a specific effect after the first weeks of education, not to say an effect of the CCIP.

### 8.2.2.3 *Method of intervention*

In addition, the method of intervention has to be discussed. The value of the Socratic dialogue as an intervention method seems to be very relevant. The Socratic approach is a method of helping cadets (and probably various others) to think critically about their actions, and especially about the effects they were attempting to produce. Questioning how they use their authority as senior cadets and as members of the coordination commission aims to release the cadets from historically undisputed structures and procedures. Although cadets tend to think otherwise, there is no absolute truth. To understand that the way they experienced their personal CCIP as a recruit is not per se the best way, is a real eye-opener for some recruits. That they can have an influence on and can admit to influencing the way the CCIP is executed is, at first, beyond their imagination. Like many others, and for the cadets in a rather institutionalized setting, it seems that not thinking critically in an institutionalized setting gives pleasure as it eases the adjustment to the newly entered world.

Moreover, mention the term Socratic Dialogue and the willingness of cadets to participate in a conversation drops immediately. The cadets participating in the COCOM are primarily interested in carrying out their tasks as quickly and effectively as possible. They are responsible for the programme, but tend to copy the programme of their predecessors because that 'worked fine' when they were new recruits themselves. Moreover, it is easier to execute existing plans than to generate new ones, because that takes a lot of thought, planning and time. However, the possibilities are endless if the right questions are asked and if cadets break free from their thought patterns and are allowed to express reasonable doubt about current standings and procedures.



To increase the enthusiasm of the COCOM to participate in Socratic dialogues, the mentor ‘twisted’ the practical application to some extent. When making plans for military operations, officers have to ask what effects must be achieved. The intention of the mentor was to make the cadets think about the effects they were supposed to produce and the behaviour they used to achieve those effects. He did not want to impose or suggest any changes himself, because he deemed it more likely that changes would be more sustainable when cadets created new ideas themselves. Asking the ‘why question’ in a Socratic way is a powerful tool to make the cadets think about their goals and the assumptions underlying those goals. Yet when reviewed critically the genuine method of the Socratic dialogue might have been violated to some extent. In essence, the Socratic dialogue attempts to find an answer to one central question and the process in getting there might take several hours, or even days. The way the Socratic dialogue was used in this study was more fragmented and mostly within rather short timeframes.

Another point of attention is that some of the questions asked by the researcher were perhaps quite ‘leading’. Following the Socratic method, leading questions should preferably be avoided. However, according to the description of action research (Reason & Bradbury, 2001) the input of the researcher is part of the research process and it may be accepted that participation in the process affects the outcomes. In spite of this limitation it should be acknowledged that the researcher, besides asking questions, did not make any decision about the programme and the actions of the coordination commission.

### **8.3 Discussion, practical implications and directions for future research**

All limitations and critical remarks notwithstanding, the main findings of this study contribute to the academic field in quite a few ways. This section sets out to critically reflect on the main findings in order to lead to practical implications and possible directions for future research.

#### **8.3.1 Reflection on socialization effects**

Although the CCIP aimed for a change in cohesion and hardiness, results show that a contribution to hardiness and cohesion is modest to non-existent. Hardiness seems to be a fairly stable personality trait over the three moments of measurement. However, numerous ideas persist about the positive value of initiation. For instance, that rites of passage that establish a bond between new and senior members and even a sense of ‘eliteness’ are not harmful and could enhance organizational loyalty, ‘which is essential for warriors’ (Wilcox, 1997, p. 3). Or even that ‘hazing comes from a good place’ (Brooks, 2014), to challenge new recruits and encourage them to find their mental and physical limitations so they can learn,



improve and earn membership. And moreover, that the military initiation fosters mental hardiness and social cohesion is a commonly held view among organizational (military) members, but this view is inconsistent with theory (Van Drie, 2010) and the results of this study.

As mentioned, the essence of the interventions that resulted in the new CCIP is that new activities have a learning purpose. New recruits learn the most when given the right example (Bandura, 1977, 2002; Schubert & Cordes, 2013), which is consistent with socialization and social learning theory. They look at instructors and senior cadets as role models and copy that behaviour. New cadets should be stimulated to act and to take the initiative instead of being made to feel inferior and hoping to go through initiation without people noticing them. Yelling at new recruits only increases their anxiety and their desire to extricate themselves from the undesired situation as quickly as possible without any attention to what behaviour is expected of them. If senior cadets show exemplary behaviour, they will act as role models and thereby influence perception of the Cadet Corps and of officer attitude and behaviour.

The enhanced scores on idealized influence as a factor of transformational leadership indicate that the new CCIP does foster these kinds of leadership qualities. However, new recruits did not actually lead their own team and one might argue that the results are merely a report of the perceived or desired way to lead. Taking the view that a change in perception of leadership is not the same as the development of leadership behaviour means that new recruits have to start by developing an idea of how to be a leader. A good start would be to develop a personal image as an inspiring leader as regards attitude and behaviour, particularly if this image is in sync with other socialization events (e.g. the MIP) and not contrary to it, as was the case in the old CCIP approach, which produced inconsistent views on leadership behaviour among new recruits.

Considering the lack of effect on moral competence, most theory indicates that it takes more time (than several days) to improve moral competence (Kohlberg, 1981; Rest, 1986). Having said that, when cadets contemplated Cadet Corps' values rather than just reciting them, it did account for higher scores on Cadet Corps' ethos. So, even after being briefly exposed to discussions on values (Mayhew et al., 2012) there appeared to be mild effects on the appreciation of specific values consistent with the organizational ethos. However, adherence to ethos does not directly imply a growth or stimulation of moral competence. In fact, most cadets do not explicitly state that they have changed their opinion about values that are important for them at least not knowingly. On the other hand, discussion about values and choosing some values that are consistent with the ones of the Cadet Corps might indicate that new recruits are somewhat more aware (1) of their personal values, and (2) even gained insight into the difference between their own values and those of their new organization. Furthermore, they were put into situations where they were expected to communicate (3) about those values and eventually had to decide (4) how they should act. A lot of new recruits do state that they became more aware of the importance of exemplary

behaviour and initiative. In fact, exemplary behaviour and the will to take charge are often mentioned as gains from the new CCIP approach.

With some latitude, therefore, the first four elements (i.e. awareness, identification, communication and judgment) of moral competence (Wortel & Bosch, 2011) are acknowledged above, and a tentative case can be made that activities in the CCIP might enhance these elements. However, actually acting morally responsible and taking responsibility for personal choices and actions is rather difficult to facilitate and train. It is an assumption, but not a guarantee, that by stimulating the first four elements, the latter two (i.e. moral action and taking responsibility) will grow. Even so, the self-report method of the separate aspects of moral competence does not provide a solid guarantee that people will behave morally. Yet, in practice and not as an outcome of the socialization of the newcomers but as a development of the senior cadets, the fact that members of the COCOM and senior cadets discussed new possibilities and had the intention to improve is, in itself, consistent with elements of moral action (Werdelis, 2008). After all, serious doubt about one's actions should in the end be followed by decisions and action in order to actually achieve something.

Yet, although mildly positive about a possible onset to the development of moral competence and even a cautious optimism about the enlarged adherence to Cadet Corps' values, actual morally responsible behaviour would require practice and should rise above the inward-looking focus of the Cadet Corps' ethos. The focus of cadets on their specific values and virtues might bring with it the risk that appropriate behaviour only emerges when present in the Cadet Corps' society and within the 'walls of the institution'. Like inmates of a prison who behave according to the rules because they are continuously controlled and monitored, the behaviour of cadets outside the walls, without social control, is not guaranteed in accordance with the Cadet Corps' ethos.

Then again, the Cadet Corps attempts to contribute to the education of Dutch military officers. It is an education that, as a whole, dedicates much time to the political and public awareness of its students. Actual behaviour is not always consistent with intended behaviour, and the public role and corresponding moral responsibility of an officer-to-be in any possible context is only mentioned in passing during the CCIP. However, the responsibility for and the importance of exemplary behaviour - even more so outside the walls of the institution - is mentioned rather often during the education of the cadets. Applying some of the following practical implications to further the improvement of the CCIP could enhance the 'inward looking and outward oriented example behaviour' amongst future officers from the start of their educational journey.

### 8.3.2 Practical implications

Despite limitations and considerations, this study reveals that swift socialization can, to some extent, be effective when organized properly. This study offers practical implications

for the Cadet Corps' introduction period at the KMA which may well be generalized to other military (officer) socialization efforts. Moreover these implications probably also apply to student fraternities, because in the light of societal developments they also have to reconsider how they practise their initiation rituals. Furthermore the implications of this study may even prove worthy for the formation of ad hoc military units for specific missions.

First, this research points out that it is possible to intervene in institutionalized procedures that are encrusted in the roots and history of an organization. By supporting the ability to think critically, people in charge are able to break through a seemingly deadlocked situation. The Socratic Dialogue combined with military technical language proved to be an outstanding method of fostering critical thinking amongst aspirant officers. The notion that there is a choice, that options are open and the awareness that personal action is the only way to change the status quo, contributes to improvement and optimization of, in this case, the CCIP.

Another practical implication concerns the sense of responsibility of the cadets. New recruits enter the military academy with the notion that they will have to take responsibility and that they will learn to be a leader. However, the institutionalized setting (i.e. the 2012 approach) discourages initiative and the will to take responsibility. In other words, new recruits quickly learn to behave as uncritical followers. This is the opposite of what the Military Academy wishes to achieve: the thinking soldier. Redefining the approach of the military socialization should therefore always be an attempt to foster behaviour that is wished for amongst new recruits even whilst providing harsh circumstances.

Considering the development of critical thinking within the coordination commission, it seems that the cadets who were stimulated to think about the effects of their actions were able to reflect and even switch between behavioural alternatives. However, the question might arise whether change from the inside would also have emerged when there was no external stimulus (i.e. press reporting incidents, or a researcher asking questions). Spontaneous change is scarce, and this study does not claim to have proven change emerging from within without any reason.

However, with the Socratic dialogue as a tool and high awareness of the effects of action research, this study does indicate that there was a latent need for change amongst the cadets. They just needed a little help to identify the direction. Moreover, the conversations with various cadets pointed out that although many of them prefer an easy way to work out standard programmes, they understood that no CCIP would be the same from now on, because no socialization process can be predicted. The practical implication for the execution of the CCIP this insight entails is that the role of (to a certain extent) experienced senior cadets is crucial in this process. They are the ones who should provide the right example, who can disentangle the paradox of officer socialization by means of their respectful and exemplary conduct.

Although it is far from simple, this study showed that the way officer socialization is organized can make a difference in the contribution to the balance between individuality

and adaptation to organizational identity. If a balance between personal and organizational identity (i.e. a certain match in values and virtues) is accomplished, one of the main theoretical and practical limitations of this study would be countered. After all, adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos, which is one of the goals of the CCIP, has a firm inward-looking focus and all other possible outcomes appear closely connected and entwined with the method of socialization. If adherence to the ethos of the Cadet Corps is closely related to the personal values and virtues of the aspirant officers, the orientation of morally responsible behaviour might reach beyond the walls of the institution. If new recruits can be stimulated to act responsibly within the Cadet Corps because of their personal ethos, that in itself might stimulate responsible behaviour in general (i.e. also beyond the military context).

If cadets are able to develop intrinsic responsible behaviour they are likely to continue without external supervision and grow permanent critical thinking and responsibility. Although this seemed to have worked for the coordination commission, there is no doubt that this process will need attention in the future, firstly and most importantly because new recruits enter every year and secondly because senior cadets find it hard to teach this kind of exemplary behaviour (i.e. asking critical questions) to each other.

Other practical implications concern the selection process. Although the effect of selection was not within the scope of the research question, the investigation of the role of personality traits might have firm implications for the selection department. Military socialization is about dealing with uncertainties and adjusting despite the uncertainty. Results indicated that newcomers whose personality tended to be more neurotic, who had a great need to belong, who had a personal need for structure and who spent a great deal of time searching for information (thereby attempting to reduce their uncertainty) adapted less to Cadet Corps' values, were less enthusiast about the Cadet Corps and, to a greater extent, had a disposition towards transactional leadership.

These findings lead to the conclusion that newcomers with less need for structure and less need to reduce their anxiety are more likely to adapt successfully. For military socialization therefore, other 'rules' or models appear to apply than for general organizational socialization. Although the transactional part of leadership should not be underestimated, the vision of the Netherlands' Armed Forces on leadership suggests that the inspiring part of transformational leadership and the ability to adapt to different situations will, to a greater extent, be important for future leaders in the Netherlands Armed Forces.

Another practical implication concerning personality traits is related to achievement motivation. As achievement motivation has, to some extent, a disadvantageous effect on moral competence, or at least on moral awareness, it might be reconsidered as a selection criterion. The optimum achievement motivation should be not too high, but also not too low. Furthermore, it might be more relevant for selection purposes to assess the proactive information-seeking behaviour before organizational entry in order to form a better idea of the applicants' mental stability, their openness to experience and their ability to deal with unexpected situations; this would be in contrast to the current objective (i.e. to assess

knowledge about the new organization). The results suggest that, when selecting officer cadets, openness to experience is an important trait to assess; this is because in the light of its positive effects on enthusiasm for the new environment, it is probably beneficial to all military personnel - and especially to officers- as openness to experience predicts an increased predisposition towards transformational leadership.

From a broad perspective, the last implication of this study concerns the formation of ad hoc military units. Military units for specific missions are increasingly being formed on an ad hoc basis and individual missions are no exception for junior officers, which means that the ability to 'become socialized', and perhaps even to socialize new members of the team they are in charge of, ought to be considered an important skill. Although initial socialization such as takes place in the MIP and the CCIP cannot necessarily be compared with the specific tasks of a group, in which individuals have to participate in a specific mission, the ability to adapt and to adjust to certain mores of the new organization seems to be, to some extent, a function of personality.

The sword might even be double edged: personality predicts whether people are susceptible to socialization (i.e. are able to adapt) and moreover, certain traits that are dispositions to adaptability might encourage or endorse swift socialization (i.e. a desire to belong). Furthermore, and as final practical implication and beneficial effect of this study, showing future officers the right example of socializing new organizational members in the early process of their vocational journey will provide them with knowledge and experience of which they will benefit for the rest of their careers when they will be responsible for the formation and socialization of new teams.

### **8.3.3 Directions for future research**

Military socialization might be something different than general organizational socialization. However, owing to the small sample size it is difficult to really generalize about the results of this study. This is why further research should replicate and combine the antecedents of personality in a specific military setting in order to consolidate or refute the findings of this study. Moreover, a wide variety of concepts was measured and, to counter the limitations of the holistic approach, future research could focus more firmly on isolated interventions and specific outcome variables to identify what works best.

Furthermore, to ensure that the effects found in this study are not to be attributed to the effect of the guidance of the mentor of the coordination commission, or a more competent coordination commission, or a better Cadet Corps' Senate, a replication of this study would be necessary. In addition, future researchers could try to attain a control group design by organizing the CCIP for only some of the newcomers in order to investigate the actual difference in its effect on both groups.

The effects of the Socratic approach as intervention and the effects on exemplary behaviour of both senior cadets and newcomers could be a future line of research in military officer education. To what extent does a cadet learn to make up his or her mind, to think independently, or to choose which course to follow? Given the uncertainty of their situation, what do cadets need in order to act responsibly? Leaning on the social learning perspectives of Bandura, this study proves that providing cadets with the example of Socratic questioning in a military context helps to create critical thinking. Although the analyses of interviews, meetings and dialogues may reveal that the central question generally was: what is the purpose of the CCIP? This question was never stated explicitly. Rather, the questions asked appealed more to specific problems at hand but always referred to 'Why are we doing this?' and 'What are the effects we want to achieve?' Furthermore, although this study proved positive changes and developments, there is still room for improvement. The persisting sense that there is a difference between CCIP behaviour and normal behaviour is a contradiction that needs to be reduced to a minimum. Exemplary behaviour during the CCIP should display the behaviour that is actually expected from all cadets, and especially the new recruits. What is more, many respondents indicate that the CCIP is a start, but the actual test of conduct would be in the weeks and months afterwards, which is when people have to choose for themselves how they behave and act. Hence, more participative action research after initial socialization might be needed to extend the idea of continuous improvement.

Future research could also focus more on the effects military socialization has on the actual increase (or decrease) of moral competence. As there is an indisputable rise in the importance of moral responsibility, especially for future military officers, socialization should foster moral competence or moral responsibility. However, moral competence requires practice and change in this quality should therefore best be measured with observations of actual behaviour. Self-reported questionnaires are not sufficient to provide clear-cut evidence on the topic of moral development. Although in this participative research some observations and interviews might provide indications for changes in moral competence, no definite conclusions can be drawn.

Moreover, the cross-sectional comparison shows that the intention to actively act when moral issues are at stake is lower for more senior cadets; this almost rules out the hypothesis that moral competence is a natural process of maturation. On the other hand, it might be that cadets in the more senior group have developed higher standards and can reflect more critically on their own behaviour, thus attributing a lower score to their intention to act in a morally responsible way. Therefore, a research design that includes structural observations of actual behaviour at more than two moments in time, within and across different educational years of cadets, would contribute to the effort of investigating the growth in morally responsible behaviour of cadets.

Future research could also be directed somewhat more to the role of personality with regard to socialization effects. Especially when newcomers are recruited and selected intensively, it could be that there is a discrepancy between what people think they should

know about their new environment and what they actually have to know. Individual thoughts resulting from information seeking may not be consistent with socialization purposes (e.g. based on movies, one might think that leadership in the armed forces is very autocratic, whereas in practice that is not always true). Questions such as ‘Do people who strongly orientate towards their new environment adapt more easily?’, ‘Does orientation behaviour lead to a wrong predisposition?’ or perhaps ‘Is there no need for high information seekers to change because they already know what is expected of them?’ may be considered in future research.

Furthermore, unlike other research, this study found no proof that information-seeking predicts socialization effects. However, information-seeking, neuroticism and a personal need for structure are correlated. Moreover, neuroticism proved to be a predicting trait for the change in enthusiasm, leadership and hardiness. Bearing in mind that the selection department sorts out the high neuroticism category to a certain extent, and that adaptivity is of growing importance in leadership development in KMA officer education, these findings suggest that selection ratios for neuroticism should be critically reviewed in future research.

In total, the effects of the CCIP are probably of limited importance to overall educational interests at the KMA. The scope of this research primarily was the effects of the CCIP on the new recruits, but eventually the fourth year cadets, on the verge of becoming junior officers should invigorate their sense of responsibility. This gives all the more reason to focus on the role of fourth year cadets at the KMA. One final and very practical recommendation would therefore be to increase the moral competence and responsibility of fourth year cadets so they can act as role models for the first and second year cadets. When the fourth year cadets enter their graduation period they have ‘all the freedom they can get’. Perhaps combining this freedom with more responsibility, rather than just finishing their educational programme (e.g. writing their academic master thesis), might be beneficial to their perception of specific leadership elements such as ethical guidance and individual consideration. To be very specific, it might be an interesting idea to make fourth year cadets responsible for first year cadets during their initial entry to the organization for a longer period of time than just a few weeks. This would have implications for the academic (bachelor study) trajectory, but, after all, the recruits are future officers and it is reasonable to expect them to perform at their best on different plateaus of military officer education at the same time.

#### 8.3.4 In closing

Senior officers, when approached to reflect critically on the CCIP, often state ‘we have learned something, haven’t we? For instance, that the world is not honest or anything like that...’. The enshrined and persistent opinion among senior officers that the CCIP has been worthwhile may well be the reason why the CCIP still exists as an introduction period. The cognitive dissonance amongst these senior officers is plausible; all new recruits experience



the same harsh period and, later on, as senior cadets, they impose this harshness on their younger colleagues. How can a person explain that what they did (have experienced and imposed on others) was of no purpose at all? This, altogether, is a firm indication that the total institution, although in a mild variant, still exists. The results of this study show that the actual contribution the CCIP made to officer socialization is marginal. At the same time, results indicate that new recruits are more likely to adapt to the example behaviour they are presented with.

Therefore, the MIP and CCIP are specific periods of swift socialization that have the potential to be used as educational tools, not only for first year cadets but also for third and fourth year cadets. If new recruits are under the professional guidance of a military cadre, but altogether under the responsibility of senior cadets, these types of initiation and socialization periods can be fruitful learning possibilities. The ethical question of whether first year cadets ought to function as 'learning material' has to be addressed properly, but in the end will be assessed positively. A practical and rather 'out of the box' solution could be to reinvent the CCIP and make it last longer, for example four weeks, in which senior cadets are actually in charge of the military education of new recruits and in the meantime can also introduce them to the mores of the Cadet Corps.

With regard to the CCIP as swift socialization, it is fair to ask whether the CCIP actually is a socialization period. After all, results do not indicate any firm socialization effects. Although most of the characteristics of institutionalized socialization are met, the answer to this question is more likely to suggest that the CCIP, at least before 2013, is more related to hazing than to socialization. However, after the 2013 period, and especially looking at developments up to 2015 between the COCOM and other senior cadets, the socialization of new recruits is actually a common goal as opposed to 'fun for the senior cadets' which was, at least for some, an important guideline before 2013. Altogether, the contribution this study makes to the academic and practical debate is in the finding that the success of socialization lies in congruence between the goals of socialization and how these goals are achieved. For instance, if honesty is a targeted outcome, it is counter-effective if the 'socializator' behaves in a dishonest manner. If there is any discrepancy between the socialization goal and the means to achieve it, the effort will be ineffective. In practice this means that exemplary behaviour is of essential importance for senior cadets as well as for officers in general, because they are the role models of new recruits, but even more importantly, they will be each other's role model for an important part of the rest of their careers.

Finally, if anything, this research shows that socialization effects are very closely connected to the behaviour of the people in charge. In particular, when swift socialization periods are executed in an institutionalized way with formal guidance by senior members of the organization and a fixed programme, new members of the organization will mainly learn how to behave by looking at their guiding seniors. Congruence between how those senior members behave, and what they say to new organizational members about how they should behave, fosters acceptance and adherence to organizational mores. New (military)



recruits want to become an organizational member, or else they would not have applied in the first place. Although new recruits expect military life to be harsh, they also expect good examples and fairness. For that matter, as regards the responsible role of senior cadets in a military officer organization, the main and most practical advice is simply to remember: Officer and cadets, practise what you preach!

# Summaries, references and appendices



## Summary

### Introduction and problem statement (Chapter 1)

Most organizations have some sort of introduction programme or induction course to facilitate socialization of newcomers. Formal, fixed and collective socialization programmes fit the description of institutionalized socialization (Jones, 1986) of which military basic training is exemplary (Cable et al., 2013). Little is known about the details of officer initiation periods (Pershing, 2006) but yet they are often criticized (Dodge, 1991; Ramakers, 2003) and related to hazing (Bracknell, 2011; Brooks, 2014; McCoy, 1995). If anything, officer initiation activities are most of the time not identified as institutionalized socialization activities within officer education, but rather as tradition and initiation rites (Soeters et al., 2006; Winslow, 2004).

Although there is some academic research on military initiation (Pershing, 2006), most of the literature is found in specific military journals (Bracknell, 2011; Poelman & Schwerzel, 2013; Ramakers, 2003; Steuber, 1999) for the military in general, or for officers in particular. Although it might not have been described that way, institutional introduction or socialization seems to be one of the main goals of initiation rites in the military. However, the methods used to socialize and introduce the newcomers to the traditions and mores of the officers' corps have been criticized due to their harsh character. Moreover, perhaps owing to the institutional and somewhat quarantine-like setting within the walls of the Military Academy, few questions were asked. In former times the methods seemed somewhat more 'persuasive'. Nowadays, however, the necessity and effectiveness of adapting to those mores is one of the main arguments when discussing the reason for the existence of the introduction period at the KMA.

With the growing focus on and importance attached to the effectiveness of education and professional and morally responsible behaviour, especially for members of the armed forces (given their power to use deadly force), the purpose and effectiveness of the introduction in the officer corps is likewise of great importance. Although there are a few exceptions (Pershing, 2006; Poelman & Schwerzel, 2013), academic research on socialization effects by initiation is limited to student initiation at colleges and universities (Canepa, 2011; Waldron & Kowalski, 2009). Furthermore, hardly any of the literature has addressed changing initiation rituals, except for the drastic solution of prohibition (Bracknell, 2011).

This study therefore primarily examines the effects of the CCIP in terms of organizational socialization (Fang et al., 2011; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). The main goal and primary aim for this research is to establish a CCIP that is effective in achieving the goals consistent with officer attitude and behaviour development at the KMA. Taking into account that no process is infallible and that improvement is always possible, the second aim of this study is to analyse the effects of interventions made to improve the CCIP. Furthermore, this study looks

into the role of personality factors. A period of swift socialization (whether the process changes or not) will not be the only influential factor on the extent to which newcomers adapt to organizational mores. Personality might be an important factor too. The third aim of this study is therefore to explore which personality traits can be identified as antecedents for the effects of socialization efforts.

To achieve the aims of this study within the scope of organizational socialization and the role of personality, the central question of this study is: **What are the effects of interventions in the CCIP on the swift socialization of newcomers at the KMA and what role do personality traits play in that swift socialization?**

## History and Theory (Chapter 2)

The historical overview of the Cadet Corps and the introduction period shows that this period underwent changes several times. Most of the changes were accidental and were often imposed by higher management at the Military Academy, or by the Senate of the Cadet Corps. However, despite the growing diversity of aspirant members, the coordination commission (COCOM) and other senior cadets did not accept the urgency of the proposed changes (2005 and 2009 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, pp. 96-99 resp 99-101). Since 1995 the growing diversity of education offered by the KMA caused a huge variety of groups of new recruits. Although officers who started their careers in those days at the KMA would probably argue differently, it is remarkable that the programme and intentions of the coordination period have changed so little since 1993. Changes that occurred mostly involved capturing the programme in a more structurally documented way to ensure that each and every CCIP would be the same, whereas it would have seemed more likely that the CCIP would change accordingly, given the growing diversity of students and types of education. This makes it even more interesting to look at what the CCIP contributed with respect to the suggested goals and effects, especially in light of organizational socialization and military ethics

The CCIP, when regarded as a specific socialization tactic, can be described as an institutionalized socialization activity. It consists of a fixed period of limited time in a formal setting organized by senior cadets who attempt to impose the Cadet Corps' values on new recruits with the purpose of making them adapt and in the hope of kindling enthusiasm. Furthermore the CCIP strives to foster organizational knowledge (i.e. knowledge about the history of the KMA and the Cadet Corps), cohesion, leadership and hardiness.

Taking socialization effects into consideration, there is a large overlap between regular organizational socialization effects and military socialization effects. Gaining organizational knowledge, growing commitment to the organization and enlarging enthusiasm for the job and improved role clarity are common proximal effects. Cohesion in organizational socialization research is generally thought to be a distal effect which generates over time.

Developing swift trust and speedy bonding is essential as a proximal effect in the military, because military units are increasingly being deployed on an ad hoc basis and with tailor-made teams. Cohesion therefore is within the main scope of the CCIP and as such is considered to be a proximal effect. Socialization and hardiness are often associated in the literature on hazing. Given the specific circumstances of military life, hardiness is often studied as a specific trait of the military.

Leadership development is core business at the KMA. The perception of leadership by new recruits at military academies might therefore also be an important socialization effect. As the new recruits are confronted with their cadre first, and the senior cadets later, these two groups are role models that can exert great influence on the thoughts and behaviours of future leaders. The way both groups act as leaders is likely to influence the new recruits' perceived idea about how to be a leader. Although this does not immediately imply that their leadership behaviour will take shape accordingly, a person's state of mind is a first and important step preceding actual leadership action. In addition, Chapter 2 addresses the role of ethics in military socialization and social learning theory as scope for improving or optimizing the CCIP.

Ethics and socialization are connected by sheer definition. Ethics is concerned with values and norms and so is organizational socialization. Since morality concerns the values and norms of a specific group within a specific time, the connection is obvious. Although there is a vast body of research on military virtues and moral development (De Vries, 2013; Olsthoorn, 2011; Robinson et al., 2008; Van Baarda & Verweij, 2004), there is little research specifically addressing the effects of military socialization on ethical behaviour or moral development (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

Awareness of values and making virtues of them might foster morally sound leadership (Ciulla, 2005, 2012). However, morally responsible behaviour (i.e. doing the right thing) does not always imply effective leadership (i.e. getting the job done). Sometimes being ethical equals being effective but in a variety of circumstances, especially in military operations, choosing the right thing to do may come with moral dilemmas. Adherence to corporate values can help towards building the moral character of future military leaders.

The last part of Chapter 2 reflects on the role of personality factors related to organizational and military officer socialization. In general, next to the role of organizational efforts in socialization, theory provides ample evidence for the influence of personality factors on socialization effects. Much attention has been paid to the role of proactive information-seeking behaviour with regard to uncertainty reduction, and in relation to epistemic motivation or the personal need for structure. Furthermore, with regard to the five factor model, neuroticism seems to be related to uncertainty reduction and openness to experience is thought to be a concept well suited to investigate the relation with adherence to organizational values. Additionally, theory suggests that the need to belong and the will to

perform adequately might play an important role with regard to adherence to organizational norms and values.

### Research methods (Chapter 3)

In order to investigate the effectiveness of the CCIP, possible interventions and the role of personality traits, the sub-questions of this study are threefold:

- a. What are the effects of the CCIP before interventions?
- b. What are the effects of the CCIP after interventions?
- c. What is the difference in effects of the CCIP before and after interventions?
- d. To what extent do personality traits predict socialization of newcomers at the KMA?

After a sound assessment of the effects the CCIP had in 2012, the study will focus on possibilities for improvement. In the main, interventions are based on social learning theory, the Socratic approach, and theory of ethics education in the military. Several large and small interventions were made in advance to the 2013 introduction period and subsequent CCIPs. The extent to which newcomers adapt to their new situation obviously does not only depend on the effectiveness of the CCIP. Among other factors of influence, personality traits are of specific interest and may explain why some newcomers adapt more easily than others.

In essence this research is a case study (Bryman, 2012; Yin, 2003) with the CCIP as subject and central focal point. However, various research methods were used in order to grasp the complexity of the CCIP and the suggested effects. Therefore, this study is more a combination of a quasi-experimental design and a participant observation method than just participant observation with moderate-to-active participation (Spradley, 1980). As such, this study qualifies as action research (Brydon-Miller et al., 2003; Whyte et al., 1989) or participatory action research (Thiollent, 2011). With regard to this study, all relevant research approaches will be discussed in Chapter 3.

Participant observation and action research provide mainly qualitative data. One of the main challenges of qualitative research, especially participant observation and action research, is that it is hard to express what exactly is measured (Flick, 2009; Moore, 2014). Therefore, this study also used quantitative methods such as questionnaires.

The participants in this research are all cadets at the KMA. There are mainly two kinds of officer education in which they can participate. First, there is the academic (bachelor) education. It takes four years to graduate with a bachelor degree. Second, there is the shorter model, non-bachelor, in which it takes one and a half years to two years to graduate with an officer's certificate. They all have to take educational courses at the KMA and they all have to become a member of the Cadet Corps. To achieve the latter, they are subjected to the CCIP, a period of a week with a well-described programme.



In 2012 and 2013 the participants were asked to fill out questionnaires at T<sub>1</sub> (before organizational entry), at T<sub>2</sub> (just before the CCIP) and at T<sub>3</sub> (just after the CCIP). Although at T<sub>1</sub> respective 175 and 161 respondents were included, the number of cadets that participated at all three moments was 45 in 2012 and 77 in 2013. This data was analysed with a repeated measures ANOVA and provides insights in differences over time within the CCIP per year and in the difference between the 2012 and 2013 CCIP. Moreover, in 2013 at T<sub>3</sub> all cadets of senior educational years were asked to fill out the questionnaires which provided the possibility for a cross sectional analyses. Furthermore a number of cadets of various education years were interviewed about the purpose of the CCIP and their experiences. To achieve improvements in the CCIP various Socratic conversations were held with the COCOM of which notes were taken. During the CCIP the researcher made notes of observations and talked frequently with new recruits and senior cadets. For the analysis of the role of personality factors (Chapter 7), data was retrieved from the Defence Recruitment and Selection Department.

Quantitative results of the effects of the 2012 CCIP are presented in Chapter 4, qualitative results of the interventions between 2012 and 2013 are presented in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 presents the results of the 2013 CCIP and the comparison of the 2012 versus the 2013 CCIP to analyse the effects of the interventions. Furthermore Chapter 6 presents the quantitative results of the cross sectional analysis and the qualitative results of the interviews with cadets after the CCIP.

## Conclusions (Chapter 8)

Results of the studied sample for 2012 provide no evidence for the idea that the CCIP creates the effects suggested in the described goals. The CCIP in 2012 had a negative effect among new recruits on enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps. New recruits did gain knowledge about the Cadet Corps and their acquaintance with other cadets, especially senior cadets, did increase after the CCIP. The latter provides evidence for effects propounded by the cadets involved in organizing the CCIP. So, although the new recruits confirmed that they had learned a lot about the history and traditions of the Cadet Corps, and they got to know each other and, especially, senior members, the CCIP did not succeed in making the new potential members enthusiastic about their new society.

Although the conversations and dialogues seemed to be fruitful, real changes in the CCIP programme were few and far between. It was hard for the COCOM to implement drastic changes in the programme; they probably hesitated because they lacked confidence in the actual effects.

The Socratic approach proved to be an excellent way to discuss these doubts with the COCOM and resulted in two major changes. First, all behaviour of all senior cadets should be genuine, resulting in a different start and end of the CCIP. Second, the assignments during the CCIP should have a larger focus on the role and tasks of an officer and they should be

more challenging instead of denigrating or just for fun. Treatment of the bulls should be based on the values and virtues of the Cadet Corps, instead of making new recruits recite the values and then behaving in exactly the opposite way. Senior cadets became to see the importance of example behaviour.

After the 2013 corps introduction period, enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps increased significantly. This is an important result because it shows that the new approach, with more genuine behaviour and assignments, has a positive effect on the perception of newcomers about the possibilities of their new environment. Knowledge about the Cadet Corps and acquaintance with other cadets also increases significantly, thus, considering the main purpose of the CCIP, the new approach does not have negative side effects. However, unit cohesion and mental hardiness, all of which are supposed to be proximal effects of the introduction period, show no differences at all. Not even after the changes made with the new approach. Apparently, the CCIP has no effect on these concepts.

Taking leadership into consideration, the CCIP has almost no significant effects on transactional or transformational leadership. Results do indicate a development of idealized influence behaviour and inspirational motivation after the CCIP. This provides evidence for the effect of exemplary behaviour on the newcomers' thought on leadership development. Moreover, there seems to be support for the development of ethical leadership as ethical guidance is an important factor contributing to the increased ethical leadership at work after the coordination period.

Results prove marginally that the new CCIP improved adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos. The 2013 sample attributed more value to Cadet Corps' ethos after the CCIP than the one in 2012, which even decreased in attributed importance to Cadet Corps' ethos. Other socialization effects developed more or less the same for the 2012 and 2013 sample.

Reflecting on the role of personality factors with regard to the development of socialization outcomes results appear somewhat ambiguous. Results prove that personal need for structure is not beneficial to the development of enthusiasm for the Cadet Corps. Neuroticism is not beneficial to the development of organizational knowledge. No support was found for the prediction of improvement of cohesion by personality traits. The only factor of (negative) influence on the growth of cohesion is experience in military service, indicating that cadets with more experience are not likely to increase their sense of cohesion owing to the CCIP. Achievement motivation as personality trait is beneficial for the development of hardiness in contrast to neuroticism which does not help the growth of hardiness.

With regard to leadership development, different personality traits relate to different predispositions to leadership styles. Cadets high on neuroticism develop a larger predisposition to transactional leadership compared to their less neurotic colleagues. The development of a predisposition to transformational leadership seems to be effected by openness to experience. The need to belong seems to be negatively related to the development of a predisposition to ethical leadership. Cadets with lower need to belong are in turn likely to maintain a moral professional leadership attitude. With regard to moral



competence, cadets high on achievement motivation develop moral competence to a lesser extent compared to their colleagues that are low on achievement motivation. Highly extravert cadets develop moral competence to a greater extent.

The only factor of influence on stimulation of adherence to Cadet Corps' ethos seems to be the educational model. Bachelor students, who have in perspective that they will remain at the KMA for a longer period than their non-bachelor colleagues, appear to develop more adherence to the Cadet Corps' ethos. No support was found for the influence of personality traits in relation to the adherence to the Cadet Corps.

When the longitudinal and cross-sectional results are taken into consideration, it seems that the CCIP, even after interventions, has limited effects on socialization effects. Moreover, cross-sectional results indicate that some of the results fade away over time and are relatively low for fourth year cadets in particular. This is rather shocking, because these cadets are the ones who are closest to being actual leaders. This gives all the more reason to focus on the role of fourth year cadets at the KMA. One recommendation would be to increase the responsibility of fourth year cadets so they can act as a role model for the first and second year cadets. Perhaps combining their freedom in finishing their educational programme with more responsibility, might be beneficial to their perception of specific leadership elements such as ethical guidance and individual consideration. This would have implications for the academic (bachelor study) trajectory, but, after all, the recruits are future officers and it is reasonable to expect them to perform at their best on different plateaus of military officer education at the same time.

Therefore, the CCIP as specific period of swift socialization has the potential to be used as educational tool, not only for first year cadets but also for third and fourth year cadets. If they are under the professional guidance of a military cadre, but altogether under the responsibility of senior cadets, these types of initiation and socialization periods can be fruitful learning possibilities. The ethical question of whether first year cadets ought to function as 'learning material' has to be addressed properly, but in the end will be assessed positively. A practical solution could be to reinvent the CCIP and make it last longer, for example four weeks, in which senior cadets are actually in charge of the military education of new recruits and in the meantime can also introduce them to the mores of the Cadet Corps.

Finally, if anything, this research proves that socialization effects are very closely connected to the behaviour of the people in charge. In particular, when swift socialization periods are executed in an institutionalized way with formal guidance by senior members of the organization and a fixed programme, new members of the organization will mainly learn how to behave by looking at their guiding seniors. Congruence between how those senior members behave, and what they say to new organizational members about how they should behave, fosters acceptance and adherence to organizational mores. New (military) recruits want to become an organizational member, or else they would not have applied in the first place. Although new recruits expect military life to be harsh, they also expect good examples and fairness. For that matter, as regards the responsible role of senior cadets in

a military officer organization, the main and most practical advice is simply to remember:  
Officer and cadets, practise what you preach!

Officer, practise what you preach!

## Samenvatting [Summary in Dutch]

### Introductie en probleemstelling (Hoofdstuk 1)

De meeste organisaties hebben een vorm van introductieperiode om socialisatie van nieuw personeel te faciliteren. Formele, collectieve programma's met een vast schema passen in de beschrijving van geïnstitutionaliseerde socialisatie (Jones, 1986) waar militaire basistraining een voorbeeld van is (Cable et al., 2013). Over initiatieperiodes bij officieren (Pershing, 2006) zijn weinig details bekend maar ze worden vaak bekritiseerd (Dodge, 1991; Ramakers, 2003) en geassocieerd met ontgroening (Bracknell, 2011; Brooks, 2014; McCoy, 1995). In ieder geval worden deze periodes over het algemeen niet gezien als geïnstitutionaliseerde socialisatie, maar eerder als traditie en ontgroening (Soeters et al., 2006; Winslow, 2004).

Hoewel er enig wetenschappelijk onderzoek naar militaire initiatie is (Pershing, 2006), is de meeste literatuur te vinden in specifieke militaire tijdschriften (Bracknell, 2011; Poelman & Schwerzel, 2013; Ramakers, 2003; Steuber, 1999), voor militairen in het algemeen of voor officieren in het bijzonder. Institutionele socialisatie lijkt, al wordt het niet expliciet zo genoemd, een van de hoofddoelen van militaire initiatie. De methoden die gebruikt worden om nieuwkomers te introduceren in de mores en tradities van het officierskorps worden echter bekritiseerd vanwege het brute karakter. Vroeger waren de socialisatie methoden inderdaad meer 'overtuigend'. Wanneer tegenwoordig het bestaansrecht van de introductieperiode op de KMA wordt bediscussieerd, worden aanpassing aan de waarden en normen en de effectiviteit daarvan opgevoerd als argumenten voor de initiatieperiode.

Met de groeiende aandacht voor de effectiviteit van de opleiding en de professionele en morele verantwoordelijkheid, voor militairen in het bijzonder (gezien hun mogelijkheid om dodelijk geweld te mogen gebruiken), is aandacht voor het doel en de effectiviteit van de introductie in het officierskorps vanzelfsprekend van groot belang. Hoewel er enkele uitzonderingen zijn (Pershing, 2006; Poelman & Schwerzel, 2013), beperkt onderzoek naar socialisatie effecten door initiatie zich tot studentenontgroeningen op universiteiten (Canepa, 2011; Waldron & Kowalski, 2009). Bovendien adresseert vrijwel geen enkel onderzoek de verandering van initiatie rituelen, met uitzondering van drastische maatregelen zoals een verbod opleggen (Bracknell, 2011).

Deze studie onderzoekt daarom de effecten van de cadettencorps introductie tijd (Co-tijd) met concepten vanuit organisatie socialisatie (Fang et al., 2011; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Het hoofddoel van dit onderzoek is een Co-tijd te realiseren die doelen nastreeft en realiseert die overeenstemmen met de ontwikkeling van officiershouding en -gedrag op de Koninklijke Militaire Academie. Ieder proces bevat mogelijkheden tot verbetering, daarom is het tweede doel van dit onderzoek om de effecten van interventies ter verbetering van de Co-tijd te analyseren. Daarnaast wordt in deze studie de rol van persoonlijkheidsfactoren meegenomen. Een socialisatie periode zal (of het proces verandert of niet) niet de enige

factor van invloed zijn op de mate waarin nieuwkomers zich aanpassen aan de mores van de organisatie. Persoonlijkheid zou ook een rol kunnen spelen. Het derde doel van deze studie is daarom te onderzoeken welke persoonlijkheidsfactoren als voorspeller gezien kunnen worden voor de effecten van socialisatie perioden.

Om de doelen van deze studie te bereiken binnen het perspectief van organisatie socialisatie en persoonlijkheidsfactoren is de volgende onderzoeksvraag geformuleerd: **Wat zijn de effecten van interventies in de Co-tijd op de socialisatie van nieuwkomers op de KMA en wat is de rol van persoonlijkheidsfactoren in die socialisatie?**

## Historie en theorie (Hoofdstuk 2)

Het historisch overzicht van ontwikkelingen van de Co-tijd in het cadettencorps laat zien dat deze periode meerdere veranderingen kende. Veel van deze veranderingen waren incidenteel en meestal opgelegd door het hogere management van de KMA. Ondanks de groeiende diversiteit aan aspirant leden leek de coördinatiecommissie (COCOM) voorgestelde veranderingen niet altijd te onderschrijven (2005 and 2009 Cadettencorps, 1830-2015, pp. 96-99 resp 99-101). Sinds 1995 zorgde de grote diversiteit in opleidingsaanbod voor een grote diversiteit aan aspirant leden. Hoewel officieren die hun loopbaan in die dagen startten op de KMA dit zullen tegenspreken is het opmerkelijk dat het programma en de intenties van de Co-tijd zo weinig zijn veranderd sinds 1993. De veranderingen betroffen meestal het verankeren van het programma in een gestructureerd document om ervoor te zorgen dat de Co-tijd steeds hetzelfde werd uitgevoerd, terwijl het logischer zou lijken dat de Co-tijd meer zou veranderen, gezien de groeiende diversiteit aan nieuwkomers en opleidingsmogelijkheden. Dit maakt het al te meer interessant om te onderzoeken wat de Co-tijd bijdraagt aan de gestelde doelen, in het bijzonder in het licht van organisatie socialisatie en militaire ethiek.

De Co-tijd, gezien als socialisatie tactiek, kan omschreven worden als een geïnstitutionaliseerde socialisatie activiteit. De Co-tijd bestaat uit een vastgestelde tijdsperiode in een formele setting, georganiseerd door ouderejaars cadetten die de waarden en normen opleggen aan de nieuwkomers, met als doel hen te laten aanpassen en met de wens om hun enthousiasme voor het cadettencorps te vergroten. Daarnaast streeft de Co-tijd ernaar om de kennis van historie en tradities van de KMA en het cadettencorps aan te leren en het versterken van cohesie, leiderschap en mentale hardheid.

Militaire socialisatie en organisatie socialisatie hebben een aantal socialisatie effecten gemeenschappelijk. Het opdoen van kennis van de organisatie, versterken van betrokkenheid en vergroten van enthousiasme voor de taak en verduidelijking van de rol zijn gewoonlijk directe korte termijn effecten. Cohesie wordt eerder gezien als een effect dat langer nodig heeft om te ontwikkelen. Het snel ontwikkelen van vertrouwen en verbondenheid is voor militairen echter van groot belang omdat militairen steeds meer op ad-hoc basis worden ingezet in samengestelde teams. Cohesie versterken is daarom een belangrijk doel van de Co-

tijd en wordt gezien als direct effect. Gezien de specifieke omstandigheden van het militaire leven wordt mentale hardheid vaak als specifieke factor van militaire socialisatie gezien.

Leiderschapsontwikkeling is een kerntaak op de KMA. De perceptie van leiderschap door de nieuwe rekruten op militaire academies kan daarom ook een belangrijk socialisatie effect zijn. De nieuwkomers worden eerst geconfronteerd met hun opleidingskader en daarna met de ouderejaars. Deze twee groepen zijn de rolmodellen die grote invloed kunnen uitoefenen op de gedachten en het gedrag van de toekomstige leiders. De manier waarop beide groepen handelen als leidinggevende is dan ook waarschijnlijk van invloed op de wijze waarop de nieuwkomers over hun eigen manier van leiderschap denken. Hoewel dit niet direct betekent dat het leiderschapsgedrag van de nieuwkomers op die wijze vorm krijgt, zijn de gedachten die iemand heeft een eerste en belangrijke stap voorafgaand aan daadwerkelijk handelen als leider.

Aanvullend hierop gaat hoofdstuk 2 in op de rol van ethiek in militaire socialisatie en de theorie van sociaal leren als basis voor verbetering van de Co-tijd. Ethiek en socialisatie zijn per definitie met elkaar verbonden. Ethiek en socialisatie betreffen waarden en normen en omdat moraal de waarden en normen van een bepaalde groep in een bepaalde tijd behelst is de connectie overduidelijk. Hoewel er veel onderzoek naar militaire waarden en morele ontwikkeling bestaat (De Vries, 2013; Olsthoorn, 2011; Robinson et al., 2008; Van Baarda & Verweij, 2004), is er weinig onderzoek naar de effecten van militaire socialisatie op ethisch gedrag of morele ontwikkeling (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). Bewustzijn van waarden en er door oefening een deugd van maken zou moreel juist leiderschap kunnen versterken (Ciulla, 2005, 2012). Moreel verantwoord gedrag (i.e. het juiste doen) betekent niet altijd effectief leiderschap (i.e. het doel halen). Soms is ethisch handelen ook effectief maar in diverse omstandigheden, zeker in militaire operaties ontstaan er dilemma's als je het juiste wilt doen. Het aanhangen van organisatie waarden kan helpen bij het ontwikkelen van het morele karakter van toekomstige officieren.

Het laatste deel van hoofdstuk 2 gaat in op de rol van persoonlijkheidsfactoren in relatie tot (militaire) socialisatie. Over het algemeen beschrijven gedragswetenschappers, naast de rol van de organisatie, aanzienlijke ondersteuning voor de invloed van persoonlijkheidsfactoren in relatie tot effecten van socialisatie. Veel aandacht gaat uit naar proactief informatie vergaren in relatie tot het reduceren van onzekerheid en open staan voor veranderingen wordt vaak gezien als factor die samenhangt met het aanhangen van organisatie waarden. Daarnaast worden de behoefte om ergens bij te horen en prestatiemotivatie ook geacht een belangrijke rol te spelen bij het aanhangen van organisatie waarden.

### Onderzoeksmethoden (Hoofdstuk 3)

Om de effectiviteit van de Co-tijd, mogelijke interventies en de rol van persoonlijkheidsfactoren te onderzoeken zijn er vier deelvragen geformuleerd:

- a. Wat zijn de effecten van de Co-tijd voor interventies?
- b. Wat zijn de effecten van de Co-tijd na interventies?
- c. Wat zijn de verschillen in effecten van de Co-tijd voor en na interventies?
- d. In welke mate voorspellen persoonlijkheidsfactoren socialisatie van nieuwkomers op de KMA?

Nadat de effecten van de Co-tijd in 2012 zijn geanalyseerd richt deze studie zich op de mogelijkheden tot verbetering. Interventies zijn hoofdzakelijk gebaseerd op de sociale leertheorie, de Socratische methode en theorie omtrent ethiekonderwijs binnen de militaire organisatie. In de aanloop naar de Co-tijd van 2013 en navolgende perioden werden verschillende grotere en kleinere interventies gedaan. De mate waarin nieuwkomers zich aanpassen aan hun nieuwe situatie hangt uiteraard niet alleen af van de effectiviteit van de Co-tijd. Onder vele andere factoren genieten persoonlijkheidsfactoren specifieke aandacht en verklaren mogelijk waarom sommige nieuwkomers zich makkelijk aanpassen dan anderen.

In essentie is deze studie een zogenaamde 'case study' (Bryman, 2012; Yin, 2003) met de Co-tijd als onderwerp. Om de complexiteit van het onderwerp recht te doen zijn echter diverse onderzoeksmethoden toegepast. Deze studie is dan ook beter te omschrijven als een combinatie van een quasi-experimenteel ontwerp en participatieve observatie in tegenstelling tot enkel participatieve observatie met matige tot actieve participatie (Spradley, 1980). Deze studie is dan ook te kwalificeren als actie onderzoek ('action research') (Brydon-Miller et al., 2003; Whyte et al., 1989) of participatief actie onderzoek (Thiollent, 2011). Alle relevante onderzoeksmethoden worden in hoofdstuk 3 uitvoerig beschreven.

Participatieve observatie en actie onderzoek leveren vooral kwalitatieve data op. Een van de uitdagingen van kwalitatief onderzoek, is dat het lastig is om uit te drukken wat er precies gemeten is (Flick, 2009; Moore, 2014). Daarom maakt deze studie ook gebruik van kwantitatieve methoden zoals vragenlijsten.

In 2012 en 2013 werden de deelnemers gevraagd om vragenlijsten in te vullen op T1 (net voor opkomst), T2 (net voor de Co-tijd) en op T3 (net na de Co-tijd). Hoewel er op T1 respectievelijk 175 en 161 respondenten deelnamen is het aantal cadetten dat op alle momenten deelnam slechts 45 in 2012 en 77 in 2013. Deze data is geanalyseerd met een herhaalde metingen ANOVA en geeft inzicht in de verschillen binnen de groep per jaar en in de verschillen tussen de twee Co-tijden. Bovendien vulden in 2013 ook de ouderejaars cadetten vragenlijsten in wat cross-sectioneel onderzoek mogelijk maakte. Daarnaast werden meerdere cadetten geïnterviewd over het doel van en hun ervaringen met de Co-tijd. Om interventies te creëren werden

meerder Socratische gesprekken gevoerd met de COCOM. Hiervan werden notities gemaakt. Tijdens de Co-tijd sprak de onderzoeker regelmatig met nieuwe rekruten en ouderejaars cadetten. Voor de analyse van de rol van persoonlijkheidsfactoren (hoofdstuk 7) werd data van het Defensie Centrum voor Werving en Selectie gebruikt.

Kwantitatieve resultaten van de effecten van de Co-tijd in 2012 zijn weergegeven in hoofdstuk 4, kwalitatieve resultaten van de interventies tussen 2012 en 2013 in hoofdstuk 5. Hoofdstuk 6 toont de resultaten van de Co-tijd in 2013 en de vergelijking van de Co-tijden in 2012 en 2013 om het effect van de interventies te analyseren. Daarnaast geeft hoofdstuk 6 de kwantitatieve resultaten van het cross-sectioneel onderzoek weer en de kwalitatieve resultaten van de interviews met de cadetten na de Co-tijd.

### Conclusies (Hoofdstuk 8)

De resultaten van de respondenten uit 2012 bewijzen niet dat de Co-tijd de effecten bereikt zoals beschreven in de doelen. De Co-tijd in 2012 had een negatief effect op het enthousiasme voor het cadettencorps. De nieuwkomers verkregen wel kennis over het cadettencorps en leerden andere cadetten (vooral ouderejaars) kennen. Dit laatste levert wel steun voor de effecten voorgesteld door de ouderejaars cadetten. Maar ondanks dat de nieuwkomers aangeven veel geleerd te hebben over de historie en traditie van het cadettencorps en dat ze ouderejaars cadetten hebben leren kennen is het enthousiasme voor het cadettencorps niet gestegen door de Co-tijd.

Hoewel in de aanloop naar de Co-tijd van 2013 diverse gesprekken vruchtbaar leken te zijn, waren echte veranderingen in het programma schaars. Het was moeilijk voor de COCOM om drastische wijzigingen in te voeren; waarschijnlijk aarzelden ze omdat ze weinig vertrouwen hadden in de daadwerkelijke effecten.

De Socratische methode bleek een goed instrument om deze twijfel te bespreken met de COCOM en resulteerde in twee hoofdpunten. Ten eerste dat het gedrag van alle ouderejaars oprecht moest zijn, wat een andere start van de Co-tijd tot gevolg had. Ten tweede dat de opdrachten die de nieuwkomers kregen een grotere focus moesten hebben op de rol en taak van een officier bovendien moesten de opdrachten meer uitdagend in plaats van denigrerend zijn. De omgang met de nieuwkomers moest gebaseerd zijn op de waarden en normen van het cadettencorps in plaats van het laten reproduceren van de waarden maar tegengesteld gedrag vertonen. Ouderejaars cadetten werd het belang van voorbeeld gedrag duidelijk.

Na de Co-tijd van 2013 steeg het enthousiasme voor het cadettencorps significant. Dit is een belangrijk resultaat omdat het laat zien dat de nieuwe meer oprechte benadering een positief effect had op de ideeën van de nieuwkomers over de mogelijkheden in hun nieuwe omgeving. Verkregen kennis over het cadettencorps en het kennismaken met ouderejaars steeg ook significant en gezien de doelen van de Co-tijd, lijken er geen negatieve bij effecten te zijn van de nieuwe benadering. Voor cohesie en mentale hardheid welke geacht werden

directe effecten van de Co-tijd te zijn werden geen verschillen gevonden. Blijkbaar heeft de Co-tijd op deze concepten geen effect.

Met betrekking tot leiderschap heeft de Co-tijd bijna geen effect op de ontwikkeling van transactioneel- of transformationeel leiderschap. Resultaten tonen wel een groei van geïdealiseerde invloed en inspirerend motiveren na de Co-tijd. Dit ondersteunt het idee dat voorbeeldgedrag een inspirerend effect heeft op de gedachten over leiderschap bij de nieuwkomers. Bovendien lijkt er ondersteuning te zijn voor de ontwikkeling van ethisch leiderschap omdat ethische begeleiding een belangrijke factor is die bijdraagt aan de hogere score op ethisch leiderschap na de Co-tijd in 2013.

Resultaten leveren marginale ondersteuning voor het versterken van het omarmen van de waarden en normen van het cadettencorps. In 2013 scoren de nieuwkomers hoger op de cadettencorps ethos dan in 2012, toen de score zelfs daalde na de Co-tijd.

Ten aanzien van de persoonlijkheidsfactoren lijken de resultaten van deze studie ambigu. De behoefte aan structuur lijkt enthousiasme voor het cadettencorps te voorspellen. Neuroticisme draagt juist niet bij aan de groei van enthousiasme. Persoonlijkheidsfactoren spelen geen rol bij het ontwikkelen van cohesie. De enige factor die (negatieve) invloed heeft op de ontwikkeling van cohesie is eerdere werkervaring, wat suggereert dat cadetten met meer ervaring minder geneigd zijn om hun gevoel van verbondenheid te laten beïnvloeden door de Co-tijd. Prestatiemotivatie is een voorspeller voor de ontwikkeling van mentale hardheid in tegenstelling tot neuroticisme dat die ontwikkeling juist tegen gaat.

Met betrekking tot leiderschapontwikkeling zijn er verschillende persoonlijkheidsfactoren die een rol lijken te spelen. Cadetten met een hogere waarde voor neuroticisme ontwikkelen een grotere dispositie voor transactioneel leiderschap in vergelijking met hun minder neurotische collega's. De ontwikkeling van de dispositie voor transformationeel leiderschap lijkt beïnvloed te worden door openheid voor ervaringen. De behoefte erbij te horen lijkt een negatieve invloed te hebben op de ontwikkeling van ethisch leiderschap. Cadetten met een hoge prestatiemotivatie ontwikkelen in mindere mate hun morele competentie dan hun minder hoog scorende collega's. Hoog extraverte cadetten ten slotte ontwikkelen hun morele competentie sterker dan minder extraverte cadetten.

De enige factor van invloed op het aanhangen van de cadettencorps ethos lijkt het opleidingsmodel. De bachelorstudenten, die een langerverblijf op de KMA in het vooruitzicht hebben lijken de ethos meer waarde toe te kennen dan de kort model cadetten. Er is geen verband gevonden tussen persoonlijkheidsfactoren en het aanhangen van de cadettencorps ethos.

De longitudinale en cross-sectionele resultaten laten zien dat de Co-tijd geringe effecten heeft, zelfs na de interventies. De cross-sectionele analyse toont ook dat de effecten lijken te vervagen met de tijd en relatief lage scores worden gevonden voor vierdejaars cadetten. Dit is een redelijk schokkend resultaat omdat deze cadetten juist degene zijn die het dichtst bij hun startfunctie als leidinggevende zijn. Des te meer reden om de rol van de vierdejaars cadetten te benadrukken. Een aanbeveling is dan ook om de verantwoordelijkheid van deze groep te



versterken zodat ze een voorbeeld kunnen zijn voor jongerejaars cadetten. De vrijheid die de vierdejaars ervaren in het afronden van hun studieperiode zou gecombineerd moeten kunnen worden met verantwoordelijkheid voor jongerejaars. Dit zou wellicht een goed effect hebben op het idee van de vierdejaars over leiderschapselementen zoals ethische begeleiding en individuele aandacht. Een dergelijke interventie zal uiteraard consequenties hebben voor het (academische) opleidingstraject maar, de cadetten zijn toekomstig officieren waarvan immers verwacht mag worden dat ze het beste van zichzelf vragen gelijktijdig binnen diverse pijlers van de militaire officiersopleiding.

De Co-tijd heeft daarom als periode van socialisatie bij uitstek potentie om ingezet te worden als opleidingsinstrument. Niet alleen voor de nieuwkomers maar ook voor de derde en vierdejaars cadetten. Met professionele begeleiding van het militair kader maar uiteindelijk wel onder verantwoordelijkheid van ouderejaars cadetten kan de uitvoering van de Co-tijd een vruchtbare leerperiode worden. De ethische vraag of de eerstejaars cadetten als ‘onderwijsleermiddel’ mogen worden ingezet moet goed geadresseerd worden maar zal uiteindelijk positief beantwoord worden. Een praktische oplossing is om de Co-tijd opnieuw uit te vinden en het langer, bijvoorbeeld vier weken, te laten duren waarbij ouderejaars cadetten de leiding hebben over de militaire opleiding van de nieuwkomers en ze gelijktijdig wegwijs maken in de mores van het cadettencorps.

Tenslotte bewijst deze studie dat effecten van socialisatie sterk samenhangen met het gedrag van de begeleiders. Zeker als korte socialisatie perioden uitgevoerd worden op een geïnstitutionaliseerde manier met formele begeleiding door langer zittende leden van de organisatie, middels een vastgesteld programma, leren nieuwkomers vooral hoe ze zich moeten gedragen door goed te kijken naar hun begeleiders. Congruentie tussen het gedrag van de begeleiders en wat zij zeggen over hoe nieuwkomers zich moeten gedragen stimuleert het accepteren en overnemen van de mores van de organisatie. Nieuwe rekruten willen lid worden van de organisatie, anders hadden ze zich niet aangemeld. Ook al verwachten ze dat het militaire leven pittig is, ze verwachten ook het goede voorbeeld en eerlijkheid. Met het oog op de rol van ouderejaars cadetten in officiersopleidingen is het meest praktische advies dan ook om simpelweg te onthouden: Officiëren en cadetten, *‘practise what you preach!’*



## References

- Alvesson, M., & Willmott, H. (2002). Identity regulation as organizational control: Producing the appropriate individual. *Journal of management studies*, 39, 619-644.
- Alwin, D., & Krosnick, J. (1985). The measurement of values in surveys: A comparison of ratings and rankings. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 49(4), 535-552.
- Anderson, N., & Thomas, H. (1996). Work group socialization. In M. West (Ed.), *Handbook of work group psychology* (pp. 423-450). Lancaster: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Antonakis, J. (2001). *The validity of the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership model as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X)*. (PhD), Walden University.
- Aristotle. (2000). *Nicomachean ethics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Asch, S. (1961). Effects of group pressure upon the modification and distortion of judgments. In M. Henle (Ed.), *Groups, Leadership, and Men*. (pp. 222-236). Berkely: University of California Press.
- Ashford, S., & Black, J. (1996). Proactivity during organizational entry: The role of desire for control. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(2), 199-214.
- Ashford, S., & Nurmohamed, S. (2012). From past to present and into the future: A hitchhiker's guide to the socialization literature. In C. Wanberg (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational socialization* (pp. 8-27). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ashforth, B. (2012). The role of time in socialization dynamics. In C. Wanberg (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational socialization* (pp. 161-186). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ashforth, B., & Saks, A. (1996). Socialization tactics: Longitudinal effects on newcomer adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(1), 149-178.
- Ashforth, B., Saks, A., & Lee, R. (1997). On the dimensionality of Jones' (1986) measures of organizational socialization tactics. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 5(4), 200-214.
- Ashforth, B., Saks, A., & Lee, R. (1998). Socialization and newcomer adjustment. *Human relations*, 51(7), 897-926.
- Ashforth, B., Sluss, D., & Harrison, S. (2007). Socialization in organizational contexts. *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, 22, 1-70.
- Avolio, B., Bass, B., & Zhu, F. (2004). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire: Manual and sampler set*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden
- Avolio, B., & Gardner, W. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 315-338.
- Bachman, J. (2000). Distinctive military attitudes among U.S. enlistees, 1976-1997: Self-selection versus socialization. *Armed Forces & Society*, 26(4), 561-585.
- Banai, E., Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. (2005). 'Selfobject' needs in Kohut's self psychology: Links with attachment, self-cohesion, affect regulation, and adjustment. *Psychoanalytic Psychology*, 22(2), 224-260.

- Bandura, A. (1971). *Social learning theory*. New York: General Learning Press.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self efficacy: Towards a theory of behavioural change. *Psychological review*, 84(2), 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. (Vol. 1986). New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs.
- Bandura, A. (2002). Social cognitive theory in cultural context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 51, 269-290.
- Bartone, P. (1999). Hardiness and war-related stress. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 51(2), 72-82.
- Bartone, P., Eid, J., Johnson, B., Laberg, J., & Snook, S. (2009). Big Five personality factors, hardiness and social judgement as predictors of leader performance. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 30(6), 498-521.
- Bartone, P., Johnsen, B., Eid, J., Brun, W., & Laberg, J. (2002). Factors influencing small-unit cohesion in Norwegian Navy officer cadets. *Military Psychology*, 14(1), 1-22.
- Bartone, P., Kelly, D., & Matthews, M. (2013). Psychological hardiness predicts adaptability in military leaders: A prospective study. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 21(2), 200-210.
- Bartone, P., Snook, S., & T., T. (2002). Cognitive and personality predictors of leader performance in West Point cadets. *Military Psychology*, 14(4), 321-338.
- Bass, B. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(1), 9-32.
- Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (1997). *Full range leadership development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*.: Mind Garden Palo Alto, CA.
- Bauer, T., Bodner, T., Erdogan, B., Truxillo, D., & Tucker, J. (2007). Newcomer adjustment during organizational socialization: A meta-analytic review of antecedents, outcomes, and methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3), 707-721.
- Bauer, T., & Erdogan, B. (2012). Organizational socialization outcomes: Now and into the future. In C. Wanberg (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational socialization* (pp. 97-112). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bauer, T., & Green, S. (1994). Effect of newcomer involvement in work-related activities: A longitudinal study of socialization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(2), 211-223.
- Bauer, T., Maertz, C., Dolen, M., & Campion, M. (1998). Longitudinal assessment of applicant reactions to employment testing and test outcome feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(6), 892-903.
- Bauer, T., Morrison, E., & Callister, R. (1998). Organizational socialization: A review and directions for future research. *Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 16, 149-214.
- Baumeister, R., & Leary, M. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological bulletin*, 117(3), 497-529.

- Beatty, S., Kahle, L., Homer, P., & Misra, S. (1985). Alternative measurement approaches to consumer values: The list of values and the Rokeach Value Survey. *Psychology & Marketing*, 2(3), 181-200.
- Becker, T. (1998). Integrity in organizations: Beyond honesty and conscientiousness. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(1), 154-161.
- Beer, M., & Nohria, N. (2000). Cracking the code of change. *Harvard business review*, 15, 86-96.
- Beersma, B., Greer, L., Dalenberg, S., & De Dreu, C. (2016). Need for structure as asset and liability in dynamic teams. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 20, 1-18.
- Ben-Ze'ev, A. (1997). Emotions and morality. *The Journal of Value Inquiry*, 31(2), 195-212.
- Berntsen, T., & Rolfen, R. (2008). Ethics training in the Norwegian Defence Forces. In P. Robinson, N. Lee, & D. Carrick (Eds.), *Ethics Education in the Military* (pp. 95-102). Hampshire: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Bik, A. (2013). *Mortification at the Royal Netherlands Military Academy: The effects of mortification on the behavior of the cadet*. (Academic Bachelor), Faculty of Military Sciences, Breda.
- Bissonnette, M. (1998). *Optimism, hardiness, and resiliency: A review of the literature*. Prepared for the Child and Family Partnership Project.
- Blanchard, K., Zigarmi, D., & Nelson, R. (1993). Situational Leadership after 25 Years: A retrospective. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 1(1), 21-36.
- Blass, F. (2003). *Socialization tactics and career effectiveness; the role of political skill in contextual adjustment and effectiveness*. (PhD), Florida State University, Florida.
- Bono, J., & Judge, T. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 901-910.
- Boselie, P. (2014). *Strategic Human Resource Management: A balanced approach*.: Tata McGraw-Hill Education.
- Bracknell, R. (2011). A time for leadership and hazing. *Marine Corps Gazette*, 95, 13-19.
- Brooke, S. (2006). Using the case method to teach online classes: Promoting Socratic dialogue and critical thinking skills. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 18(2), 142-149.
- Brooks, E. (2014). Hazing versus challenging; push to a breaking point. *Marine Corps Gazette*, 98(8), 24-25.
- Brown, M., Treviño, L., & Harrison, D. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 97(2), 117-134.
- Brydon-Miller, M., Greenwood, D., & Maquire, P. (2003). Why action research? *Action Research*, 1(1), 9-27.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods*. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.
- Burggraaf, W. (1988). *Kennis is macht, karakter is meer. Een sociaal wetenschappelijke studie over adelborsten, bewoners van een militair onderwijsinternaat*. Den Haag: VUGA.
- Burk, J. (1999). Military culture. *Encyclopedia of Violence, Peace and Conflict* (Vol. 2, pp. 447-461). New York: Academic Press.

- Cable, D., Gino, F., & Staats, B. (2013). Breaking them in or eliciting their best? Reframing socialization around newcomers' authentic self-expression. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 58(1), 1-36.
- Cadettencorps. (1830-2015). *Cadetten Almanak; Koninklijke Militaire Academie 1830-2015*. Breda: Broese & Comp.
- Caforio, G. (2003). Military officer education. In G. Caforio (Ed.), *Handbook of the Sociology of the Military* (pp. 255-278). New York: Kluwer Academic.
- Caforio, G., & Nuciari, M. (1994). The officer profession: Ideal-type. *Current Sociology*, 42(3), 33-56.
- Canepa, H. (2011). *Need for belonging and attachment style in relation to college students participation in negative group initiation practices*. (PhD), Pace University, New York.
- Cartwright, S., & Holmes, N. (2006). The meaning of work: The challenge of regaining employee engagement and reducing cynicism. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), 199-208.
- Chatman, J. (1989). Matching people and organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36(1), 459-484.
- Chesters, S. (2012). *The Socratic Classroom*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Ciulla, J. (2005). The state of leadership ethics and the work that lies before us. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 14(4), 323-335.
- Ciulla, J. (2012). Ethics and effectiveness. In J. Antonakis & D. Day (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (2 ed., pp. 508-540). London: SAGE Publications.
- Cook, M. (2008). Character development: Who 'owns' ethics in the US Air Force academy? In P. Robinson, D. Carrick, & N. Lee (Eds.), *Ethics Education in the Military* (pp. 57-66). Hampshire: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Cook, T., & Campbell, D. (1979). *Quasi-experimentation: Design and analysis issues for field settings*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co.
- Cooper-Thomas, H., & Anderson, N. (2002). Newcomer Adjustment: The relationship between organizational socialization tactics, information acquisition and attitudes. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75, 423-437.
- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1980). Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective well-being: Happy and unhappy people. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 38(4), 668-678.
- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI)*. Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Coutu, D. (2002). How resilience works. *Harvard business review*, 80(5), 46-56.
- Crant, J., & Bateman, T. (2000). Charismatic leadership viewed from above: The impact of proactive personality. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(1), 63-75.
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London: Sage publications.
- Dalenberg, S. (2014). *Missie Kabul*. Zwaag: Pumbo.

- Dalenberg, S., Folkerts, I., & Bijlsma, T. (2014). Nieuwe leiderschapsvisie Defensie [New vision on leadership for Dutch Defence]. *Militaire Spectator*, 183(1), 26-39.
- Dalenberg, S., & Vogelaar, A. (2012). Leiderschapsvisie: Theorie en praktijk. *Militaire Spectator*, 181(5), 221-231.
- Daskalaki, M. (2011). Recontextualizing new employee induction: Organizational entry as a change space. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 48(1), 93-114.
- Day, D., & Halpin, S. (2001). *Leadership development: A review of industry best practices*. Retrieved from Forth Lavenworth:
- De Graaff, M., & Van den Berg, C. (2010). Moral professionalism within the royal Netherlands Armed Forces. In J. Stouffer & S. Seiler (Eds.), *Military ethics, international perspectives* (pp. 1-24). Kingston, Ontario: Canadian Defence Academy Press.
- De Vries, P. (2013). *The good, the bad and the virtuous: the virtue-ethical theory of Alasdair MacIntyre applied to military practice*. (PhD), Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen, Nijmegen.
- Deakin, S. (2008). Education in an ethos at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst. In P. Robinson, N. Lee, & D. Carrick (Eds.), *Ethics Education in the Military* (pp. 15-29). Hampshire: Ashgate Publication Limited.
- Defensie (2012). Instructiekaart mentale vorming. Breda.
- Delahaij, R., Gaillard, A., & Van Dam, K. (2010). Hardiness and the response to stressful situations: Investigating mediating processes. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 49(5), 386-390.
- Desjardins, Y. (2008). Canada's Defence ethics programme and ethics training. In P. Robinson, N. Lee, & D. Carrick (Eds.), *Ethics Education in the Military* (pp. 67-78). Hampshire: Ashgate Publications Limited.
- DeWalt, K., & DeWalt, B. (2002). *Participant observation: A guide for fieldworkers*. Walnut Creek: Alta Mira Press.
- DeWalt, K., DeWalt, B., & Wayland, C. (1998). Participant observation. *Handbook of methods in cultural anthropology*, 259-299.
- Dodge, S. (1991). Military academies crack down on hazing of freshmen. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 38, 39-40.
- Dolan, C., & Adler, A. (2006). Military hardiness as a buffer of psychological health on return from deployment. *Military Medicine*, 171(2), 93-98.
- Doosje, B., Spears, R., & Ellemers, N. (2002). Social identity as both cause and effect: The development of group identification in response to anticipated and actual changes in the intergroup status hierarchy. *The British Journal of Social Psychology*, 41, 57-76.
- Dweck, C., & Leggett, E. (1988). A Social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological review*, 95(2), 256-273.
- Eccles, M., Hrisos, S., Francis, J., Kaner, E., Dickinson, H., Beyer, F., & Johnston, M. (2006). Do self-reported intentions predict clinicians' behaviour: A systematic review. *Implementation Science*, 1, 28-38.



- Ellemers, N., Pagliaro, S., Barreto, M., & Leach, C. (2008). Is it better to be moral than smart? The effects of morality and competence norms on the decision to work at group status improvement. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 95(6), 1-54??
- Elliot, A., & Church, M. (1997). A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 72(1), 218-232.
- Elliott, E., & Dweck, C. (1988). Goals: An approach to motivation and achievement. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 54(1), 5-12.
- Esser, J. (1998). Alive and well after 25 Years: A review of groupthink research. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 73(2), 116-141.
- Evans, M. (1997). *The role of history in the education of future officers*. Retrieved from
- Evans, R. (2013). Hazing in the ADF: A culture of denial? *Australian Army Journal*, 10(3), 113-127.
- Fang, R., Duffy, M., & Shaw, J. (2011). The organizational socialization process: Review and development of a social capital model. *Journal of Management*, 37(1), 127-152.
- Fang, R., Landis, B., Zhang, Z., Anderson, M., Shaw, J., & Kilduff, M. (2015). Integrating personality and social networks: A meta-analysis of personality, network position, and work outcomes in organizations. *Organization Science*, 26(4), 1243-1260.
- Firestone, J., & Harris, R. (2003). Perceptions of effectiveness of responses to sexual harassment in the US military, 1988 and 1995. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 10(1), 42-64.
- Fisher, C. (1986). Organizational socialisation: An integrative review. In K. Rowland & G. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* (Vol. 4, pp. 101-145). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research*.: Sage.
- Frandsen, S. (2012). Organizational image, identification, and cynical distance prestigious professionals in a low-prestige organization. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 26(3), 351-376.
- Franke, V. (1999). *Preparing for peace military identity, value orientations, and professional military education*. Westport, Conn.: Praeger.
- Franke, V., & Heineken, L. (2001). Adjusting to peace: Military values in a cross-national comparison. *Armed Forces & Society*, 27(4), 567-595.
- Fry, L. (2003). Toward a theory of spiritual leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(6), 693-727.
- Gagné, R. (1971). *Domains of learning*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, New York.
- Gerard, H., & Mathewson, G. (1966). The effects of severity of initiation on liking for a group: A replication. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 2(3), 278-287.
- Godin, G., Conner, M., & Sheeran, P. (2005). Bridging the intention-behaviour gap: The role of moral norm. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 44(4), 497-512.
- Goffman, E. (1961). *Asylums; Essays on the social situation of mental patients and other inmates*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Gómez, L. (2009). Time to socialize organizational socialization structures and temporality. *Journal of Business Communication*, 46(2), 179-207.



- Gose, M. (2009). When Socratic dialogue is flagging; questions and strategies for engaging students. *College Teaching*, 57(1), 45-52.
- Gosling, S., Rentfrow, P., & Swann, W. (2003). A very brief measure of the Big-Five personality domains. *Journal of Research in personality*, 37(6), 504-528.
- Governance & Integrity, & Centrale Organisatie Integriteit Defensie. (2014). *Integriteit bij de opleiding en vorming van adelborsten en cadetten aan de Nederlandse Defensie Academie*. Retrieved from
- Graham, J. (1995). Leadership, moral development, and citizenship behavior. *Business ethics quarterly*, 5(1), 43-54.
- Grant, A., & Ashford, S. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in organizational behavior*, 28, 3-34.
- Grant, K. (2008). Who are the lepers in our organizations? A case for compassionate leadership. *Business Renaissance Quarterly*, 3(2), 75-91.
- Grassiani, E. (2009). *Morality and normalcy in a-symmetrical conflict: Distancing, denial and moral numbing among Israeli conscripts in everyday practices of occupation*. (PhD), Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam Amsterdam.
- Greenleaf, R. (1977). *Servant leadership*. (pp. 18-23). New York: Paulist Press.
- Groen, P., & Klinkert, W. (2003). *Studeren in uniform: 175 jaar Koninklijke Militaire Academie 1828-2003*. Den Haag: Sdu Uitgevers.
- Guimond, S. (1995). Impact of military socialization on professional values. *Applied Psychology*, 44(3), 251-275.
- Guimond, S. (2000). Group socialization and prejudice; the social transmission of intergroup attitudes and beliefs. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 30, 335-354.
- Haidt, J. (2001). The emotional dog and its rational tail: A social intuitionist approach to moral judgement. *Psychological review*, 108(4), 814-834.
- Haidt, J., & Joseph, C. (2004). Intuitive ethics: How innately prepared intuitions generate culturally variable virtues. *Daedalus*, 133(4), 55-66.
- Hannah, S., Avolio, B., & May, D. (2011). Moral maturation and moral conation: A capacity approach to explaining moral thought and action. *Academy of Management Review*, 36(4), 663-685.
- Harrell, F. (2015). *Regression modeling strategies: With applications to linear models, logistic and ordinal regression, and survival analysis*. New York: Springer.
- Heinström, J. (2003). Five personality dimensions and their influence on information behaviour. *Information research*, 9(1), 9-1.
- Hermans, H. (1970). A questionnaire measure of achievement motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54(4), 353-363.
- Hermans, H. (2004). *PMT: Prestatie Motivatie Test: Handleiding*. Amsterdam: Harcourt Test Publishers.
- Heyman, G., & Dweck, C. (1992). Achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: Their relation and their role in adaptive motivation. *Motivation and emotion*, 16(3), 231-247.

- Hoek, R. (2007). *Van feuttijd tot coördinatieperiode: Een onderzoek naar de civilisatie van de introductieperiode op de Koninklijke Militaire Academie gedurende de periode 1948-2006*. (Academic Bachelor), Nederlandse Defensie Academie, Breda.
- Hoekstra, H., Ormel, J., & Fruyt, F. (1996). *Handleiding NEO-PI-R en NEO-FFI persoonlijkheidsvragenlijsten*. Lisse: Swets Test Services.
- Holt, T., Armenakis, A., Feild, H., & Harris, S. (2007). Readiness for organizational change the systematic development of a scale. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43(2), 232-255.
- Horner, M. (1997). Leadership theory: Past, present and future. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, 3(4), 270-287.
- Hornsey, M., & Jetten, J. (2004). The individual within the group: Balancing the need to belong with the need to be different. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 8(3), 248-264.
- Howard, P., & Howard, J. (1995). *The Big Five quickstart: An introduction to the Five-Factor Model of personality for Human Resource professionals*. Centre for Applied Cognitive Studies. Charlotte.
- Hurst, C., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., & Livingston, B. (2012). The odd one out: How newcomers who are different become adjusted. In C. Wanberg (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational socialization* (pp. 115-138). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Huy, Q. (2001). Time, temporal capability, and planned change. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(4), 601-623.
- Hystad, S., Eid, J., Johnson, B., Laberg, J., & Bartone, P. (2010). Psychometric properties of the revised Norwegian Dispositional Resilience (hardiness) Scale. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 51, 237-245.
- Jackson, J., Thoemmes, F., Jonkmann, K., Lüdtke, O., & Trautwein, U. (2012). Military training and personality trait development: Does the military make the man, or does the man make the military? *Psychological Science*, 23(3), 270-277.
- Jeong, C., & Han, H. (2013). Exploring the relationship between virtue ethics and moral identity. *Ethics and Behaviour*, 23(1), 44-56.
- Jetten, J., Branscombe, N., Spears, R., & McKimmie, B. (2003). Predicting the paths of peripherals: The interaction of identification and future possibilities. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(1), 130-140.
- Johnson, M. (2008). *God's perfect scar*. Bloomington, IN: AuthorHouse.
- Jokisaari, M., & Nurmi, J. (2012). Getting the right connections? The consequences and antecedents of social networks in newcomer socialization. In C. Wanberg (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational socialization* (pp. 78-96). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jones, G. (1986). Socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustments to organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29(2), 262-279.

- Jones, R., Jimmieson, N., & Griffiths, A. (2005). The impact of organizational culture and reshaping capabilities on change implementation success: The mediating role of readiness for change. *Journal of management studies*, 42(2), 361-386.
- Judge, T., Bono, J., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 765-780.
- Kalshoven, K. (2010). *Ethical leadership through the eyes of employees*. (PhD), Universiteit van Amsterdam, Amsterdam.
- Kammeyer-Mueller, J., & Wanberg, C. (2003). Unwrapping the organizational entry process: Disentangling multiple antecedents and their pathways to adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 779-794.
- Kamtekar, R. (2009). Knowing by likeness in Empedocles. *Phronesis*, 54(3), 215-238.
- Karssing, E. (2000). *Morele competentie in organisaties*. Assen: Van Gorcum & Comp.
- Kasher, A. (2008). Teaching and training military ethics: An Israeli experience. In P. Robinson, N. De Lee, & D. Carrick (Eds.), *Ethics Education in the Military* (pp. 133-145). Hampshire: Ashgate.
- Kemmis, S. (1993). Action research and social movement: A challenge for policy research. *education policy analysis archives*, 1, 1-8.
- King, A. (2006). The word of command communication and cohesion in the military. *Armed Forces & Society*, 32(4), 493-512.
- Kirke, C. (2010). Military cohesion, culture and social psychology. *Defense & Security Analysis*, 26(2), 143-159.
- Klein, H., & Weaver, N. (2000). The effectiveness of an organizational-level orientation training program in the socialization of new hires. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(1), 47-66.
- Klinkert, W. (1998). *100 jaar Cadettencorps, 1898-1998*. Tilburg: Gianotten.
- Kohlberg, L. (1981). *The philosophy of moral development: Moral stages and the idea of justice*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Kohut, H. (1971). *The analysis of the self*. London: University of Chicago Press.
- Lammers, C. (1963). *Het Koninklijk Instituut voor de Marine. Een sociologische analyse van de inlijving van groepen aspirant-officieren in de zeemacht*. Assen: Van Gorcum.
- Lee, R., & Robbins, S. (1995). Measuring belongingness: The social connectedness and the social assurance scales. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 42(2), 232-241.
- Lee, T., Ashford, S., Walsh, J., & Mowday, R. (1992). Commitment propensity, organizational commitment, and voluntary turnover: A longitudinal study of organizational entry processes. *Journal of Management*, 18(1), 15-32.
- Leicht, C., Crisp, R., & Randsley de Moura, G. (2013). Need for structure predicts leadership preference. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 17(1), 53-66.
- Lo Bue, S. (2015). *Hardiness in the heart of the military*. (PhD), University of Leuven, Leuven.
- Lord, R., & Hall, R. (2005). Identity, deep structure and the development of leadership skill. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(4), 591-615.

- Louis, M. (1980). Surprise and sensemaking what newcomers experience. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 25(2), 226-251.
- Louis, M., Posner, B., & Powell, G. (1983). The availability and helpfulness of socialization practices. *Personnel Psychology*, 36(4), 857-866.
- MacCoun, R., Kier, E., & Belkin, A. (2006). Does social cohesion determine motivation in combat? An old question with an old answer. *Armed Forces & Society*, 32(4), 646-654.
- MacDonald, G., & Leary, M. R. (2005). Why does social exclusion hurt? The relationship between social and physical pain. *Psychological bulletin*, 131(2), 202-223.
- Macintyre, A., & Dunne, J. (2002). Alasdair MacIntyre on education: In dialogue with Joseph Dunne. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 36(1), 1-19.
- MacIntyre, A. C. (1981). *After virtue: A study in moral theory*. (3 Ed.). Notre Dame, Ind.: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Maddi, S. (2007). Relevance of hardiness assessment and training to the military context. *Military Psychology*, 19(1), 61-70.
- Madsen, S., Miller, D., & John, C. (2005). Readiness for organizational change: Do organizational commitment and social relationships in the workplace make a difference? *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 16(2), 213-234.
- Martin, A., & Dowson, M. (2009). Interpersonal relationships, motivation, engagement, and achievement: Yields for theory, current issues, and educational practice. *Review of educational research*, 79(1), 327-365.
- Martinek, T., & Schilling, T. (2003). Developing compassionate leadership in underserved youths. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 74(5), 33-39.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W., & Leiter, M. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 397-422.
- Maslow, A. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review*, 50(4), 370-396.
- Mayhew, M., Seifert, T., Pascarella, E., Laird, T., & Blaich, C. (2012). Going deep into mechanisms for moral reasoning growth: How deep learning approaches affect moral reasoning development for first-year students. *Research in Higher Education*, 53(1), 26-46.
- McCoy, A. (1995). "Same Banana": Hazing and honor at the Philippine Military Academy. *The Journal of Asian Studies*, 54(03), 689-726.
- McCrae, R., & Costa, P. (2004). A contemplated revision of the NEO Five-Factor Inventory. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(3), 587-596.
- McCrae, R., & John, O. (1992). An introduction to the Five-Factor Model and its applications. *Journal of personality*, 60, 175-215.
- McLaughlin, R., Nielsen, L., & Waller, M. (2008). An evaluation of the effect of military service on mortality: Quantifying the healthy soldier effect. *Annals of epidemiology*, 18(12), 928-936.
- Mendee, J. (2012). Asymmetrical military socialization: Mongolia as a case study. *Armed Forces & Society*, 39(2), 305-330.

- Mileham, P. (2008). Teaching military ethics in the British armed forces. In P. Robinson, N. Lee, & D. Carrick (Eds.), *Ethics education in the military*. (pp. 43-56). Hampshire: Ashgate.
- Miles, M., & Huberman, A. (1985). *Qualitative data analysis*: Sage Newbury Park,, CA.
- Mitchell, S. (2006). Socratic dialogue, the humanities and the art of the question. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, 5(2), 181-197.
- Moelker, R. (2003). Hoffelijkheid en corps. *Kernvraag*(3), 19-32.
- Moelker, R. (2014). Being one of the guys or the fly on the wall? Participant observation of veteran bikers. In J. Soeters, P. Shields, & S. Rietjens (Eds.), *Routledge Handbook of Research Methods in Military Studies* (pp. 104-115).
- Moelker, R., & Olsthoorn, P. (2007). Special issue: Military virtues. *Journal of Military Ethics*, 6(4), 57-58.
- Moelker, R., & Richardson, R. (2002). Socialisatie op de KMA. In R. Richardson, D. Verweij, A. Vogelaar, & H. Kuijpers (Eds.), *Mens en organisatie: de krijgsmacht in verandering*. (pp.??). Alphen a/d Rijn: Mets & Schilt.
- Moelker, R., & Richardson, R. (2003). Grijs muizen knagen aan pijlers academie. *Carre*, 11-17.
- Moore, B. (2014). In-depth interviewing. *Routledge handbook of research methods on military studies* (pp. 116-128).
- Morrison, E. (1993). Longitudinal study of the effects of information seeking on newcomer socialization. *journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(2), 173-183.
- Morrison, E. (2002). Newcomers' relationships: The role of social network ties during socialization. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(6), 1149-1160.
- Mullen, B., & Copper, C. (1994). The relation between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration. *Psychological bulletin*, 115(2), 210-227.
- Nelson, L., & Brown, T. (1949). *Socratic method and critical philosophy; selected essays*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Neuberg, S., & Newsom, J. (1993). Personal need for structure: Individual differences in the desire for simple structure. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 65(1), 113-131.
- Ng, K., Ang, S., & Chan, K. (2008). Personality and leader effectiveness: A moderated mediation model of leadership self-efficacy, job demands, and job autonomy. *journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4), 733-743.
- Northouse, P. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. New York: Sage publications.
- Olsthoorn, P. (2008). The ethics curriculum at the Netherlands Defence Academy, and some problems with its theoretical underpinnings. In P. Robinson, N. De Lee, & D. Carrick (Eds.), *Ethics in military education*. Hampshire: Ashgate.
- Olsthoorn, P. (2011). Military ethics and virtues: An interdisciplinary approach for the 21st century.
- Oprins, E., Dalenberg, S., De Graaff, M., & Boxmeer, F. v. (2011). *Measurement of moral competence in military operations*. Paper presented at the ERGOMAS, Amsterdam.
- Ornstein, P. (2011). *The search for the self: Selected writings of Heinz Kohut 1978-1981*. (Vol. 4). London: Karnac Books.

- Ostroff, C., & Kozlowski, S. (1992). Organizational socialization as a learning process; the role of information acquisition. *Personnel Psychology*, 45(4).
- Pershing, J. (2006). Men and women's experiences with hazing in a male-dominated elite military institution. *Men and Masculinities*, 8(4), 470-492.
- Phares, E. (1991). *Introduction to personality*. Washington: Amer Psychological Association.
- Pierce, T., Lydon, J., & Yang, S. (2001). Enthusiasm and moral commitment: What sustains family caregivers of those with dementia. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 23(1), 29-41.
- Plato. (2008). *The symposium*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Ployhart, R., & Vandenberg, R. (2010). Longitudinal research: The theory, design, and analysis of change. *Journal of Management*, 36(1), 94-120.
- Podsakoff, P., & Organ, D. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Management*, 12(4), 531-544.
- Poelman, J., & Schwerzel, J. (2013). Terug naar de basis. Veranderingen in het vormingsmechanisme op de KMA. *Carré*, 1, 20-29.
- Ramakers, F. (2003). Ontgroening op de KMA: Van Stier tot Officier? *Carré*, 2, 38-42.
- Reason, P., & Bradbury, H. (2001). *Handbook of action research: Participative inquiry and practice*. New York: Sage.
- Reed, G., & Bullis, R. (2009). The impact of destructive leadership on senior military officers and civilian employees. *Armed Forces & Society*, 36(1), 5-18.
- Reiter-Palmon, R., & Illies, J. (2004). Leadership and creativity: Understanding leadership from a creative problem-solving perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(1), 55-77.
- Rennick, J. (2012). Canadian values and military operations in the twenty-first century. *Armed Forces & Society*, 39(3), 511-530.
- Rest, J. (1986). *Moral development: Advances in research and theory*. New York: Praeger.
- Rest, J., Thoma, S., & Edwards, L. (1997). Designing and validating a measure of moral judgment: Stage preference and stage consistency approaches. *Journal of educational psychology*, 89(1), 5-28.
- Reynolds, S. (2006). Moral awareness and ethical predispositions: Investigating the role of individual differences in the recognition of moral issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(1), 233-243.
- Reynolds, S., & Ceranic, T. (2007). The effects of moral judgment and moral identity on moral behavior: An empirical examination of the moral individual. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6), 1610-1624.
- Reynolds, S., J., T., & Jolly, J. (1980). Measuring personal values: An evaluation of alternative methods. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 531-536.
- Rietzschel, E., De Dreu, C., & Nijstad, B. (2007). Personal need for structure and creative performance: The moderating influence of fear of invalidity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(6), 855-866.



- Riggio, R., Zhu, W., Reina, C., & Maroosis, J. (2010). Virtue-based measurement of ethical leadership: The Leadership Virtues Questionnaire. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 62(4), 235-250.
- Robbins, S., Campbell, T., & Judge, T. (2010). *Organizational behaviour*. New York: Pearson.
- Robinson, P., De Lee, N., & Carrick, D. (2008). Ethics education in the military.
- Rothacher, A. (1980). On the effects and noneffects of military socialization. *Armed Forces & Society*, 6(2), 332-334.
- Saks, A., & Ashforth, B. (1997a). Organizational socialization: Making sense of the past and present as a prologue for the future. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 51, 234-279.
- Saks, A., & Ashforth, B. (1997b). Socialization tactics and newcomer information acquisition. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 5(1), 48-61.
- Saks, A., & Ashforth, B. (2000). The role of dispositions, entry stressors, and behavioral plasticity theory in predicting newcomers' adjustment to work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(1), 43-62.
- Saks, A., Uggerslev, K., & Fassina, N. (2007). Socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment: A meta-analytic review and test of a model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70(3), 413-446.
- Schmitz, N., Hartkamp, N., Baldini, C., Rollnik, J., & Tress, W. (2001). Psychometric properties of the German version of the NEO-FFI in psychosomatic outpatients. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 31(5), 713-722.
- Schubert, C., & Cordes, C. (2013). Role models that make you unhappy: Light paternalism, social learning, and welfare. *Journal of Institutional Economics*, 9(2), 131-159.
- Schwartz, S. (2012). An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1), 1-20.
- Seeskin, K. (1984). Socratic philosophy and the dialogue form. *Philosophy and Literature*, 8(2), 181-194.
- Shadish, W., Cook, T., & Campbell, D. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Boston, M.A.: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Shaw, J., Gupta, N., & Delery, J. (2005). Alternative conceptualizations of the relationship between voluntary turnover and organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(1), 50-68.
- Sheldon, K., Ryan, R., Rawsthorne, L., & Ilardi, B. (1997). Trait self and true self: Cross-role variation in the Big-Five personality traits and its relations with psychological authenticity and subjective well-being. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 73(6), 1380-1393.
- Soeters, J., Shields, P., & Rietjens, S. (2014). *Routledge handbook of research methods in military studies*. New York: Routledge.
- Soeters, J., Winslow, D., & Weibull, A. (2006). Military culture. *Handbook of the sociology of the military*. (pp. 237-254): Springer.

- Soh, S., Chan, K., & Ong, K. (2000). *Military socialization in Singapore: Some correlates of cultural knowledge and self-concept change*. Paper presented at the 42nd International Military Testing Association Conference, Edinburgh, UK.
- Spradley, J. (1980). *Participant observation*. Long Grove, Illinois: Waveland Press Inc.
- Steuber, G. (1999). Rites of passage: Civilian to soldier. *Field Artillery*, 2, 20-21.
- Stolp, S. (1994). *Wit op Zwart*. Breda: KMA.
- Svaan, J. (1966). *The effect of fraternity hazing on college socialization*. (PhD), University of Texas.
- Tajfel, H. (2010). *Social identity and intergroup relations*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Taormina, R. (2008). Interrelating leadership behaviors, organizational socialization, and organizational culture. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 29(1), 85-102.
- Ten Velden, F., Beersma, B., & De Dreu, C. (2010). It takes one to tango: The effects of dyads' epistemic motivation composition in negotiation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 36(11), 1454-1466.
- Thiollent, M. (2011). A research and participatory research. *institutional journal of action research*, 7(2), 160-174.
- Thompson, M., Naccarato, M., Parker, K., & Moskowitz, G. (2001). The personal need for structure and personal fear of invalidity measures: Historical perspectives, current applications, and future directions. In G. Moskowitz (Ed.), *Cognitive social psychology: The Princeton symposium on the legacy and future of social cognition*. (pp. 19-39).
- Thurstone, L. (1928). Attitudes can be measured. *American Journal of Sociology*, 33(4), 529-554.
- Tomasello, M., Kruger, A., & Ratner, H. (1993). Cultural learning. *Behavioral and brain sciences*, 16(03), 495-511.
- Toner, J. (2005). *Morals under the gun: The cardinal virtues, military ethics, and American society*. Kentucky: University Press of Kentucky.
- Touraine, A. (1985). An introduction to the study of social movements. *Social research*, 749-787.
- Trevino, L., Hartman, L., & Brown, M. (2000). Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California management review*, 42(4), 128-142.
- Turner, V. (1969). *The ritual process: Structure and anti-structure*. (2 ed.). London: Aldine Transaction.
- Turner, V. (1987). Betwixt and between: The liminal period in rites of passage. In L. Mahdi, S. Foster, & M. Little (Eds.), *Betwixt and between: Patterns of masculine and feminine initiation* (pp. 3-19). La Salle, Illinois: Open Court Publishing Company.
- Van Baarda, T., & Verweij, D. (2004). *Praktijkboek, militaire ethiek: Ethische vraagstukken, morele vorming, dilemmatraining*. (2 Ed.). Budel: Damon.
- Van Baarda, T., & Verweij, D. (2006). *Military ethics the dutch approach: A practical guide*. Leiden: Martinus Nijhoff.
- Van Baarda, T., & Verweij, D. (2010). *Praktijkboek militaire ethiek: Ethiek en integriteit bij de Krijgsmacht, morele vorming, dilemmatraining*. Budel: Damon.



- Van Boxmeer, L., Verwijs, C., Euwema, M., & Dalenberg, S. (2010). *Assessing morale and psychological distress during modern military operations*. Paper presented at the 52<sup>nd</sup> Conference of the International Military Testing Association.
- Van den Brink, W., & Mellenbergh, G. (1998). *Testleer en testconstructie*. Amsterdam: Boom.
- Van Drie, C. (2010). *Effecten van vernedering tijdens ontgroeningen*. (Academic Master), Universiteit van Amsterdam, Amsterdam.
- Van Iersel, A., & Van Baarda, T. (2002). *Militaire ethiek: Morele dilemma's van militairen in theorie en praktijk*. Budel: Damon.
- Van Kleef, G., Homan, A., Beersma, B., Van Knippenberg, D., Van Knippenberg, B., & Damen, F. (2009). Searing sentiment or cold calculation? The effects of leader emotional displays on team performance depend on follower epistemic motivation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(3), 562-580.
- Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. (1979). Towards a theory of organizational socialization. In B. Staw (Ed.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 209-264). Greenwich: CT: JAI.
- Van Raalte, J., Cornelius, A., Linder, D., & Brewer, B. (2007). The relationship between hazing and team cohesion. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 30(4).
- Van Schilt, J. (2011). *Herfsttij van het militaire elitegevoel: Het elitair zelfbeeld van aspirant-officieren op de Koninklijke Militaire Academie in de periode 1948 tot 2008*. (PhD), Tilburg, Ridderprint Ridderkerk.
- Van Vianen, A., & De Pater, I. (2012). Content and development of newcomer person-organization fit: An agenda for future research. In C. Wanberg (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of socialization*. (pp. 139-157). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Vandenberg, R., & Seo, J. (1992). Placing recruiting effectiveness in perspective; a cognitive explanation of the job choice and organizational entry period. *Human Resource Management Review*, 2(4), 239-273.
- Veldheer, V., & Bijl, R. (2011). *Actuele maatschappelijke ontwikkelingen 2010*. Retrieved from 's-Gravenhage:
- Verweij, D. (2002). The dark side of obedience. *Professional Ethics; A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 10(3), 143-158.
- Verweij, D. (2007). Morele professionaliteit in de militaire praktijk. *Werkzame idealen: Ethische reflecties op professionaliteit* (pp. 126-138).
- Verweij, D. (2010). *Geweten onder schot: Ethiek en de militaire praktijk*. Amsterdam: Boom.
- Verweij, D., & Becker, M. (2006). Socrates in the Armed Forces: the Role of the Socratic Dialogue in the Military Training. In T. Van Baarda & D. Verweij (Eds.), *Military ethics: The Dutch approach*. (pp. 331-343). Leiden: Martinus Nijhoff.
- Verweij, D., Hofhuis, K., & Soeters, J. (2007). Moral judgement within the Armed Forces. *Journal of Military Ethics*, 6(1), 19-40.
- Vogelaar, A., & Dalenberg, S. (2011). On your own in the desert. In R. Beeres, J. Van der Meulen, & J. Soeters (Eds.), *Mission Uruzgan. Collaborating in multiple coalitions for Afghanistan*. (pp. 93-106). Amsterdam: Pallas Publications.

- Waldron, J., & Kowalski, C. (2009). Crossing the line; rites of passage, team aspects and the ambiguity of hazing. *Research Quarterly of Exercise and Sport*, 80(2).
- Wanberg, C. (2012). *The Oxford handbook of organizational socialization*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Wanberg, C., & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. (2000). Predictors and outcomes of proactivity in the socialization process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(3), 373-385.
- Wang, M., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., Liu, Y., & Li, Y. (2015). Context, socialization, and newcomer learning. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 5(1), 3-25.
- Wanous, J. (1980). *Organizational entry: Recruitment, selection, and socialization of newcomers*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co.
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. (1984). Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological bulletin*, 96(3), 465-490.
- Watson, D., & Hubbard, B. (1996). Adaptational style and dispositional structure: Coping in the context of the Five-Factor model. *Journal of personality*, 64(4), 737-774.
- Webb, T., & Sheeran, P. (2006). Does changing behavioral intentions engender behavior change? A meta-analysis of the experimental evidence. *Psychological bulletin*, 132(2), 249-268.
- Weber, C. (2012). *À genou les hommes, debout les officiers: La socialisation des Saint-Cyriens*. Rennes: Presses Universitaires de Rennes.
- Wegge, J., Van Dick, R., Fisher, G., Wecking, C., & Moltzen, K. (2006). Work motivation, organisational identification, and well-being in call centre work. *Work & Stress*, 20(1), 60-83.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological review*, 92(4), 548-573.
- Werdellis, S. (2008). Ethical education and character development in the Armed Forces of the Federal Republic of Germany. In P. Robinson, N. De Lee, & D. Carrick (Eds.), *Ethics Education in the Military* (pp. 103-107). Hampshire: Ashgate Publications Limited.
- Whyte, W., Greenwood, D., & Lazes, P. (1989). Participatory action research. *The American Behavioural Scientist*, 32(5).
- Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. (1992). The development of achievement task values: A theoretical analysis. *Developmental review*, 12(3), 265-310.
- Wilcox, A. (1997). Hazing is not a rite: Bonding ceremonies must work for us, not against us. *Proceedings: United States Naval Institute*, 123, 35-37.
- Winslow, D. (2004). Misplaced loyalties: the role of military culture in the breakdown of discipline in two peace operations. *Journal of Military and Strategic Studies*, 6(3), 1-18.
- Wintre, M., & Ben-Knaz, R. (2000). It's not academic, you're in the Army now: Adjustment to the Army as a comparative context for adjustment to university. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 15(1), 145-172.
- Wortel, E., & Bosch, J. (2011). Strengthening moral competence: A 'train the trainer' course on military ethics. *Journal of Military Ethics*, 10(1), 17-35.

- Wortel, E., & Verweij, D. (2008). Inquiry, criticism and reasonableness: Socratic dialogue as a research method. *Practical Philosophy*, 9(2), 54-72.
- Wouters, C. (1995). Etiquette books and emotion management in the 20<sup>th</sup> century: Part one: The integration of social classes. *Journal of Social History*, 107-124.
- Xiao, L., Han, J., & Han, J. (2011). The adjustment of new recruits to military life in the Chinese Army: The longitudinal predictive power of MMPI-2. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 19(4), 392-404.
- Yin, R. (2003). *Case study research: design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.
- Yukl, G. (2013). *Leadership in organizations*. Boston: Pearson.
- Zechmeister, J., Zechmeister, E., & Shaughnessy, J. (2000). *Essentials of research methods in psychology*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.



## Appendix A: Results of the GLM Repeated Measures Analyses

Comparing the means of outcome variables of the 2012 and the 2013 sample at moment of organizational entry, before and after the CCIP.

Enthusiasm		Maugly's sphericity	.91	P=.004	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	25.89	1	25.89	26.65	<.001
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	3.13	1.83	1.71	7.22	.001
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	23.83	1.83	13.03	55.03	<.001

Organizational knowledge		Maugly's sphericity	.79	P<.001	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	.83	1	.83	1.09	.30
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	239.78	1.65	145.30	393.48	<.001
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	9.20	1.65	5.58	15.10	<.001

Acquaintance with senior cadets		Maugly's sphericity	.95	P=.05	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	35.01	1	35.01	13.25	<.001
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	127.61	1.90	67.11	60.00	<.001
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	1.85	1.90	.97	.87	.42

Acquaintance with peers	Maugly's sphericity		.94	P=.03	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	179.05	1	179.05	440.29	<.001
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	206.35	1.89	109.23	433.91	<.001
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	114.97	1.89	60.86	241.77	<.001

Cohesion	Maugly's sphericity		.99	P=.65	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	4.62	2	4.62	11.15	<.001
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	4.69	1	4.69	25.41	<.001
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	2.83	2	1.41	8.28	<.001

\*For T1 at 2012 the mean cohesion has artificially been set at the mean of T1 at 2013 (= 3.71)

Hardiness	Maugly's sphericity		.86	P<.001	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	.19	1	.19	.74	.39
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	2.65	1.75	1.52	29.10	<.001
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	1.43	1.75	.82	15.71	<.001

Transformational leadership	Maugly's sphericity		.94	P=.04	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	2.74	1	2.74	15.37	<.001
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	.06	1.89	.03	.57	.56
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	.99	1.89	.52	10.30	<.001

Transactional leadership	Maugly's sphericity		.97	P=.19	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	.15	1	.15	.55	.46
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	1.20	2	.60	7.61	<.001
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	.25	2	.13	1.58	.21

Ethical leadership	Maugly's sphericity		.91	P=.01	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	1.13	1	1.13	4.52	.04
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	.80	1.84	.43	5.64	.01
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	.38	1.84	.21	2.73	.07

Cadets' oath	Maugly's sphericity		.93	P=.02	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	41.49	1	41.49	1.11	.30
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	267.23	1.88	142.48	6.81	.002
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	9.43	1.88	5.03	.24	.77

Cadets corps' ethos	Maugly's sphericity		.98	P=.24	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	156.86	1	156.86	.91	.34
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	22.85	2	11.43	.14	.87
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	396.47	2	198.24	2.42	.09

Moral Competence		Maugly's sphericity	.99	P=.58	
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Difference between 2012 and 2013 sample (Between subjects effects)	2.66	1	2.66	3.87	.05
Difference over time (T1-T2-T3) (Within subjects effects)	2.43	2	1.22	11.02	<.001
Difference over time but different for groups (T1,2,3 x CCIP year) (interaction development of variable with the CCIP sample)	.06	2	.03	.27	.76



## Appendix B: Items (in Dutch) and scales

Antecedents: measured at or before T<sub>1</sub>

### Personality traits (Hoekstra et al., 1996)

#### NEO Personality Inventory: with permission of the Defence recruitment and selection department

*Response options 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)*

*Data in stanines retrieved from Dutch Defence Selection Department.*

#### Achievement Motivation Test: with permission of the Defence recruitment and selection department

*Response options 1 (do not agree) to 5 (totally agree)*

*Data in stanines retrieved from Dutch Defence Selection Department.*

### Information seeking (self-constructed)

*Response options 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (totally agree)*

1. Ik heb uit mezelf moeite gedaan om informatie in te winnen
2. Ik ben door anderen gestimuleerd om informatie in te winnen (verwijderd na betrouwbaarheidsanalyse)
3. Ik vind het belangrijk om informatie over mijn taken in de opleiding te verkrijgen
4. Ik vind het belangrijk om informatie over Defensie als organisatie te verkrijgen
5. Ik vind het belangrijk om informatie over verwachtingen aan mij belangrijk te verkrijgen

### Personal need for structure (Rietzschel et al., 2007) translated

*Response options 1 (do not agree) to 5 (totally agree)*

1. Ik houd er niet van om in een situatie terecht te komen waarvan ik niet weet wat ik ervan kan verwachten
2. Het maakt mij niets uit als dingen mijn dagelijkse leven verstoren (positief hercoderen)
3. Ik geniet van een duidelijke en gestructureerde manier van leven
4. Ik vind het prettig als alles op z'n vaste plaats staat
5. Ik vind dat een goed geordend en regelmatig leven bij mijn aard past
6. Ik houd niet van onzekere situaties
7. Ik heb er een hekel aan om mijn plannen op het laatste moment te veranderen
8. Ik heb er een hekel aan om met onvoorspelbare mensen samen te zijn
9. Ik denk dat het tot stand brengen van een vaste routine me in staat stelt meer van het leven te genieten
10. Ik heb een hekel aan onvoorspelbare situaties
11. Ik vind het onprettig als de regels in een situatie niet duidelijk zijn

# **Need to belong: Self-Object Need Inventory (Canepa, 2011) translated**

*Response options 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much)*

1. Ik voel me rot als mijn prestaties niet voldoende gewaardeerd worden
2. Ik vind het belangrijk om bij mensen te zijn die hetzelfde meemaken als ik
3. Ik vind het moeilijk om iemand te raadplegen als ik een probleem heb
4. Door om te gaan met succesvolle mensen voel ik me ook succesvol
5. Ik heb de waardering van anderen niet nodig
6. Ik wil liever niet bij mensen zijn die dezelfde problemen hebben als ik
7. Ik ben teleurgesteld als mijn werk niet gewaardeerd wordt
8. Ik zoek mensen om me heen met dezelfde waarden en meningen
9. Ik vind het moeilijk om hulp te krijgen ook van mensen die respecteer
10. Ik identificeer me met beroemdheden
11. Ik functioneer niet goed als ik te weinig aandacht krijg
12. Ik vind het fijn bij een groep te horen met gezamenlijke gewoonten
13. Ik voel me rot als ik meer ervaren mensen heb geholpen
14. Ik vind het belangrijk dat ik op één lijn zit met een goede vriend
15. Als ik iets doe heb ik geen bevestiging van anderen nodig
16. Ik vind het vervelend om relaties te hebben met mensen die op mij lijken
17. Ik voel me aangetrokken tot succesvolle mensen
18. Ik hoef niet zo nodig op te scheppen over mijn prestaties
19. Ik voel mezelf beter als ik in de nabijheid ben van experts
20. Ik wil liever geen vrienden zijn met mensen die op mij lijken
21. Ik voel me beter als ik en een vriend hetzelfde denken over iemand anders
22. Ik vind het belangrijk om lid te zijn van een groep die gedeelde opvattingen
23. Het maakt mij niet uit wat anderen van me denken
24. Ik weet dat ik presteer, dus ik heb geen feedback nodig
25. Ik raak verveeld door mensen die teveel net zoals ik denken en voelen
26. Ik vind het belangrijk om bij mensen te zijn die ik zie als rolmodellen voor mij
27. Ik voel me sterker bij mensen die problemen ervaren die lijken op die van mij
28. Ik vind het moeilijk bij een groep te horen van mensen die teveel op mij lijken
29. Om me succesvol te voelen heb ik de bevestiging van anderen nodig
30. Als ik me zorgen maak helpt het advies van experts niet veel
31. Ik probeer bij mensen te zijn die ik bewonder
32. Ik haal zelfvertrouwen uit relaties met vrienden die mijn overtuigingen delen
33. Ik heb veel steun van anderen nodig
34. Ik vind het moeilijk om trots te zijn op de groepen waar ik bij hoor
35. Meestal vind ik dat ik niet genoeg waardering krijg van mijn 'chefs'
36. Ik vind het belangrijk om bij groepen te horen met een hoge status
37. Ik heb geen steun of aanmoediging van anderen nodig
38. Ik hoor liever niet bij een groep waarvan de gewoonten lijken op die van mij

Outcome variables: measured at T1, T2 and T3

### **Enthusiasm (self-constructed)**

*Response options 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (totally agree)*

1. Ik ben enthousiast over het cadettencorps
2. Ik wens deel te nemen aan door het corps georganiseerde activiteiten
3. Ik wil graag lid zijn van het cadettencorps
4. Ik wil graag iets betekenen voor het cadettencorps

### **Organizational knowledge (self-constructed)**

*Response options 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (totally agree)*

1. Ik ben op de hoogte van de normen en waarden van het cadettencorps
2. Ik ben op de hoogte van de gewoonten en gebruiken binnen het cadettencorps
3. Ik ben op de hoogte van de tradities binnen het cadettencorps
4. Ik ken de cadettenbelofte uit mijn hoofd
5. Ik ben op de hoogte van de historie van de KMA

### **Cohesion (derived from morale research: Van Boxmeer, L. et al., 2011)**

*Response options 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (totally agree)*

1. Ik kan goed opschieten met mijn groepsleden
2. Ik voel me verantwoordelijk voor mijn groepsleden
3. Ik ben trots op de leden van mijn groep
4. Ik denk dat het moreel in mijn groep hoog is
5. Ik zou extra risico nemen voor mijn groepsleden als dat nodig is

### **Acquaintance with senior cadets (self-constructed)**

*Response options 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (totally agree)*

1. Ik ken de ouderejaars cadetten op de KMA

### **Acquaintance with peers (self-constructed)**

*Response options 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (totally agree)*

1. Ik ken de mensen uit mijn peloton

### **Hardiness (self-constructed)**

*Response options 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (totally agree)*

1. Ik blijf rustig onder tijdsdruk
2. Ik ervaar regelmatig dat ik te veel werk heb (positief hercoderen)
3. Ik ben bereid risico's te nemen voor mijn taak
4. Ik hou het overzicht als er veel informatie is

5. Ik neem zelf een beslissing als ik tegenstrijdige informatie krijg
6. Ik word zenuwachtig als ik veel verschillende opdrachten krijg (positief hercoderen)
7. Ik reageer boos als iemand onredelijk is tegen mij (positief hercoderen)
8. Ik ervaar nooit angst (verwijderd na betrouwbaarheidsanalyse)
9. Als ik iets spannend vind, word ik passief (positief hercoderen)
10. Ik ben in staat moeilijke opdrachten vol te houden
11. Ik hou het lang vol als ik fysieke zware taken moet uitvoeren
12. Ik accepteer tegenslagen zonder klagen
13. Ik kan anderen motiveren als ik het zelf zwaar heb
14. Ik uit mijn ongenoegen vaker als ik moe ben (positief hercoderen)
15. Ik word chagrijnig als ik weinig slaap (positief hercoderen)
16. Ik krijg eerder ruzie als ik geen privacy heb (positief hercoderen)
17. Ik maak zware taken af ook al lukt het niet direct
18. Ik blijf actief bezig ondanks tegenslagen
19. Ik zie eerder kansen dan bedreigingen

## 260

### Leadership

**MLQ5x (Avolio et al., 2004) permission granted from Mind Garden, Inc. on April 17, 2012**

Response options 0 (does not apply to me) to 4 (totally applies to me)

### **Ethical Leadership at Work (Kalshoven, 2010).**

Response options 1 (does not apply to me) to 5 (totally applies to me)

### **Adherence to values (self-constructed)**

Response options: 10 out of 40 values have to be determined as important to the participant and ranked from 1 as least important to 10 for the most important. Cadet Corps' values are marked here but were blank in the questionnaire.

Waarde	Persoonlijke score	Waarde	Persoonlijke score
Vertrouwen		Optimisme	
Eer		Waardering	
Macht		Rechtvaardigheid	
Creativiteit		Respect	
Eerlijkheid		Verantwoordelijkheid	
Rijkdom		Goede Stijl (gedrag & kleding)	
Discipline		Collegialiteit	
Gehoorzaamheid		Inzet	
Persoonlijke ontwikkeling		Hoop	
Zekerheid		Vriendschap	
Moed		Wijsheid	
Uitdaging		Zelfkennis	
Ontspanning		Gelijkwaardigheid	
Avontuur		Gezondheid	
Spiritualiteit		Succes	
Flexibiliteit		Plezier	
Zelfbeheersing		Dienstbaarheid	
Saamhorigheid		Trouw	
Loyaliteit		Integriteit	
Humor		Liefde	
Vaderlandsliefde		Zorgzaamheid	

### Moral Competence (Oprins et al., 2011)

Response options 0 (never) to 6 (always)

- Ik ben me bewust van mijn normen en waarden
- Ik weet welke waarden voor mij belangrijk zijn
- Waar ik voor sta heb ik scherp voor ogen
- Ik ben me bewust van de gedragscode in mijn omgeving
- Ik denk van tevoren na over hoe ik me gedraag in bepaalde situaties
- Ik vergelijk mijn normen en waarden met die van anderen
- Bij een probleem vergelijk ik normen en waarden van alle betrokkenen
- Ik heb het door wanneer mijn collega's geen respect tonen voor anderen
- Het is voor mij makkelijk om te bepalen of een van mijn collega's te ver gaat
- Ik heb het door wanneer we met zijn allen over de grens dreigen te gaan
- Ik weet wanneer ik word overgehaald om iets te doen waar ik het niet mee eens ben
- Ik heb een duidelijke mening over dingen doen die te ver gaan
- Ik voel me boos of geschokt als iets gebeurt dat ingaat tegen mijn normen en waarden
- Ik keur het gedrag van mijn collega's af als dat niet door de beugel kan
- Als ik twijfel of iets goed of fout is dan bespreek ik dat
- Ik zeg waar het op staat als ik het niet eens ben met het gedrag van collega's
- Ik bespreek in mijn omgeving welk gedrag wel en niet oké is

18. Ik stel vragen aan anderen over hun persoonlijke normen en waarden
19. Ik meld het als iemand in mijn omgeving zich verkeerd gedraagt
20. Ik houd mezelf tegen als ik op het punt sta iets verkeerd te doen
21. Ik grijp in als ik iets zie gebeuren dat niet door de beugel kan
22. Wat ik doe volgt uit welke waarden ik belangrijk vind
23. Ik vertel mijn omgeving hoe ik over zaken denk, ook als dat schokkend is
24. Ik voel me rot als ik dingen heb gedaan die ingaan tegen mijn normen en waarden
25. Ik denk op rustige momenten terug aan de gevolgen van mijn acties
26. Ik neem persoonlijk verantwoordelijkheid voor al mijn acties
27. Voor mij geldt: 'Wat ik doe daar sta ik voor'
28. Als ik iets niet goed gedaan heb geef ik dat toe

## Appendix C: Observation list CCIP

Beschrijf waarnemingen gedetailleerd en waardeer met een + of -

Activiteit:

Moment (dag/tijdstip):

Gedrag ouderejaars/coördinator:

Reactie Nocol:

Relatie met waarden cadettencorps:

Relatie met enthousiasme voor cadetten corps:

Relatie met saamhorigheid/kamerschap

Relatie met mentale weerbaarheid:

Relatie met realistisch beeld van officierschap:

Relatie met leiderschapsgedrag:

Relatie met voorbeeldgedrag van ouderejaars:

Relatie met moreel verantwoord gedrag:

Waarden cadetten corps:

Handel in de geest van de cadettenbelofte:

Ik beloof te allen tijde **eerlijk** te zijn, **trouw** aan het corps en **gehoorzaam** aan de Senaat.

Toon **respect** en **verdraagzaamheid**

Houd waardevolle **tradities in ere**

Toon **inzet** en **creativiteit**

Toon **collegialiteit** en breng **saamhorigheid**

Neem je eigen **verantwoordelijkheid**

Kleed en gedraag u **netjes**

Waarnemingen van adaptatie of conformerend gedrag

- Overnemen gewoonten / gebruiken
- Overnemen taalgebruik
- Doorzetten/ volharden
- Behulpzaamheid naar jaargenoten
- Humor
- Enthousiasme
- Initiatief/ leiderschap
- Creativiteit
- Kennis van historie
- (morele) verantwoordelijkheid nemen





## Appendix D: Semi structured interview protocol

1. Naam en eenheid (indien gewenst mag u anoniem blijven, uw gegevens worden in elk geval anoniem verwerkt)
2. Wat vond u van de Co-tijd?
  - a. Wat is het nut ervan?
  - b. Zijn er ongewenste effecten?
  - c. Waarom vindt u dat?
3. Wat heeft u geleerd tijdens de Co-tijd?
  - a. Is dat anders dan wat u vooraf had verwacht?
  - b. Is het anders dan wat u in de weken voorafgaand heeft geleerd?
  - c. Wat is er dan precies anders?
4. Vindt u dat de Co-tijd bijdraagt aan het officerschap?
  - a. Waarom vindt u dat?
  - b. Wat is die bijdrage?
  - c. Wat mist er?
5. Bent u enthousiast geworden voor het cadetten corps door de Co-tijd?
  - a. Was u vooraf meer of minder enthousiast?
  - b. Kunt u uitleggen hoe dat komt?
  - c. Bent u al naar corpsverenigingen gegaan ter oriëntatie, of om lid te worden?
6. Hoe goed kent u uw directe collega's (jaargenoten)?
  - a. In welke mate heeft u contact met ouderejaars?
  - b. Met wie hebt u nog meer contact?
7. Zijn uw waarden, of uw perceptie van normen en waarden veranderd door de Co-tijd of door het IP?
  - a. Waar merkt u aan dat er wel of geen verandering heeft plaatsgevonden?
  - b. Welke waarden zijn voor u belangrijk?
8. Is uw gedrag veranderd na de Co-tijd in vergelijking met uw gedrag voor opkomst?
  - a. Waar merkt u aan dat er wel of geen verschil is?
  - b. Wat zijn de verschillen precies, kunt u voorbeelden geven?
9. Gedraagt u zich als (aspirant) officier?
  - a. Weet u wat er van u verwacht wordt?
  - b. Bent u weleens aangesproken op uw gedrag na de Co-tijd?
  - c. Spreekt u anderen weleens aan op hun gedrag als dat niet conform de norm is?

10. Wat heeft u geleerd over leiderschap voor, tijdens en na de Co-tijd?
  - a. In welke mate draagt de Co-tijd bij aan leiderschapsontwikkeling volgens u?
  - b. Weinig bijdragen behalve het leren voor de groep staan.
11. Wat heeft u geleerd over ethiek (normen en waarden/ verantwoord gedrag) voor tijdens en na de Co-tijd.
  - a. In welke mate draagt de Co-tijd bij aan uw morele ontwikkeling volgens u?
12. Is er verder nog iets dat u kwijt wilt?

## Appendix E: Gedragscode Defensie

Defensie staat voor vrede en veiligheid, in eigen land en daarbuiten. Wij leveren een bijdrage aan stabiliteit en vrijheid in de wereld en dienen daarmee de samenleving. Defensie is snel en flexibel inzetbaar en kan overal ter wereld optreden, ook onder de zwaarste omstandigheden. In nauwe samenwerking met anderen en gesterkt door een rotsvast vertrouwen in elkaar. Defensie wil een betrouwbare werkgever zijn. Defensiepersoneel is goed opgeleid en getraind, uitgerust met modern materieel. De militair kan indien nodig verantwoord omgaan met geweld. In het uiterste geval met gevaar voor eigen leven. Dat is Defensie.

Deze kernboodschap is voor het personeel vertaald in een defensie brede gedragscode die uitgaat van de eigen verantwoordelijkheid en staat voor professioneel gedrag, fatsoenlijke omgangsvormen en goede samenwerking. De code is een onderlinge afspraak en is gebaseerd op vijf pijlers:

### **1. Ik maak deel uit van een professionele organisatie. [I am part of a professional organization]**

*Ik houd mijn kennis en vaardigheden, zowel vakinhoudelijk als sociaal, op het vereiste peil. Daardoor kan ik, ook onder moeilijke omstandigheden, mijn taken goed uitvoeren.*

Toelichting: Wij vinden het normaal dat we in ons dagelijks werk voldoende verantwoordelijkheden en bevoegdheden krijgen. Wij willen dat ook. Wij zijn immers volwassen en professioneel met ons werk bezig. Onze verantwoordelijkheden gaan verder dan onze directe taken. Defensie schept de randvoorwaarden voor een professionele, veilige en plezierige werk- en leefomgeving. Maar we zijn zelf verantwoordelijk voor het op peil houden van onze kennis, vaardigheden en fysieke conditie. We houden rekening met de mensen om ons heen en zijn steeds bereid rekenschap te geven over gemaakte keuzes. We nemen de regels in acht zonder ons erachter te verschuilen.

### **2. Ik ben lid van een team met een gemeenschappelijke taak. [I am a member of a team with a shared task]**

*Ik werk samen met collega's en ben mede verantwoordelijk voor hen en het team. Ik spreek anderen aan op hun gedrag en accepteer dat anderen mij op mijn gedrag aanspreken.*

Toelichting: Wij maken deel uit van een team met één taak of doelstelling, gebaseerd op wederzijds vertrouwen. Dat betekent dat we geregeld onze eigen belangen ondergeschikt maken aan de belangen van het team. Binnen het team hebben we allemaal een eigen

taak. Toch zijn we niet alleen verantwoordelijk voor ons eigen gedrag, we dragen medeverantwoordelijkheid voor wat de anderen in ons team doen. Het beste resultaat behalen we alleen als we elkaar scherp houden en als we elkaar durven coachen en durven aanspreken op de kwaliteit van het werk en op ons gedrag. Leidinggevend in onze organisatie hebben een bijzondere verantwoordelijkheid. Zij geven te allen tijde het goede voorbeeld. Zij durven de leiding ook daadwerkelijk te nemen. Tegelijkertijd geven zij teamleden ruimte voor inbreng.

### **3. Ik ben mij bewust van mijn verantwoordelijkheid. [I am aware of my responsibility]**

*Ik schaad de belangen van Defensie niet en geef in houding, voorkomen en gedrag het goede voorbeeld. Ik ga verantwoord om met defensiemiddelen en gebruik deze zorgvuldig en rechtmatig.*

Toelichting: Wij staan voor vrede en veiligheid en dat brengt specifieke verantwoordelijkheden met zich mee. Negatieve gedragingen van de individuele defensiemedewerker hebben, meer nog dan bij andere organisaties, een negatieve uitstraling op de overige medewerkers en op de Defensie als geheel. Wij realiseren ons dat we voor de buitenwereld 24 uur per dag, 7 dagen per week defensiemedewerker zijn. Wij gaan verantwoord om met gemeenschapsgeld.

### **4. Ik ben integer en behandel iedereen met respect. [I am integer and treat everyone with respect]**

*Ik accepteer geen ongewenst gedrag zoals discriminatie, (seksuele) intimidatie en pesten, niet ten aanzien van mijzelf of anderen. Ik houd mij aan de geldende wetten en regels en misbruik mijn macht of positie niet.*

Toelichting: Wij zijn eerlijk, oprecht, betrouwbaar en zorgvuldig. We maken deel uit van een organisatie die veiligheid creëert. We accepteren dat we daarbij fysiek gevaar kunnen lopen. Dat kan alleen vanuit een sociaal veilige werkomgeving. We versterken het team door ons te realiseren dat we niet allemaal hetzelfde zijn maar wel gelijkwaardig. We behandelen anderen met respect zoals wij ook met respect behandeld willen worden.

### **5. Ik zorg voor een veilige werkomgeving. [I provide a safe and secure working environment]**

*Ik voel mij verantwoordelijk voor de veiligheid van anderen en mijzelf. Dit geldt voor alle vormen van veiligheid, zoals operationele veiligheid, informatieveiligheid en veilige arbeidsomstandigheden. Ik laat mij niet in met drugs. Alcohol mag nooit invloed hebben op mijn functioneren.*

Toelichting: We werken met wapens en met zwaar materieel. We oefenen bij nacht en ontij. We treden bij ernstoperaties klok rond op onder fysiek en mentaal zware omstandigheden. We kunnen dat alleen maar succesvol doen als we oog hebben voor de veiligheid van anderen

en onszelf. Daarin passen geen drugs. Gebruik en bezit van of handel in drugs zijn dan ook verboden. Ook alcohol kan onze veiligheid in gevaar brengen. Het gebruik van alcohol tijdens operaties, oefeningen en dienst uitoefening is daarom niet toegestaan tenzij na uitdrukkelijke toestemming van de bevoegd commandant.



## Appendix F: Web sources

### USA

<http://www.usma.edu/uscc/SitePages/Home.aspx>  
<http://millennialmainframer.com/2013/12/mainframes-at-west-point/>  
<http://foreignpolicy.com/2011/12/02/hazing-vs-leadership-some-thoughts-on-getting-my-arm-broken-at-west-point-2/>  
<http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2009/01/29/AR2009012904135.html>  
<http://www.citadel.edu/root/>

### France

<http://www.saint-cyr.org/fr/accueil,2.html>

### Germany

<http://www.deutschesheer.de/portal/a/heer/Dienststellen> > Ausbildungskommando > Ausbildungseinrichtungen > Offizierschule des Heeres  
<http://foreignpolicy.com/2011/09/09/an-elusive-command-philosophy-and-a-different-command-culture/>  
<http://www.dw.com/en/guttenberg-promises-inquiry-amid-more-reports-of-hazing-in-german-military/a-5279559>  
<http://www.ethik-der-deutschen-offiziere.de/>

### Australia

Former ADF recruits tell royal commission of sexual abuse, intimidation at WA naval base  
<http://www.abc.net.au/news/2016-06-21/adf-abuse-survivor-says-life-on-naval-base-was-sheer-hell/7528352>  
<http://www.army.gov.au/Army-life/Army-careers/ADFA>

### Great Britain

[http://www.army.mod.uk/training\\_education/24475.aspx](http://www.army.mod.uk/training_education/24475.aspx)  
<http://uk.answers.yahoo.com/question/index?qid=20090417123949AAUQdYG>

### Belgium

<http://www.rma.ac.be/nl/>  
[https://nl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Koninklijke\\_Militaire\\_School\\_\(Belgi%C3%AB\)](https://nl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Koninklijke_Militaire_School_(Belgi%C3%AB))  
<http://alter-sciencebioscience.blogspot.nl/2012/05/hoofdstuk-ii-het-leven-in-de.html>

### **The Netherlands**

<http://www.trouw.nl/tr/nl/5009/Archief/article/detail/2603848/1994/07/23/KMA-is-een-gesloten-bastion-dat-dringend-moet-veranderen-IN-De-auteur-is-historicus-en-was-tussen-1991-en-1993-als-dienstplichtig-officier-verbonden-aan-de-staf-van-de-Directie-Operaties-te-Den-Haag.dhtml>

All web sources are visited in the period 2012-2015.



## Appendix G: Drop-out analyses

For the 2012 sample, 45 out of 175 recruits participated at T1, T2 and T3. An ANOVA comparison of means of demographical and dependent variables has been conducted to examine whether there are differences between the group that participated at all times or only at one or two times.

T-test comparison of demographical and dependent variables at T1 in 2012 for the drop-out versus the research sample.

	Drop-out sample (N=130)	Research sample (N=45)	t	df
Demographical variables				
Age (per August 2012)	20.75	21.44	-1.42	172
Prior service experience	.36	.41	-.23	116
Prior work experience	2.15	2.30	-.31	170
Dependent variables				
Enthusiasm for the cadets corps	4.08	3.79	1.97	170
Knowledge of history and traditions	2.70	2.65	.34	169
Cohesion	-	-	-	-
Hardiness	3.90	3.91	-.06	173
Transactional leadership	1.95	1.96	-.15	119
Transformational leadership	2.66	2.58	.85	118
Ethical leadership	3.84	3.76	.73	117
Ethos oath	7.19	8.27	-1.26	173
Ethos Corps	19.35	19.71	-.26	173
Moral Competence	4.36	4.29	.67	172

\*p<.05

For the 2013 sample, 77 out of 161 recruits participated at T1, T2 and T3. An ANOVA comparison of means of demographical and dependent variables has been conducted to examine whether there are differences between the group that participated at all times or only at one or two times.

T-test comparison of demographical and dependent variables at T1 in 2013 for the drop-out versus the research sample.

	Drop-out sample (N=84)	Research sample (N=77)	t	df
Demographical variables				
Age (per August 2013)	22,44	22,08	.58	155
Prior service experience	1,90	,52	2.81*	156
Prior work experience	2,12	3,27	-3.16*	149
Dependent variables				
Enthusiasm for the cadets corps	3,63	3,88	-2.03	158
Knowledge of history and traditions	2,04	2,11	-.64	159
Cohesion	3,75	3,95	-2.5*	159
Hardiness	3,64	3,65	-.14	159
Transactional leadership	2,02	1,99	.46	158
Transformational leadership	2,68	2,71	-.69	158
Ethical leadership	3,73	3,75	-.26	157
Ethos oath	8,28	7,73	.58	159
Ethos Corps	25,87	21,44	1.84	159
Moral Competence	4,26	4,33	-.88	158

\*p<.05

## About the author



Sander Dalenberg (on the left as a cadet in the CCIP at the KMA), born in Celle (1973), is an officer and psychologist in the Netherlands Army. After his officer education (1992-1995), he started his career as a commander of a tank platoon. After a mission to Bosnia, he reluctantly accepted a function as platoon commander of a training unit. Surprisingly, this job taught him that he enjoyed teaching young men and women how to become a soldier. At that time, he had already felt the urge to return to the KMA to become a teacher for young men and women who wished to become officers. Besides his growing affection for teaching, he became more interested in the causes and effects of human behaviour and thus decided to study organizational psychology. As a military psychologist, he was team leader of a military selection unit where he learned that being in charge of psychologists in reorganizations was far more complicated than being in charge of soldiers in military operations. In the capacity of researcher for the Defence Service Centre of Behavioural Sciences he went abroad quite a few times to assess the morale of the Dutch units employed as Liaison and Observation Teams in Bosnia and as Task Force Uruzgan and the Air Task Force in Afghanistan. Several coaching sessions with Task Force staff, battalion, company and platoon commanders taught him that it is an honour to be commander of units that work as hard as our Dutch units did, but moreover, it is often lonely at the top. His enthusiasm to share his knowledge about leadership, combined with the fact that he wanted to teach aspirant officers, resulted in him taking up the offer for a position as lecturer in leadership and ethics at the Faculty of Military Sciences. During his time as an assistant professor he was deployed for seven months as military adviser for UNAMA in Afghanistan. Currently he is head of the knowledge centre in the Defence Leadership Centre of Expertise. In everyday life, Sander Dalenberg is also the loving husband of Annemieke and the proud father of Joris and Merel.



## Publications:

Dalenberg, S. (2017). Officer Socialization as Prelude to In Extremis Leadership. In: Holenweger, M., Jager, M. & Kernic, F. (eds.) *Leadership in Extreme Situations*. Springer, Cham. pp. 323-246

Dalenberg, S. (2016). Ontgroening van de Co-tijd. *Militaire Spectator* 185 -11 pp. 440-451.

Beersma, B., Greer, L., Dalenberg, S. & De Dreu, C. (2016). Need for Structure as Asset and Liability in Dynamic Teams. *Group Dynamics; Theory research and practice*. Vol 20, Issue 1 pp. 16-33.

Dalenberg, S. & Jansen, M. (2015). Two Ways of Leaving: A Comparative Case Study on Exit Strategies of a UN and a NATO Led Mission. In Noll, J., Wollenberg, D., Osinga, F., Frerks, G. & Kemenade, I. (eds.) *Netherlands Annual Review of Military Studies*. Asser Press, The Hague pp. 217-245.

Dalenberg, S., Folkerts, I. & Bijlsma, T. (2014). Nieuwe Leiderschapsvisie Defensie. *Militaire Spectator* 183 - 1 pp. 26-39.

Dalenberg, S. & Op den Buijs, T. (2013). Military Socialization Effects and Effective Leadership Behaviour in Operations. In: Amersfoort, Moelker, Soeters & Verweij (eds) *Moral Responsibility and Effectiveness*, *Netherlands Annual Review of Military Studies*. Asser Press, The Hague pp. 97-116.

Verweij, D. & Dalenberg, S. (2013). Meer grip op ontgroeningen, OPLINIE maart 2013 pp. 12-14.

Dalenberg, S. & Vogelaar, A. (2012). Leiderschapsvisie; theorie en praktijk. *Militaire Spectator* 181 - 5 pp. 221-230.

Vogelaar, A. & Dalenberg, S. (2011). On your own in the desert; the dynamics of self-steering leadership. In: Beeres, R., Van der Meulen, J., Soeters, J. & Vogelaar, A. *Mission Uruzgan*. Amsterdam University Press, Amsterdam pp. 93-106.

Dalenberg, S., Vogelaar, A. & Beersma, B. (2009). The effect of a team strategy discussion on military team performance. *Military Psychology* 21 issue S2 pp. 31-46.



