



Sodobni vojaški izzivi

Contemporary Military Challenges

Znanstveno-strokovna publikacija Slovenske vojske

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VOJAŠKO IZOBRAŽEVANJE IN USPOSABLJANJE

»Usposabljanje in izobraževanje sta dve različni stvari. Z usposabljanjem si pridobiš veščine za opravljanje konkretnih nalog, medtem ko ti izobraževanje zagotavlja akademsko teoretično znanje za reševanje različnih problemov.«

Višji štabni vodnik Juan Lopez

MILITARY EDUCATION AND TRAINING

»Training and education are two different things. Training gives you a skill set to perform a specific task. Education provides you with academic theory for problem-solving issues.«

Master Sgt. Juan Lopez

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VSEBINA

CONTENTS

Liliana Brožič	7 UVODNIK VOJAŠKO IZOBRAŽEVANJE IN USPOSABLJANJE
Liliana Brožič	11 EDITORIAL MILITARY EDUCATION AND TRAINING
Olivian Stānicā	13 GLOBALNI USPEH EVROPE 2020 – PREOBLIKOVANJE SISTEMOV IZOBRAŽEVANJA, TUDI VOJAŠKEGA? GLOBAL SUCCESS OF »EUROPE 2020« – REMODELLING EDUCATION SYSTEMS, EVEN MILITARY ONES?
Darko Trifunović	27 VARNOSTNE ŠTUDIJE – SINTEZA AKADEMSKEGA ZNANJA IN PRAKSE SECURITY STUDIES – SYNTHESIS BETWEEN ACADEMY AND PRACTICE
Slavko Angelevski Metodi Hadji-Janev	41 SODOBNI IZZIVI VOJAŠKEGA IZOBRAŽEVANJA – PRIMER MAKEDONSKE VOJAŠKE AKADEMIJE CONTEMPORARY CHALLENGES IN MILITARY EDUCATION – MACEDONIAN MILITARY ACADEMY IN THE CONTEXT

Vinko Vegič Stojan Zabukovec	57 IZOBRAŽEVANJE ČASTNIKOV – OD RAZPRAV O ORGANIZIRANOSTI K RAZMISLEKU O VSEBINAH OFFICER EDUCATION – FROM DISCUSSIONS ON THE ORGANIZATION TO THE CONSIDERATION OF CONTENTS
Miha Rijavec	75 PRIHODNOST SISTEMA KARIERNE POTI ČASTNIKA V SLOVENSKI VOJSKI FUTURE OF THE OFFICER CAREER DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM IN THE SLOVENIAN ARMED FORCES
Viktor Potočnik	97 POVELJEVANJE Z NAMERO IN SLOVENSKA VOJSKA AUFTRAGSTAKTIK – MISSION COMMAND IN THE SLOVENIAN ARMED FORCES
	113 AVTORJI AUTHORS
	120 NAVODILA AVTORJEM ZA OBLIKOVANJE PRISPEVKOV
	125 INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE AUTHORS OF PAPERS

UVODNIK

VOJAŠKO IZOBRAŽEVANJE IN USPOSABLJANJE

Veliko je že bilo napisanega o pomenu vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja od nastanka samostojne Slovenije. Mogoče se bo kdo vprašal, zakaj ponovno odpirati to temo, kdo drug pa bo pomislil, da o tem že nekaj časa ni bilo nič napisanega. Neodvisno od pristopa gre za zelo dinamično področje, na katerem se veliko dogaja in tako tudi spreminja, še posebej, ko gre za aktivnosti v okviru klasičnega vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja, mednarodnih vojaških vaj ali pa sodelovanja v mednarodnih operacijah in na misijah.

Lani je v Slovenski vojski nastala Doktrina vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja. Takratni minister jo je podpisal 15. marca 2013. Doktrina je odraz sprememb, ki jih je bolonjski proces prinesel v evropsko okolje. Lahko pa bi tudi rekli, da je evropski duh z bolonjskim procesom zasejal željo in nujo biti bolj primerljiv, povezljiv in kakovosten.

Kakovost izobraževanja, usposabljanja in izpopolnjevanja dobiva pomen tako v Evropski uniji kot tudi v zavezništvu. Z vedno večjim povezovanjem in preglednostjo izobraževalnih institucij se vedno bolj brišejo meje ter pregrade med javnimi in vojaškimi izobraževalnimi institucijami. Med enimi in drugimi sicer so vsebinske razlike, vsi pa želimo biti najboljši.

Ne glede na mednarodne povezave pa so temelji javnih in vojaških izobraževalnih institucij v domeni posamezne države. Ta je vedno tista, ki omogoča, usmerja in zagotavlja organizacijske, vsebinske in finančne pogoje za delovanje in predvsem razvoj takih institucij. V njih nastaja naša skupna prihodnost.

Že nekaj časa vemo, da je za izobraževanje v najširšem smislu vedno manj sredstev, kar je pravzaprav razlog več za dvig njegove kakovosti in večji izkoristek notranjih potencialov.

Kaj je torej novega v vojaškem izobraževanju?

Kakšen je pogled na prihodnost vojaškega izobraževanja v povezavi z zadnjimi evropskimi trendi v Romuniji in romunski vojski, nam predstavlja **Olivian Stănică** v članku z naslovom *Globalni uspeh Evrope 2020 – preoblikovanje sistemov izobraževanja, tudi vojaškega?*

Darko Trifunović iz Srbije v članku *Varnostne študije – sinteza akademskega znanja in prakse* na primeru »Arabske pomladi« opozarja na različne konfliktno situacije v svetu in na načine njihovega reševanja. Ali izobraževalni sistemi spremljajo in vključujejo najnovejša spoznanja iz prakse, je ključno vprašanje za njihovo kakovost.

Makedonski pristop k razvoju vojaškega izobraževalnega sistema sta opisala **Slavko Angelevski** in **Metodi Hadji-Janev** v članku z naslovom *Sodobni izzivi vojaškega izobraževanja – primer Makedonske vojaške akademije*. Pravita, da je na ponovno opredelitev vloge in pristojnosti Vojaške akademije Generala Mihaila Apostolskega v Skopju najbolj vplivala dinamika transformacijskih procesov v zavezništvu in tudi v Makedoniji.

Za slovenski pogled na vojaško izobraževanje in usposabljanje sta se odločila **Vinko Vegič** in **Stojan Zabukovec**, ki v članku z naslovom *Izobraževanje častnikov: od razprav o organiziranosti k razmisleku o vsebinah* poudarjata pomen uvedbe večje kakovosti na vseh ravneh vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja. Posebej se osredotočata na vlogo in pomen kakovosti izvajalcev.

Miha Rijavec v članku *Prihodnost sistema karijerne poti častnika v Slovenski vojski* izhaja iz nedavnih organizacijskih sprememb v Slovenski vojski in predlaga uvedbo nekaterih dobrih praks iz britanske vojske, za katere meni, da bi v sistemu kariernih poti slovenskih častnikov prinesle dodano vrednost.

»Auftragstaktik« je izraz v nemškem jeziku za načela doktrine, ki so plod pruskonemške vojaške šole. V slovenščini tej besedi še najbolj ustreza izraz poveljevanje z namero. To je spodbudilo k pisanju **Viktorja Potočnika**, ki se je temi posvetil v članku z naslovom *Poveljevanje z namero in Slovenska vojska*.

Upamo, da smo s predstavljenimi vsebinami prispevali k razvoju vojaške znanstvene in strokovne misli. Še posebej si želimo spodbuditi k pisanju vse tiste, ki vas vojaške teme zanimajo. Mogoče sem in tja včasih pomislite, da bi kaj napisali o vojaški temi, ki jo res dobro poznate, na voljo pa ni prav veliko literature o njej. To bi utegnil biti dober razlog in hkrati dodatna spodbuda za pisanje.

EDITORIAL

MILITARY EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Much has already been written on the importance of military education and training since the creation of the independent Slovenia. Some may wonder why to re-open this topic, while others might think that nothing has been written on the issue in a while. Irrespective of the approach, this is a very dynamic area, filled with action and changes, especially with regard to activities in the context of the classic military education and training, international military exercises, and participation in international operations and missions.

Last year, the Slovenian Armed Forces adopted the Doctrine of Military Education and Training. It was signed by the then minister on 15 March 2013. The Doctrine reflects the changes that the Bologna Process has brought into the European environment. It could be said that the Bologna Process planted the desire and necessity in the European spirit to be more comparable, interoperable and of higher quality.

The quality of education, training and advanced training is gaining importance in both the European Union and the Alliance. Increasing integration and transparency of educational institutions are blurring the boundaries and divisions between the public and military educational institutions. There are substantive differences between the two, while the common objective is being the best.

Regardless of the international links, the foundations of the public and military educational institutions are in the domain of individual countries. These are always the ones that allow, direct and provide the organizational, substantive and financial conditions for the operation and, in particular, the development of such institutions in which our common future is being developed.

It has been known for some time that there is a constant decrease in educational resources in the broadest sense, which is a reason more for increasing the quality of education and better utilizing the internal potentials.

What, therefore, is new in military education and training?

The future vision of military education in relation to the latest European trends in Romania and the Romanian Armed Forces is presented by **Olivian Stănică** in his paper titled *Global Success of “Europe 2020” – Remodelling Education Systems, Even Military Ones?*.

In his paper *Security Studies – Synthesis between Academy and Practice*, **Darko Trifunović**, Serbia, points to various conflict situations in the world and the ways to resolve them, building on the example of the “Arab Spring”. The key quality issue is whether the education systems follow and include the latest knowledge acquired from practice.

The Macedonian approach to the development of the military education system is described by **Slavko Angelevski** and **Metodi Hadji-Janev** in their paper titled *Contemporary Challenges in Military Education – Macedonian Military Academy in the Context*. They claim that the redefinition of the role and responsibilities of the Military Academy “General Mihailo Apostolski” in Skopje was most affected by the dynamics of the transformation processes in the Alliance and Macedonia.

The Slovenian view of military education and training is presented by **Vinko Vegič** and **Stojan Zabukovec** who, in the paper titled *Officer Education: From Discussions on the Organization to the Consideration of Contents*, emphasize the importance of higher quality at all levels of military education and training. Particular focus is placed on the role and importance of quality providers.

Miha Rijavec, in his paper titled *Future of the Officer Career Development System in the Slovenian Armed Forces*, derives from the recent organizational changes in the Slovenian Armed Forces and proposes the introduction of several best practises from the British Army, which he believes would bring added value to the Slovenian officer career development system.

“Auftragstaktik” is a German term for the doctrine principles which are the product of the Prussian-German military school. In English, the term best suited to this expression is mission command. This prompted the writing of **Viktor Potočnik**, who addressed the topic in his paper titled *Auftragstaktik/Mission Command in the Slovenian Armed Forces*.

We hope that the content presented above contributes to the development of military scientific and professional thought. We particularly want to encourage all those who are interested in military topics. Perhaps, here and there, you sometimes think

of writing something on a military topic you are well familiar with, but there is not much literature on your topic. This might be a good reason and an additional incentive for writing.

GLOBALNI USPEH EVROPE 2020 – PREOBLIKOVANJE SISTEMOV IZOBRAŽEVANJA, TUDI VOJAŠKEGA?

GLOBAL SUCCESS OF »EUROPE 2020« – REMODELLING EDUCATION SYSTEMS, EVEN MILITARY ONES?

»Moč vsake vojske se meri
z vrednostjo njenega poveljnika in častnikov.«
M. Kemal ATATÜRK

*»The power of an army is measured
with the value of its commander and officers.«*
M. Kemal ATATÜRK

Povzetek Po napovedih naj bi se v letih 2020–2025 sistem izobraževanja razlikoval od današnjega, saj bo za mlado generacijo zaradi različnih vplivov novih tehnologij treba oblikovati nov nabor znanja, spretnosti in kompetenc, nove izobraževalne programe ali vrste izobraževalnih programov, nove poti in ustvarjalne načine učenja in ocenjevanja ter različne vloge učiteljev oziroma inštruktorjev in izobraževalnih ustanov.

Spodbujanje evropske varnostne kulture z vojaškim izobraževanjem na vseh stopnjah vojaške poklicne poti zahteva skupen pristop. V nacionalnih izobraževalnih sistemih, kot so izobraževalni sistemi v Evropski uniji, obstaja jasna težnja k poučevanju in učenju, ki temelji na spretnostih, ter k ciljno naravnemu pristopu k učenju, ki naj bi izrecno izražal resnične potrebe upravičencev.

Pri vseh evropskih oboroženih silah že več let poteka transformacija. Njihova vojaška moč se je zaradi spreminjajočih se groženj in novih poslanstev zmanjšala. Pri strateškem načrtovanju, konvencijah in procesih oborožene sile upoštevajo izzive, s katerimi se spopada njihovo vojaško osebje (častniki, podčastniki, vojaški specialisti in poklicni vojaki), zato morajo biti v sodobni sistem vojaškega izobraževanja vedno nujno vključene tudi značilnosti vojne v smislu kompleksnosti in neizpodbitne negotovosti.

Ključne besede *Izobraževanje, usposabljanje, transformacija, izobraževalni program, znanje, spretnosti, kompetence.*

Abstract For 2020-2025, according to forecasts, the education system will be different from today, because it will be necessary for a new set of skills and competencies to be developed among the young generation, new curricula or types of curricula, new paths and innovative ways of learning and assessment, different roles for teachers/instructors and educational institutions as a result of the different impacts of the new technologies.

Promoting a European security culture through military education at all levels of the military career will require a common approach. In national education systems, as in the education systems in the European Union, there is a clear trend in favour of teaching and learning based on skills and of a result-oriented approach to learning that should explicitly express the real needs of the beneficiaries.

All European Armed Forces have been undergoing a transformation process for several years. They have reduced their military power as a result of the changing threats and the emergence of new missions. In strategic planning, conventions and processes, the Armed Forces have taken into account the challenges the military personnel (officer, non-commissioned officer, warrant officer, professional soldier) must face. Therefore, the modern military education system is inevitably required to permanently comprise the features of war, in terms of complexity and indisputable uncertainties.

Key words *Education, training, transformation, educational curriculum, skills, competences.*

Introduction In the context of the **European Strategy "Horizon 2020"**, the need to reform the education and training systems is more and more firmly stated, based on the concepts of quality and excellence, as a key tool not only for getting out of the crisis, but also for increasing competitiveness, providing success in the global knowledge economy. The three strategic goals for Europe "**Horizon 2020**"¹, which will guide the development of the EU in the next decade and are relevant for education systems, are:

- **Smart growth**: developing an economy based on knowledge and innovation (especially supported by strategic initiatives: "*Innovation Union*" – to improve framework-conditions and access to research and innovation funding, so that the possibility of transforming innovative ideas into products and services that generate economic growth and new jobs is ensured, "*Youth on the move*" – to enhance the performance of education systems and to facilitate the entry of young people into the labour market, and "*A digital agenda for Europe*" – to increase development of fast internet services and to capitalise on the benefits provided by a single digital market for households and firms);
- **Sustainable growth**: promoting a more efficient economy in terms of using greener and more competitive resources (supported by strategic initiatives: "*Resource efficient Europe*" – to help decouple economic development from resource use, to

¹ See <http://www.tiaspe.ro/home/strategia-europa-2020> accessed on 5th March 2014.

support the transition to a low carbon economy, to increase the use of renewable energy sources, to modernise our transport sector and to promote energy efficiency, and "*An integrated industrial policy for the globalisation era*" – to improve the business environment, especially for small- and medium-sized enterprises, and to support the development of a strong and sustainable industrial base able to face competition at global level);

- ***Inclusion favourable increase***: fostering an economy with a high rate of employment, ensuring social and territorial cohesion (supported by strategic initiatives: "*An agenda for new skills and jobs*" – to modernise labour markets and provide people with more autonomy, by developing their skills throughout their life in order to increase labour market participation rate and to better harmonise demand and supply in terms of labour market, including through labour mobility, and the "*European platform against poverty*" – to ensure social and territorial cohesion so that the benefits of growth and jobs are distributed fairly, and the people experiencing poverty and social exclusion are given the opportunity to lead a dignified life and play an active role in society).

In the European Union, the education and training of future officers is treated with utmost responsibility by all member states in order for them to develop a European security culture. The role and place of the military dimension of comprehensive approach (Bodescu, 2013, p. 22) in the context of this European security culture require soldiers' understanding that a conflict cannot be solved only by military force and that its causes require other tools, in most situations.

The question that arises is: Is it possible to exclude the military higher education system from the process of the changes occurred in the civil higher education system?

All European Armed Forces have been undergoing a transformation process for several years. They have reduced their military power as a result of the changing threats and the emergence of new missions. In strategic planning, conventions and processes, the Armed Forces have taken into account the challenges the military personnel (officer, non-commissioned officer, warrant officer, professional soldier) must face individually. Therefore, the modern military education system is inevitably required to permanently comprise the features of war, in terms of complexity and indisputable uncertainties.

The countries that have considered the concepts of the *Lisbon Strategy* to recognise the rights of the military personnel to have access to the best education and research, through the complete merger of the military and the national education system, have had the experience of achieving positive professional results in terms of value compared with the civilian system.

Quality assurance standards (assessment/accreditation) have become mandatory for officers/WOs/NCOs training programmes and for the organisation/functioning of military schools and higher military education institutions.

Quality education provided by the military education system is based on innovation and diversification, it is promoted by teachers, educational leaders, respects individual autonomy and is based on institutional autonomy, being oriented towards dialogue and partnerships in order to obtain good results, involves all internal and external educational stakeholders, provides valuation of the highly professionalised human resource, adapted to the future needs of defence, intelligence and national security structures.

Professionalisation of the armed forces belonging to NATO/EU countries has required profound and lasting transformations in the organisation, procurement of modern military equipment and combat assets, training of military personnel, reform of military education institutions according to national and European legislation (see the *Bologna process*), change in relations between the military and civil society (in the sense of involving all government and non-governmental actors in national security issues). Jeffrey D. McCausland and Gregg F. Martin (McCausland, Martin, 2001, pp. 17-33) summed up this trend (about armed forces transformation) stating that "[...] *in addition to the well-trained officer we needed during the Cold War, our jurisdiction during the era of globalisation requires a well-educated officer as well*". Consequently, many states have progressively chosen the professionalisation of their Armed Forces.

The reform of NATO member states has led to the restructuring and downsizing of armed forces, structural reorganisations, the change of the legislative framework and its adaptation to the new risks and threats, the change of military doctrines in keeping with the new missions (as national armed forces or part of a political-military alliance), the change of training systems and training methods/procedures to achieve compatibility and interoperability within the new command structures and forces of the Alliance.

1 TRENDS IN THE EVOLUTION OF THE EUROPEAN MILITARY EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEMS

For 2020-2025, according to forecasts, the education system will be different from today, because it will be necessary for a new set of skills and competencies to be developed among the young generation, new curricula or types of curricula, new paths and innovative ways of learning and assessment, different roles for teachers/instructors and educational institutions as a result of the different impacts of the new technologies. "[...] *Meetings between teachers-students-pupils will increasingly take place in cyberspace to debate ideas, practical applications and projects. Communication will take place more and more horizontally and vertically, so that students will be able to choose the best universities and, in turn, universities will be able to select the most motivated, interested students. In 2025, the role of higher education institutions will be extended, organisations will look different. Society will urge citizens to learn more, to be better prepared, more adapted to an*

*ever-changing world. People will learn more dynamically and mobile-like, but at their own pace*².

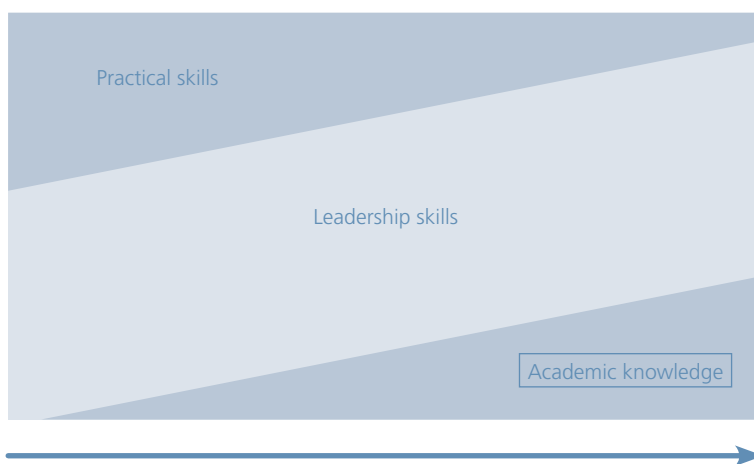
In national education systems, as in the education systems in the European Union, there is a clear trend in favour of teaching and learning based on skills, and of a result-oriented approach to the learning process that should explicitly express the real needs of the beneficiaries.

In this new context, of transformations, we will notice two career paths in order to become officer in the EU: the **first path – short career** – by recruiting those youngsters who have already graduated from academic institutions and will attend only general and specialised military training modules and, at the end of their contract, will be able to adapt to the civilian labour market thanks to the qualifications acquired: the **second path – long career** – with training requirements according with progression in their career.

Vesa Nissinen (Nissinen, 2001, p. 16) hypothetically established that, in the first stage of an officer's career, the practical skills are more important than academic knowledge, because the work of young officers is not primarily about analysis, decision-making and strategy-making. However, the more we progress in the career, the more academic knowledge is needed and the less the practical skills are to be focused on because the officers are operating much less on the field. According to Vesta Nissinen, only **leadership stimulation** has to be equally spread along the career. The following figure (Figure 1) points out this statement:

Figure 1:
Education requirements in officer career progression
Source: Nissinen (2001)

Progression of the officer career



² See http://www.cartaverde.edu2025.ro/docs/viziunea_in_v_superior_din_Romania_2025.pdf accessed on 12th February 2014.

Various authors have stated the idea that the future is full of uncertainties and unpredictable factors, very difficult to predict, among them being Richard Riley³ who said in an interview on 13th March 2013: "[...] *The most sought-after professions in October 2010 did not exist in 2004. We are preparing students for jobs that do not yet exist [...] that will use technologies that have not yet been invented [...] in order to solve problems we do not know*".

We can say about the future that it seems to be full of opportunities, decisions and risks. We cannot fully predict them, but we can anticipate a number of trends and decisions, and decisions should be taken timely in order for us not to be overwhelmed by events.

These trends (Stoyanov, Hogveldand Kirschner, 2010, p. 10) may have a number of consequences for the education systems in the long term: learning will not be limited by traditional educational institutions; teachers will become mediators between students, knowledge and technology; learning-teaching will be oriented/will take place by means of social internet networks; lifelong learning will become the norm; the size of classrooms/lecture halls will not matter anymore; teaching-learning methods will consider cognitive processes and structures; the contents of modern education will generate the fading of boundaries between sciences, narrowing the bridges between different disciplines and promoting interdisciplinary and transdisciplinarity in particular.

From this perspective, the Allied Command Transformation (ACT) developed a study called *Strategic Foresight Analysis – 2013 Report* (SFA) in September 2013. It identifies the trends that will shape the future strategic context and from which the Alliance defence and security implications concerning 2030 derive. The SFA is based on recent international and national studies covering the 2030 and beyond time horizon, previous ACT analyses regarding the future and the results of four separate ACT-led workshops.

The report states that the future is neither completely predictable nor predetermined and, most importantly, that there is always the possibility that a strategic shock should occur. However, the SFA assumes that the present transition period will become even more complex and uncertain, presenting threats and opportunities fuelled by an accelerated pace of social and technological change, combined with the extensive effects of globalisation. It is important that the Alliance continues to respect the global security environment, in order to build a common understanding of the trends and to keep one informed regarding its efforts to continuously change.

The SFA identifies trends in some broad themes, such as: politics, humanity, technology, and others. A summary of key findings related to each theme is provided in the following paragraphs.

³ *Former Secretary of State for Education in the United States under Bill Clinton's term (1993-2001).*

- a.** At the **political** level, global power shifts will continue to have significant effects:
- emerging powers will exert increasing global influence. This shift in power may cause instability;
 - the increased relevance of certain regions may support the pursuit of new types of partnerships and associations for NATO;
 - NATO could be affected by crises further from Alliance territory, where non-state actors may play a larger role and Nations' interests might not always align;
- b.** The future is likely to be characterised by changing demographics, urbanisation, **human** networks and fractured identities:
- most NATO nations will experience overall ageing, leading to a shrinking military-able population. In developing nations, youth bulges could lead to potential challenges;
 - urbanisation will increase the likelihood that the Alliance may need to conduct combat or security operations in condensed urban environments;
 - human networks and demands for transparency will bring new challenges and opportunities for NATO countries;
 - changes in the relationship of individuals to the state could present governance challenges and create the potential for social and political disruption;
- c.** Accelerating **technological** change will contribute to how the future is shaped:
- technological innovation has the potential to provide significant global benefits, but it also creates a greater likelihood of adverse consequences;
 - potential adversaries will have greater access to innovative science and technology, and will continue to attempt to obtain Weapons of Mass Destruction/Effect (WMD/E) information or material;
 - the Alliance must continue to anticipate technological advances in order to maintain its technological edge;
 - there will be increased potential for cyber-attacks against Alliance networks or military systems;
 - the ubiquity of information and social media will present both challenges and opportunities for NATO's strategic communications.

2 COOPERATION AT EUROPEAN LEVEL IN THE FIELD OF TRAINING – EFFECTIVE MEANS OF ACHIEVING INTEROPERABILITY

There is a regional trend to capitalise on training capabilities, including for training officers or NCOs in NATO/EU countries through the initiatives launched in 2000 and then after 2010, such as: *Smart Defence*, *Pooling and Sharing* and *Connected Forces Initiative*.

European cooperation initiatives between military educational institutions:

Germany has initiated a project called *European NCO Academy*⁴ (*ENCOA*). So far, the project, launched in 2003, was designed only for training NCOs from Austria, Germany and Switzerland. The project was resumed in 2006 for establishing multinational cooperation in the field of training based on certain courses, on ADL support, for non-commissioned officers of the three countries in German for now, but it can be extended to other countries if they set up courses in English too. In 2012, there was an international symposium organised by the *Multinational ENCOA* and the debates continue on the academy's website.

Beyond the bilateral exchange projects, other efforts consisted in organising Cadets or military institutions networks.

There is a French initiative to create a network of cadets at *the Conference of European Military Schools and Academies* (CEEAM, under French acronym)⁵. This experimental conference was organised 2002 at the Military School of Saint-Cyr Coëtquidan, later in Brussels, in 2003, and then in Italy, in 2004. It was meant to bring together cadets and students from military educational institutions of the EU, Canada, USA, Russia and Norway in order to explore the possibility of shaping a "**European Academy**" (as a forum for discussion and debate). Given certain organisational and financial reasons related to participants' travel requirements, the experience was not repeated at such a large scale.

Moreover, in the European educational institutions, in the late '90s, integration through networks was implemented.

Naval academies, acting in the field of the initial training of naval forces officers, created a forum called *Superintendent Conference*, which gathered together rectors of the 16 member states together with Norway and the US. Its aim is to improve cooperation between the participating institutions, for example, to make training available to others or to organise sporting or cultural events (such as the *Maritime Regatta*).

In terms of air force officers' education, a forum was created called *European Union Air Force Academies* (EUFAFA)⁶. It gathered together the rectors of educational institutions in 15 member states, plus Switzerland, Norway and Turkey. Its purpose is similar to its naval counterpart, and its achievements have been remarkable, especially because it gives its cadets the opportunity to meet for brief sporting events (e.g. athletics).

A question may arise at this point: if a European initiative was needed, given that these institutions have already found ways of cooperation before going to the details

⁴ See <http://www.encoa.de>, accessed on 14th October 2014.

⁵ CEEAM – Conference of European Military Schools and Academies.

⁶ EUFAFA – European Union Air Force Academies.

of the exchange of cadets, however, it can be seen that none of these forums does not take place in a configuration at "European level", namely within the CSDP⁷.

A similar initiative exists for land forces in the 27 EU member states, which have agreed to organise a forum for debate for higher education institutions as well, known as the *European Military Academies Seminar Chiefs* – EMACS. Since its creation, in 2008, EMACS discussions have seemed to focus mainly on students/cadets exchange activities, as the counterparts from air and naval forces.

In my point of view, the evolution of military education will be determined, according to the specified threats, by the adaptation and transformation in keeping with the following trends:

- a) resizing future force structures will run concurrently with reductions in defence budgets, which will lead to a recalibration of training systems, including the educational supply and demand;
- b) focusing towards a centralised training of the military in EU member states and/or on functional areas or packages of capabilities provided by countries and institutions technologically advanced, while reviewing the position and prestige of local/national or regional institutions⁸;
- c) upgrading local/national initial and continuing training level must be completed with making it entirely compatible (both in terms of curricular content and in terms of the quality of the end product/learning outcomes) with similar military education from NATO and EU countries;
- d) successively and gradually professionalising the teaching staff of the military education system, in the sense of employing and capitalising on the human resource that gained experience in theatres of operations, international missions, activities of representation etc.;
- e) rethinking, reviewing and reviving the marketing image, both the institutional one and at the level of the packages of educational offers of future educational institutions in order to increase their performance and reliability;
- f) the need for increased participation in international missions, under multinational forces commands and structures from NATO member states, has led to a acute increase in interoperability. From this point of view, the basic "joint"-type educational systems will be the first link in the chain of interoperability of future armed forces;
- g) fully professionalising the military in most NATO/EU countries will bring about the essential change in the role and place of the officer/NCOs/professional soldier. Complete professionalisation of the armed forces will also require fundamental changes in the design of planning and conducting training, teaching-learning

⁷ CSDP – Common Security and Defence Policy.

⁸ At regional level, there are various forms of cooperation/collaboration: West European countries (Germany, France, Spain) and the Benelux countries (Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg) or (Austria, Italy, Slovenia, Slovakia, Czech Republic) or (Poland, Hungary) and Nordic countries (Denmark, Norway, Finland, Sweden) and Baltic countries (Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania) and Mediterranean countries (Spain, France, Italy, Slovenia, Croatia, etc.) or Balkan countries (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, Macedonia, Serbia, Romania, Bulgaria, Greece, Turkey) and the former Yugoslavia (Serbia, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro etc.).

methods, typology and mentality of the formation of the future trainer/mentor/educator, curriculum, education logistics etc. The mental part of military training should include three elements: willingness to fight, toughness and team member (Figure 2). All elements of mental preparation were established by the FINABEL⁹ working group in 2009.

Figure 2:
Main elements
of mental
preparation
of military
personnel
Source:
analyze Finabel
issue/June
- 2009



More than ever, in determining the issue of training and education, the military education institutions should consider the previous level of training, level of motivation, skills, abilities, attitudes of future candidates to the military profession. Learning English and the military operations language by the entire military personnel – by teaching certain modules/courses in English, will almost spread in all NATO countries/partners;

- h) technologising and computerising military equipment will determine and adapt training systems by upgrading or acquiring new simulators, reconfiguring classrooms, designing new techniques and procedures to use the new technique, supplementing active training methods with e-Learning elements etc. In order to cope with the actions under the circumstances of the integrated battlespace, the forces are being provided with modern weapons and combat equipment that are more mobile and multifunctional, which will provide them with high flexibility

⁹ **Finabel** is an organisation that maintains tight cooperation relations and exchange of information with the North-Atlantic Alliance and military structures from the EU. Set up in 1953, by France, Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg, the Finabel Committee's first objective was to develop common armament's programmes, but the institution quickly shifted to the harmonisation of land doctrines and the realisation of inter-operation among the Land Forces of the European states.

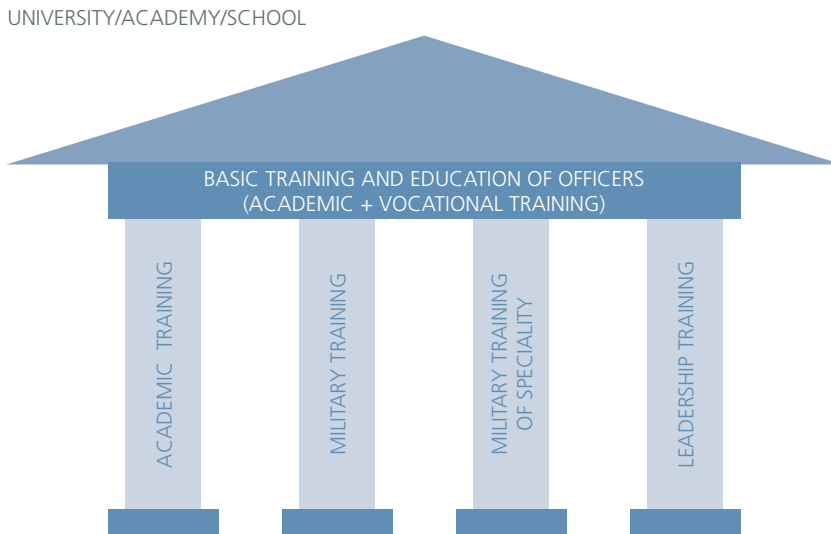
Finabel Committee consists currently of the Chiefs of the Army of France, Italy, Holland, Belgium, Luxemburg – 1953, Germany – 1956, United Kingdom – 1973, Spain – 1990, Greece, Portugal – 1996, Poland, Slovakia – 2006, Finland, Romania, Cyprus – 2008, Malta – 2010 Czech Republic – 2012.

See: <http://www.financiarul.ro/2009/05/09/govt-approves-participation-of-romania-to-finabel/> accessed on 9th March 2014.

and reversibility. The need for knowing them and using them effectively will result in a new approach to training, especially the specialised one.

- i) in most EU countries, we will find that the main pillars of officers training (Figure 3) are: **academic education, vocational education** (general military training and specialised military training including physical training) and **military leadership**. Their share in the university curricula is specific to each country and varies depending on a number of factors, such as: traditions, length of school period, fields and specialisations set according to the requirements of beneficiaries (for example: graduates from academies/universities, confirmed in branches such as: infantry, CBRN defence, financial service or logistics, obtain a **bachelor's degree** in specialisations such as: organisational management, economics, administrative law, finance and accounting, while the graduates confirmed in branches such as: tanks, engineer, artillery, missiles, aviation, radiolocation, navy obtain a **bachelor's degree** in technical and engineering specialties).

Figure 3:
The main pillars
of initial training
of officers in EU
Member States



Conclusion Promoting a European security culture through military education at all levels of the military career will require a common approach. Currently, in Europe¹⁰, there is a wide variety of institutions responsible for the officers' initial education/training: academies, colleges, schools or military universities. The common characteristic of all these institutions of officers' initial training is that they all provide high-level skills

¹⁰ In 2011, seven European military institutions that operate in the training and basic education officers have taken the name "university". The name has more than a symbolic significance, in fact, not just these seven institutions provide a level of training similar to the civil one, the military "schools", "academies" and "colleges" have also followed their trend, even though they preserved their traditions and military purposes.

(skills and qualifications specific to branches military and specialisations, according to the EQF 6¹¹ level, at the end of the **bachelor's degree** courses and EQF 7 level skills in military actions and operations command, to improve officers' planning and staff training for the following areas: operations, training and exercises, logistics, human resources, at the end of their **master's degree** courses.

It seems that the new aviation technologies have to adapt very quickly to the requirements of the new risks and threats, therefore, the military experts addressed this issue at the annual conference of the NATO Joint Air Power Competence Centre COE, in October 2013, where it was pointed out that [...] *the direction for the new generation of jets is moving towards multi-role and even omni-role platforms with a maximum number of capabilities concentrated within the same fleet to reduce costs related to logistics and other additional expenses. We will not address the aircraft other than as a multi-role aerial platform that will remain relevant in the future, and pilots training for future air platforms should focus more on developing systems manager qualities rather than on piloting skills*¹².

The organisation, nature and evolution of the Armed Forces, in general, will be determined by a complex of factors, such as: the political system, economic development level, scientific and technical potential, demographics (birth rate, migration, aging etc.), geographical position, size and characteristics of the national territory, the country membership in a political-military alliance, national traditions and customs of each people (Duțu et al, 2003, p. 3).

In most NATO/EU countries, the specialised and military education and professional training of officers is integrated into the national higher education system. In accordance with the national legislation on education (including the condition of graduating from courses in the native language), the recommendations of the Bologna process and the mobility requirements (see the European Credit Transfer System – ECTS¹³) have all made it possible for the military education to remain closely linked to the national education system, as military education is a component of the general education specific to each nation.

In the future, there will not be only a national interest of comparing military education systems, but also an international one. If we have transparency and recognised study programmes as well as common qualification frameworks, it will be much easier to exchange officers, NCOs and civilians for studying or working in different countries.

¹¹ *European Qualification Framework – EQF. EQF is a meta-framework that facilitates networking and communication between qualifications frameworks and national and sectoral systems. The EQF will facilitate the transfer, transparency and recognition of qualifications – understood as learning outcomes assessed and certified by a competent body at national or sectoral level.*

¹² *See Final report at Annual Conference of NATO CoE for Joint Air Power, Tichelpark, Kleve – GERMANY, October 2013.*

¹³ *ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) – Credits are numerical values assigned to units of courses and other educational activities. By transferable study credits, it is estimated, on average, the amount of work performed by a student in order to gain knowledge and skills specific to one discipline.*

This will result in reduced costs and increased interoperability. This system requires implementation of quality assurance standards, which may possibly support cooperation within communities or working in international environment. Due to the specifics of the missions and operations of the past armed conflicts, where the use of civilian "**forces**" is made in a combined manner with the military ones, it is more and more required that modern threats are addressed with modern tools, which means that each member state should instruct/train its military personnel (soldiers/NCOs/officers) in keeping with interoperability principles. Therefore, it is essential that future "**elite military**" should become acquainted with, be educated and trained to meet these realities of their profession.

More by the prospect of the future, **mobility** may also lie at the basis of a potential European structural force (*A European Army*). Increased mobility for military students, teachers, and researchers has been determined by several instruments: the European Higher Education Area, transfer credits allocated to disciplines within Bachelor's, Master's degree or postgraduate programmes, English language and military Erasmus programme. This mobility will be maintained and further developed by learning the English language and the military operations language by all military personnel with the support of new technologies and tools in the field of e-Learning.

In most NATO/EU military education systems, officers are required to possess academic education and, therefore, a civilian diploma (e.g. electronics engineer, statistician, economist, physician etc.) (Bodescu, 2013, p. 25). Moreover, the need for academic studies is required from all young officers by the prerequisites of their participation in international missions, in joint military operations or as command or staff personnel in multinational headquarters. All these activities demand a high degree of interoperability in using common command and control systems, applying procedures, specific military concepts and doctrines and using a military and cultural operational language tailored to the situations specific to a combat/crisis/humanitarian/post-conflict reconstruction mission.

NATO membership further requires that member/partner countries participate in **common defence** (under Article 5 of the Washington Treaty), which means that military education systems must be fully integrated (an officially undeclared purpose, but a target of military education at European level).

However, the political issues, the gaps in terms of technology, military culture, mentality, customs and traditions or language barriers are the reason why this major objective is very difficult to achieve in the near future.

Standardisation of training procedures will ensure the full success of ensuring interoperability among the Alliance armed forces. For young officers (Paile, 2011), being **interoperable** means to be able to rapidly act together in any context, namely to work in different configurations of language, nationality, culture, values etc. This means that young officers should renounce their membership in a group – engineer,

naval officer or Italian officer – for a group that is wider than nationality, language, culture etc. This will be the objective assigned to military education systems for initial (basic) formation and cadets/military-students training in order to meet these challenges. In this regard, both components – academic and vocational – of officers' education play equivalent roles.

The **academic learning** (Paile, 2010) process will provide theoretical tools to understand a given hostile conflict environment and the vocational learning process will provide the skills and competences needed in order to cope with new challenges. In this way, the exchange of knowledge, skills and competences is the key to training European Armed Forces for the modern warfare in the information age.

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VARNOSTNE ŠTUDIJE – SINTEZA AKADEMSKEGA ZNANJA IN PRAKSE

SECURITY STUDIES – SYNTHESIS BETWEEN ACADEMY AND PRACTICE

Povzetek Sodoben varnostni študij, ki se sooča z vedno novimi izzivi, potrebuje učne načrte, ki diplomantom zagotavljajo znanje in veščine, na podlagi katerih se lahko odlikujejo pri opravljanju svojega poklica. Vsi, ki pripravljajo učne načrte za varnostni študij ali imajo vpliv na njihovo pripravo, se morajo zavedati resničnih potreb študentov, ki morajo pridobljeno znanje uporabiti v praksi. Ustvarjalci učnih načrtov bi se najprej morali postaviti v položaj strokovnjakov in znotraj učnega načrta odgovoriti na vprašanje, kateri predmeti in znanje so najbolj koristni ob večjih varnostnih krizah, kot so vojne, konflikti različnih intenzivnosti in množični upori, zlasti tisti, ki vključujejo notranjo in zunanjo narodnostno komponento ali notranjo nacionalno razsežnost v okviru vsenacionalnega skupnega političnega gibanja, kot je tako imenovana arabska pomlad. Njeno razumevanje zahteva poznavanje področja varnosti, diskurz o mednarodnem humanitarnem pravu, zlasti o pravu oboroženih spopadov in pravilih delovanja, ter o izredno občutljivih vprašanjih vere, prepričanja in jezika (posamično in skupaj v širšem sociološkem kontekstu), predvsem pa je treba arabsko pomlad obravnavati kot družbeni in varnostni pojav, ki zaradi geopolitičnih trendov v zadnjih dveh desetletjih predstavlja enkratni primer za varnostne študije tako na globalni kot na regionalni ravni.

Ključne besede *Varnostno izobraževanje, novi izzivi, usposabljanje, akademsko znanje, praksa.*

Abstract Modern security studies, facing new challenges, should have a curriculum that provides graduates with the knowledge and skills on the basis of which they can excel in their professional activities. Anyone who influences and/or prepares the security education curriculum should be aware of the true needs of students, so they can apply the acquired knowledge in practice. First of all, the curriculum creators should put themselves in the position of professionals and, in the content of the curriculum, provide answers as to which courses and knowledge would be most

useful in the case of major security crises such as wars, various intensity conflicts and massive rebellions, particularly those that have an inner or extra ethnic component or an inner national dimension in a pan-national joint political movement, such as the so-called Arab Spring. The latter encompasses the area of security, discourse in the international humanitarian law, particularly the Law of Armed Conflict and Rules of Engagement, but also the extremely delicate matters of religion, belief, faith, language (separately and all together in a wider sociological context), and above all, the Arab Spring as a social and security phenomenon presenting a unique sample for security studies both at the global and regional level due to the geopolitical trends in past two decades.

Key words *Security education, new challenges, training, academy, practice.*

Introduction When analysing the existing curricula, it is reasonable to question whether teaching in the field of security in contemporary conditions can meet the required quality and existing needs. Also, one of the concerns is the effect of education on what is called the final product – trained and qualified staff. If the main goal of teaching in the field of security is to achieve, enhance and maintain the quality of security, it is important to consider all aspects of the teaching process. Basically, a prerequisite for teaching in the field of security is a high quality curriculum and its continuous improvement so as to follow the practical requirements and application (Committee on Educational Paradigms for Homeland Security, Policy and Global Affairs, 2005). A curriculum must include and identify all the areas essential to the education process, especially with the university education as the general platform for acquiring the necessary knowledge and skills in the field of security. Within the study of many university-level social science schools, a range of social science disciplines deal with the problem of security, with other scientific disciplines dealing with security threats. Each of these disciplines establishes its own methods within the framework of science, the object of which is studying security problems, starting with some general principles of acquiring the knowledge of social reality and cause-and-effect connections of the established social relations. However, despite the relatively large number of scientific disciplines that deal with this matter, it is safe to say that the area of security in the past has not been enough scientifically and theoretically studied (Gaćinović, 2008: 8). If we talk about the current situation, it is necessary to note that the concept of security changes in the theoretical sense because the modern society, governments, businesses and individuals are faced with new security challenges. Only thirty years ago, few people could anticipate that the world would change so much, especially in the security sphere. The end of the Soviet era marks not only a new division of zones of interest, but also a completely different security architecture. Russia emerges as a loser from the Cold War, its position, although this is very difficult for many to understand, being similar to that of any state losing the Great War. After the end of the Cold War and the bipolar superpower competition, in this day and age, the world looks a lot more complex and far more confusing. The deceptive simplicity of the Cold War period, which roughly stretches from the

end of World War II in 1945 until the disappearance of the Soviet Union in 1991, is replaced by a new world that defies easy explanation or understanding. This world is exposed to unprecedented security threats and troubled with global terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (Kolodziej, 2005, p. 18). Can teaching and learning programmes in the field of security follow the processes that affect security? Is there a generally accepted definition of the term? Does the concept of security have the same meaning from one state to another, from nation to nation, and from continent to continent? What is the impact of globalization on the state of matters when some of the security issues and challenges become a general problem of humanity, as is the case with international terrorism and the ever-present threat of weapons of mass destruction? As already pointed out, the very concept of security is in the focus of attention of man, state and society, but also in different organizations that use various types of violence to achieve their goals. It is interesting to note that fear is one of the key components of the sense of security (Hildebrandt et al., 2009). Is this concept paid sufficient attention to in the field of security teaching? What is the real meaning of fear? Imagine, if you can, a man running down the street, being chased by another man with a gun in his hand pointed at the first one. Is it a rational fear, real and justified? Of course it is. Imagine a different situation. A man is running down the street, followed by another man with his hand in the pocket of his jacket. We do not know why the other man put his hand in the jacket. Perhaps he is searching for his wallet, a cell phone or something else. This is obviously a case of irrational fear. It is these two categories of fear that are important for what we call a sense of security.

Rational and irrational fear. According to a scientific study, the fear of a nuclear war increases the risk of mental disorientation among young adults (Poikolainen et al., 2004). Each day, millions of our human companions succumb to the weariness of age or the ravages of illness. Yet we feel no terror at this. Nature is at work. Each day, thousands die from automobile crashes, gun shots, industrial accidents, earthquakes and floods. Yet we feel no terror. A bomb explodes with savage unexpectedness in a city street with which we are familiar, killing one or two, or even a few unfortunates. And terror gnaws at our entrails. But rarely do we pause to ponder the incongruously disproportionate nature of our response. Both responses, however, are explicable. What matters is how we discipline ourselves to respond to these stimuli.

What we see today as terrorism is very much an expression of the fear and frustration of traditional societies, the existence of which has been threatened by the modern, essentially urban societies. The seemingly implacable juggernaut of the modern, urban societies threatens the viability, the identity, and ultimately the very genetic existence and line of traditional societies (Copley, 2012, p. 80). Hence, this paper discusses and offers a further insight into the field of security studies with a goal of identifying whether the security studies trend is to become emerged in the field of other sciences and disciplines as a separate element, or presented as a concept in each and every segment of society to see if there is a possibility of introducing and implementing more security to the security study curriculum itself.

1 SECURITY STUDIES – NEW CHALLENGES

The issue of security studies has been continuously discussed especially afterward the Cold War period. Once we entered the post-Cold War era, the idea to expand the area of security studies in both practical and theoretical ways was growing fast. However, in order to accomplish that, it was of utmost importance to “rethink security”, which was done in debates between the neorealist and critical academics in the field (Krause and Williams, 1996, pp. 229-254).

The neorealist conception. As Walt has defined in his paper (Walt, 1991, pp. 211-239), the security studies should examine the “*threat, use and control of military force...*” This definition, however, has been refuted, discussed and criticized. Kolodziej’s response (Kolodziej, 2005) to Walt’s perception of the security studies depicts, in perhaps the best possible way, the discourse between the two main directions of the security studies, saying that the idea in the article includes some serious issues to be discussed further: “*Analytically, it limits the objects of study and ipso facto, constricts the scope of relevant theory needed to understand and explain what security is and what security problems are. Normatively, it focuses almost exclusively on American national security rather than on international security or security per se: and, in the name of relevance, delegates too much of the agenda of security studies to policymakers. Methodologically, it restricts security studies to a highly selective and largely traditional array of disciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches. As a consequence of those flaws, the essay is inevitably incomplete in its survey of security studies, in its assignation of worth and priority to different theoretical approaches and specific works, and in its sketch of a research agenda*”.

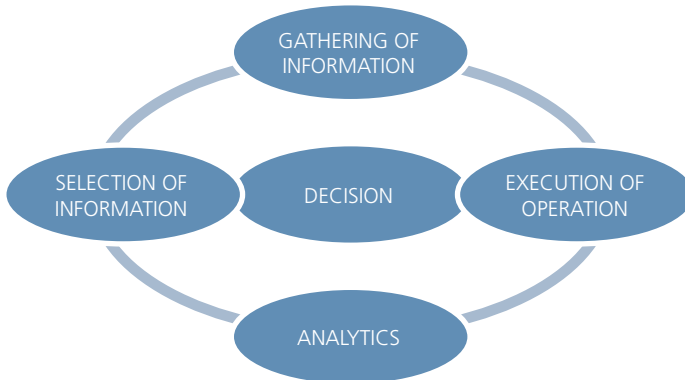
It is clear that the era after the Cold War was open to new security challenges; moreover, it brought the urge to construct a new concept of security studies. The thought of taking the security studies to another level was not taken lightly despite the ever changing political scene, the emergence of organized terrorism all over the world, and despite , to put it simply, the new reality. Here we come to the core of the debate – the subject and/or object of security studies. The above mentioned Kolodziej, who wrote extensively about security studies in his “Renaissance in security studies? Caveat lector!” (Kolodziej, 2005), has concluded that “*In this vein, given the criteria directing the essay’s conception of security studies, the threats posed by military and police bureaucracies, military-industrial complexes, and standing armies to open societies are addressed primarily as incidental to interstate conflicts. Disciplining organized and institutionalized violence to civil purposes is tolerated in the survey, as a subfield of study, but only as function of violent national conflicts, and not as an independent security issue in its own right. This exclusionary approach to theory and policy would then have to dismiss the normative and empirical questions posed by the Federalist writers in defining their security problems.*”

Clearly, the debate concerning security studies is still undergoing and, much to the academic pleasure, expanding. However, despite all the concepts and ideas, we are still taking slow steps in adapting the social and human disciplines to the needs

of security (studies). Students engaged in security studies learn about psychology and the basics of sociology, international relations and so on, but what they get is a general knowledge that is not modified to fit the security studies curriculum or a further professional appointment in the field of security.

Even if we wanted to ignore terrorism or fear as being just one in a series of significant terms of security, in a situation when we already have in mind the model of action of security services, the question is whether the current education process actually recognizes the basic security activities, and is able to scientifically identify and define them and present them as such to the end users. Can the mentioned activities be covered by a single teaching course or are they present in several different areas such as analytics, decision-making processes, and methods of gathering information (open and selected sources)? These activities cannot be studied without prior theoretical knowledge in several key areas, such as the Fundamentals of Security, Security Management, National Security and International Security, and without fundamentals in psychology, methodology, sociology, geography, anthropology etc. The question is whether the security studies should include and be aided by other mentioned sciences. Would this marriage of social sciences and security that reflects improvement in the academic world, as some authors say (see Walt, 1991, pp. 211-239), provide more for the understanding of security in a social sense or would it result in (academic) experts who could actually perform efficiently in this field? Security studies, which include the study of numerous scientific disciplines, have a great weakness that eventually results in a deficient amount of knowledge that is transferred to the students. The theoretical and practical problem is that almost all courses without the prefix "security" in their names are actually not adapted to the security studies curriculum, which is quite unacceptable. Due to this situation, there is no fusion of knowledge acquired during the learning process in one corpus. For instance, there are several faculties and colleges in Serbia that contain the word "Security" in their respective titles. First, there is the Faculty of Security Studies of the University of Belgrade (www.fb.bg.ac.rs) as the leading institution in the field. Also, there are higher studies in the field of security within the School of National Defence, conducted by the National Military Academy. The Faculty of Political Sciences of the University of Belgrade has an undergraduate academic module called the "Security Studies". Then there is the Faculty for Diplomacy and Security that is privately owned and, similarly, the College for Professional Studies of Entrepreneurship within which there is the Academy for Economy and Security. So far, everything seems alright. But a further insight into the study programmes reveals that the actual, practical and, above all, applicable skills needed for comprehending the purpose and mechanism of the security concept are missing. The only state faculty in the field of security, The Faculty of Security Studies, offers an academic curriculum in BA, MA and PhD studies. The BA curriculum offers the basics of security, the economic grounds of security, the system of security, and security management as obligatory courses. According to his/her interest, a student has the possibility to choose between eight additional courses, among which there are five courses that contain the word security in their title. The rest are of more or less general corpus of social sciences and humanities.

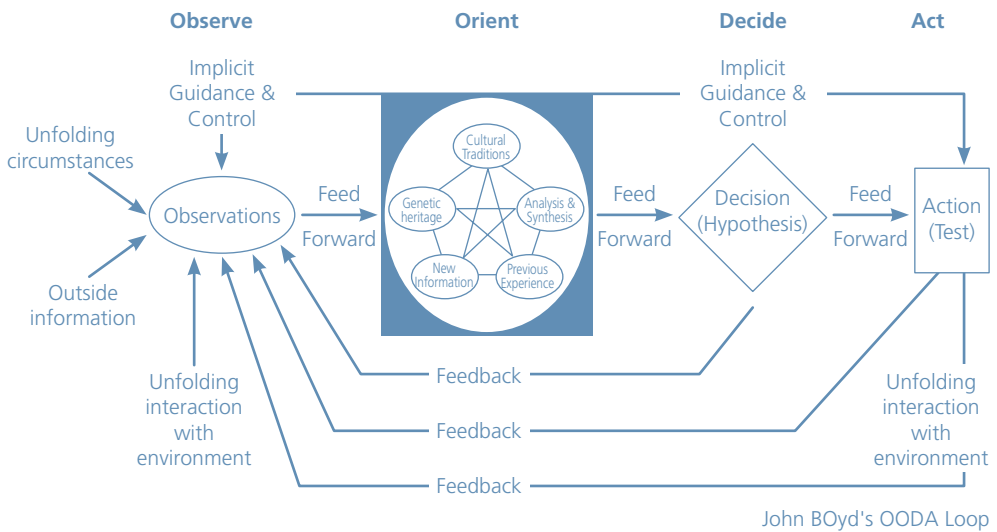
Figure 1:
Simple
model of a
secret service
functioning



We have already mentioned that a curriculum is extremely important for teaching security. So the main question is who is responsible for the content of the curriculum, who designs the learning cycle and according to what criteria? There is a lack of topics such as the contemporary theories and practice in the field of security, the aspects and range of work of international organizations dealing with security, the state system of security and the relations within and with foreign elements. The knowledge and skills that the students will need in their professional activities are absolutely essential to all future professionals in the field of security, especially those who will deal with intelligence and/or counter-intelligence (see Figure 1). Regardless of whether it falls within the basic academic studies or specialized studies in the field of security, the main objective is the training of personnel who will actively participate in the protection of the state. However, political, security and economic changes in the world, changes in the world of science, and the application of cutting-edge technology require a new approach to teaching security, especially in view of the fact that the most sophisticated operations carried out by the security services are in the domain of psychological operations (in the US military they are marked FM 3-05.30) and civil affair operations. It is necessary that anyone who makes the Security Studies curriculum masters this knowledge in order to incorporate quality new trends in the education processes. New trends in the field of security have their historical background (see Figure 2 presenting a traditional model of the decision-making process - OODA Loop). It is embodied in the work of an author who presents his war knowledge and experience in a book titled *The Art of War* (Kaufman, 2001). Sun Tzu states, "Superiority of the one side in all battles is not decisive for fighting and conquering, the main superiority lies in breaking the enemy's resistance without fighting" (Kaufman, 2001). Translated into the language of today this means that, almost two thousand years ago, the Chinese expert realized the importance of psychological operations and the possibility of an intelligent attack on an enemy by creating an espionage network that would affect the four vital functions of a system (surveillance, identification, decision-making and action).

For example, the curriculum of the Faculty of Security Studies, University of Belgrade (<http://www.fb.bg.ac.rs/>), does not contain as a separate course the *intelligence and counterintelligence services and their methods of operation*. This, however, is not just the case in the mentioned educational institution; incomplete programmes and the lack of highly qualified staff with extensive experience is a problem of almost all educational institutions dealing with education in the field of security.

Figure 2:
Model of a
decision-making
process - OODA
Loop developed
by J. Boyd¹



Through a simple overview of the internet and the websites of teaching institutions around the world that provide their students with programmes in the fields of security, it can be concluded that the majority of such institutions rely on programmes that have nothing to do with political science, strategy, geopolitics etc. The famous US university MIT offers students a programme called the Security Studies Programme (<http://web.mit.edu/ssp/index.html>) that is fully oriented on the perception of security problems through the prism of political science. A similar situation exists in the Fletcher School, Tufts University. Within its education programmes in the field of International Security, this educational institution provides only a small fraction of what we now call International Security (<http://fletcher.tufts.edu/Academic/Courses/Fields-of-Study/International-Security-Studies>). As in the previous case, the curriculum in the field of International Security is based on political science, conflictology, management, military science and computer science, but not the science of security. Programmes offered without some of the key items such as energy security, international relations and international security, national and international security, analytics etc. do not provide a full picture of the contents of a course, much less the entire major International Security. The Johns Hopkins MA in Global

¹ John Boyd (1927 – 1997), colonel and military strategist

Security Studies (<http://advanced.jhu.edu/academics/graduate-degree-programs/global-security-studies/>) provides a framework for students to analyze military challenges, explore the intricacies of economic interdependence, and recognize the security implications of energy dependence and resource scarcity. Like the rest of the education programmes, this one also does not offer what is considered to be the basic knowledge in the field of security, but by way of other courses provides an overview of the field of security and international security.

Where precisely should the limit for studying security be set? What should be included or excluded from the curriculum? It all depends on the profile that the students are educated to fit.

2 NECESSITY OF NEW SECURITY STUDIES PROGRAMMES

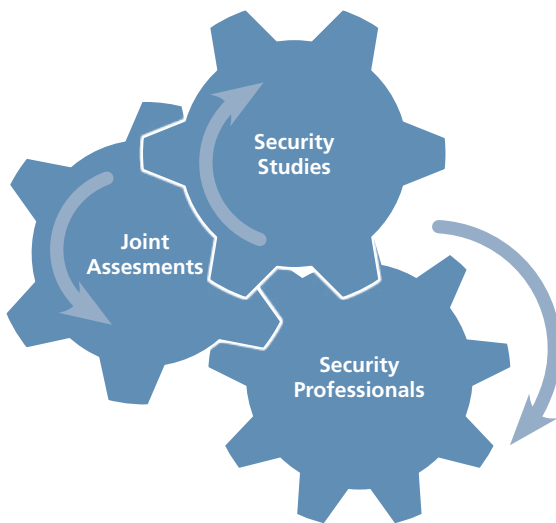
Faced with new challenges, modern security studies should have a curriculum that can provide such knowledge and skills to graduates on the basis of which they can better perform their professional duties. People who prepare or have any influence on the preparation of educational programmes in the field of security would have to offer solutions that best meet the needs of the pre-specified profile so that their graduates could practically apply the knowledge gained. Also, creators of the curriculum in the field of security need to anticipate each and every possible situation in which a graduate may find themselves when performing their professional activities, and provide appropriate solutions and answers in terms of what would be most effective (what knowledge and skills), for instance in the case of major security crises such as wars, conflicts of various intensities and/or national rebellions, as is the case with the so-called Arab Spring. In this context, we should not neglect the ethical issues; it often happens that a person engaged in the business of security is faced with different situations in their professional life that are not defined by principles of the profession or law, and yet human lives often depend on their decision to proceed. Members of security services in the countries in which the Arab Spring has taken place have found themselves facing a big ethical and professional dilemma. On the one hand, they have a professional obligation to defend the regime in power and the institutions of the state, but on the other, they are to confront their own rebellious people. Their education encompasses all situations in which a country is under the attack of an exterior enemy. This, however, is not the case of a foreign enemy attacking. Also, they are educated and trained to suppress mass demonstrations of some of the rebel groups and/or movements. Here, however, the entire population is involved. The newly evolved situation finds members of security services completely unprepared, and instigates all those involved in security education to think about the position of a professional in such situations. In fact, no one has yet offered an adequate solution for the position of security service members in situations of chaos. Recent events in the Ukraine only confirm such state of affairs. The basic dilemma is how to explain or define the position of security service members. Are they the ultimate victims in this situation? Imagine what would happen in the case of a similar scenario in Serbia or Slovenia. Are there any laws by which members of security services would act in

such cases? In what position would members of security services be (regardless of whether they are police, military or state security), as was the case with the security services of the Ukraine, Tunisia and Egypt? Do science and teaching processes anticipate such situations and offer proper solutions that would protect members of security services?

3 IMPROVED MODEL OF SECURITY STUDIES

In order to improve the security teaching model it is necessary to introduce cyclical assessments and evaluations. In other words, it is necessary to introduce new models of testing and evaluation, which would be carried out at regular intervals. These checks and assessments, i.e. adjustments to the characteristics of profiles that the personnel are educated for, would be carried out together with joint committees which would consist of educators and professionals in the field. In this way, new challenges, potential risks and possible situations in which members of security services may find themselves would be analyzed. In fact, the teaching process would adjust to the real needs of practical applications.

Figure 3:
Security studies,
assessments and
evaluation



The process of teaching security, as shown in Figure 3, is a cyclic process of planning, implementation and assessment. Another component of a qualitative evaluation done by professionals is introduced in order to achieve maximum quality.

4 PROBLEMS OF COUNTRIES IN TRANSITION

There are still doubts about the quality of educators and the quality, i.e. the achieved level of training, of professionals in the field. The countries in transition are particularly problematic when it comes to the quality and credibility, particularly of the professionals in the field. The very process of education in the field of security is of national importance for the stability of a country and reflects the state of the economy, politics and security. It is precisely these three areas that are targeted by the political mafia that is particularly present in the former Yugoslavia. Serbia and Croatia, i.e. the citizens of the two countries, may be hostages of the so-called political mafia. Due to the actions of political mafia, which is present in all parts of the Serbian society, the state and its citizens are brutally robbed in a number of ways. The Serbian banking system has been destroyed, and the political mafia has created the El Dorado of Serbia in which billions of Euros have been stolen from the citizens. The banks in Serbia charge the highest interest margin in the world, and pay the lowest effective income tax. The global economic crisis has somehow bypassed Serbia. But the fact that the Serbian banks built their margins at the time when the global interest rates fell shows that there is no miracle happening here, but a downright state looting of the Serbian citizens by the political mafia. In other words, while the interest rates of the world's currencies are in steady decline, a completely different process is happening in Serbia. Huge sums of money, measured in billions of Euros, are drawn from Serbia in this way, all at the expense and the additional debt of the citizens of Serbia. By comparison, the interest rates in Serbia are, on average, twice as high as those in Croatia and Hungary. According to the latest available data, the average interest rate reaches the level of a whopping 21% per year. The average interest rate on short-term loans to households has grown to 57%. Information on the interest rate, which you can get at any bank in Serbia, is yet another clear evidence of a blatant robbery of the citizens of Serbia, which continues to this day. In times of the internet and rapid communication it is possible to quickly and easily compare the situation in Serbia with the situation in the EU and the neighbouring countries. Doing that, one comes to the same conclusion as the author of this paper: the political mafia of Serbia continues to plunder the citizens of Serbia.

A big problem arises if the architects of organized crime are present in the government, i.e. among the actors of political life of a country. Is it appropriate then to call such a phenomenon a "political mafia" that flourishes in spite of the obligation of security services to stand up against it, or is it a perfect coupling of the security services and the exponents of political mafia? The real challenge then is to select a professional in the field of security to assess the security teaching models. Reasons for the author's concern are numerous. Is it possible to establish a functional model of education if the entire society and the state are hostages to political mafia? Is, in such circumstances, the state itself that is a problem for the region and the wider international community? What lies at the bottom of all this? The *political mafia* is a phenomenon that appears in the former Yugoslavia,

especially in the process of the dissolution of the state union. The vast public or state-owned property, as well as commercial entities that pass into private ownership in the process of "privatization", is attractive to members of organized crime. Unfortunately, this process is still visible today (Trifunović, 2013). The Anti-Corruption Council of the Republic of Serbia has for years been warning of the irregularities and crimes related to the abuse of the state and social economic holders, as well as of the fact that such actions involve actors of the political life of Serbia (Government of the Republic of Serbia, 2013). Criminal structures in the territory of Serbia and the entire region are in conjunction with the political elites that openly offer their support. This was apparent during the civil wars in the 1990s. With the dissolution of the SFRY, an all-encompassing security system that effectively controls and suppresses the work of various criminal groups disbanded. The former Yugoslavia had the opportunity, resources and political will to fight organized crime. Due to a series of civil wars and the rise of nationalism and extremism of all forms, new states that formed after the dissolution of Yugoslavia were no longer able to control regional and now also transnational organized crime groups. Large property and material gain fall in the sphere of interest of the criminal groups that find an easy way to get them. The traditional interest of organized criminal groups in drug and arms trafficking and other activities that bring large profits has spread to new areas and opened up new opportunities for earning an income. This primarily relates to the controversial privatization of state or public property such as factories and farming land, as well as to complex multi-million transactions of the so-called "*construction mafia*". Although the traditional organized crime groups show their efficiency and sophistication by creating associations such as *Cosa Nostra*, i.e. certain forms of clan structure, some authors argue that Mafia does not interfere arbitrarily in political activities (Della Porta and Mény, 1997, p. 50). Political problems are generally not of particular interest to the Mafia, unless they jeopardize its sources of power or profit. It is essential to the Mafia to ensure the political choice of "friendly" holders of power or politicians. However, the same article states that the Mafia sometimes puts its members to political offices (Della Porta and Mény, 1997, p. 50).

As for the former Yugoslavia, a specific process is taking place in which the political parties are becoming suitable platforms for organized crime activities. *Officials are becoming main actors of organized crime and using criminal groups and their violence to carry out their economic activities related to crime against property.* Could such perception of the problem be the future definition of "political mafia" with all the specifics of this phenomenon in the former Yugoslavia? At the same time, the question arises whether the same or similar processes are detected in other areas, especially in the territories of the so-called former socialist countries? Is it the political mafia itself that slows down or paralyzes the system of teaching and training of personnel in the field of security due to the fact that the very same political mafia would become the subject of operation and processing of the professionals should they be properly educated and trained? The author of this article is of the opinion that the answer is positive. Possible solutions should be

sought in fundamental reforms, Serbia's accession to the EU, acceptance of rules and harmonization of its legislation with the EU, and changing the awareness of the need to fight against all those segments that are detrimental to the security of the state in which education in the field of security is an indispensable component.

Conclusion Every study curriculum is a process that expands and adapts as questions arise. Security Studies are no exception; they are an important process, especially for the security of a state. If the security of a state is in any way threatened, either by external or internal security risks, the normal functioning of the state is in jeopardy. Traditional approach to the planning and realization of security studies is outdated and cannot meet the needs of the education of professionals in contemporary conditions. It is not only the security picture of the world that has changed, the security risks, i.e. the threats to national and international security, have changed considerably as well. Moreover, some of the models of security studies may only be considered an adjustment to the increasing needs of the existing teaching staff, with the security science itself not being the main area of their expertise. This often leads to absurd situations in which the curriculum includes striking titles, while the teaching process and teaching programmes themselves provide very little of what is expected. Hence, we who are engaged in the security studies agenda must work not only at the local, but also at the international and regional level, with a goal to improve these processes by producing new set of skills and knowledge to be introduced to the students of security courses. It is of great importance not only to present students with mere theories and facts, but to utilize these matters in order to assist the students in gaining a wider perception of security at whole and of specific security issues. Thus, security studies should encompass the above mentioned disciplines; however, the teaching and learning of those disciplines that belong either to humanities, social or exact science must be adapted to the security studies curriculum. Therefore, anthropology, history, ethnology, ethics et cetera should bare the prefix security in the title which would essentially indicate that research done in these subjects is conducted for and within security and not the other way around. Only in this fashion may we be able to respond to risks and threats, and moreover, in such a fashion, the security studies may build a capacity and potential to contribute to other sciences. This means that other disciplines that are not directly derived from the security opus should become auxiliary units, available for the needs of the security studies.

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SODOBNI IZZIVI VOJAŠKEGA IZOBRAŽEVANJA – PRIMER MAKEDONSKE VOJAŠKE AKADEMIJE

CONTEMPORARY CHALLENGES IN MILITARY EDUCATION – MACEDONIAN MILITARY ACADEMY IN THE CONTEXT

Povzetek V članku so vrednotene nedavne reforme sistema makedonskega vojaškega izobraževanja. Tako sodobni izzivi vojaškega izobraževanja kot evroatlantska zaveza so oblikovali proces transformacije sistema vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja v Republiki Makedoniji. Ta dinamika je zahtevala ponovno opredelitev vloge in pristojnosti Vojaške akademije Generala Mihaila Apostolskega v Skopju. Vojaška akademija danes izobražuje, usposablja in ustvarja mlade vojaške in civilne voditelje, ki so se sposobni spopasti s sodobnimi varnostnimi izzivi, ki vplivajo na obrambni sistem in krizno upravljanje ter sektor za zmanjševanje tveganja nesreč, ne le v Makedoniji, temveč tudi v Jugovzhodni Evropi. Razloženo je tudi, kako je načrt izobraževanja Vojaške akademije usklajen z zahtevami evropskega sistema za prenašanje kreditnih točk in z načeli modernega vojskovanja in varnostnimi izzivi. Poleg tega se članek dotakne tudi vprašanja enakosti spolov ter uvajanja informacijske tehnologije v vojaško izobraževanje.

Ključne besede *Izobraževanje, usposabljanje, moderno vojskovanje, izobraževalni programi, vprašanja enakosti spolov, kibernetске grožnje, modeliranje in simulacija.*

Abstract This paper evaluates latest reforms in the Macedonian military education system. Both, contemporary challenges in military education and Euro-Atlantic commitment have shaped transformation of military education and training system in the Republic of Macedonia. Hence, these dynamics urged the redefinition of the role and responsibilities of the Military Academy “General Mihailo Apostolski” – Skopje. As a result, today, the Military Academy educates, trains and produces young military and civilian leaders ready to meet contemporary security challenges that affect the defence system, crisis management and disaster risk reduction sector, not only in Macedonia, but in the region of South East Europe as well. The paper explains how the education curricula at the Military Academy reconcile with the European credit transfer system’s requirements on the one hand, and the principles of modern warfare

and security challenges on the other. In addition, the paper touches on gender issues in military education, and implementation of information technology in military education.

Key words *Education, training, modern warfare, curricula, gender issue, cyber threats, modelling & simulation.*

Introduction Global political dynamics, along with the economic, information technology development and building of the democratic societies dominate education systems in Europe and in the most parts around the Globe. The most important single factor demanding change, however, is the development in technology in general, and especially in information technology. This factor changes the ways the military operate, train and plan for future operations. Today, we need military officers who are critical thinkers, capable of anticipating the change, deal with ambiguity and uncertainty. We need leaders who can promote organizational change in the face of traditional attitudes and adverse economic situation.

Providing security in a rapidly changing and unpredictable world, and maintaining national security still depends to a large extent on the military, their morale, motivation, and specialized skills which are influenced by their academic background, professional education, and special military training. In this approach, the social and economical justification for the subsistence of the own Military Academy comes out of the needs of the Republic of Macedonia to generate its own officer core that will fulfil certain duties within the defence and security system of the state.

Education and training of officers and civilian personnel that carry out certain duties and tasks within the defence system and the Army entails acquisition of theory and practice of complex military and other sciences at different educational levels within the system of military education and training throughout professional career. In line with that, quality of education and preparedness of the personnel within the defence system is in high correlation with the development of theory and practice in the area of military sciences.

Based on the Republic of Macedonia's determination for NATO and EU membership, a need for transformation of officer education and training system, and in line with that, redefinition of the role and responsibilities of the Military Academy have emerged. The transformation of the system is conveyed in accordance with the standards of NATO and EU member countries, and includes establishing a high level of compatibility with their educational systems. Success in conducting defence missions, personnel training, teamwork, high personnel motivation and efficient command and control will be enabled with the construction of this system. In other words, it would provide efficient professional and qualitative personnel working in the Army of the Republic of Macedonia, and other institutions within the defence and security system of the country. The goal is to build educated and skilful officer

core that should successfully accomplish the mission in the country and abroad, respecting the basic standards, values and regulations.

The transformation of the Military Academy was connected with the requirements for the Republic of Macedonia to develop education and training in the crisis management area, which includes disaster relief and integral border control, in accordance with the standards and procedures adopted by the NATO countries and EU members, where crisis management is one of the basic security related tasks. The efficient conflict management and the active participation during the crisis management is an integral part in the NATO approach and represents a significant contribution in the Republic of Macedonia in maintaining peace and reinforcement of stability and security in the region and all around Europe. One of the key achievements through the transformation was that this system became open for students – officer candidates from other countries in the region as well.

1 THE NEED FOR CHANGES IN MILITARY EDUCATION SYSTEM

The most important part of the military education system in every country, and the primary source for recruitment of young officers, are still military academies. These institutions educate, train and thus produce young leaders, capable of commanding and leading the way in ambiguity. Along with this, military officers need to be honourable people who are ready to serve their country. This is for example why “*Science, honour, duty and country*” is the motto of the Macedonian Military Academy.

Modern warfare and technological development dictate that future officers have comprehensive training, less specialized and will have to cycle back through school often during their careers. In this context for example, Friedman argues that: “[...] *in the age of globalization success is guaranteed to the one who can make connections among disciplines [...]*” (Friedman, 2000, p. 18). Hence, future young military leaders will need a broader range of skills in order to be ready to deal with modern challenges. Additionally, military education systems in the region of South East Europe face the requirements for another set of changes that one needs to consider. Unlike the previous system (the former Yugoslav Army for example), Euro-Atlantic, i.e. democratic standards have urged changes that affect military leaders’ future careers. Today for example, retirement from the military is not really a retirement, but merely a change of careers. Therefore, to respond to personnel challenges, to contribute to the recruiting and retention of the best-qualified personnel, professional military education must tailor its education to individual needs (Spacecast, 2020).

Development of information technology perhaps is one of the most important factors that have affected changes in which military organizations function during peace and war (Rokke, 1995). Breakthroughs in sensors, information processing, communications, and visualization will make huge amounts of information available to the individual soldier. Revolutionary changes in technology place

information and knowledge at the core of national influence and military power. Budget cuts and technological developments are pushing for smaller and more flexible forces. The growing complexity of forces and missions requires a new level of weapon systems integration and organizational change. The Information Age not only places requirements, but also provides opportunities to meet them. We conclude that the organization of military education has the chance to lead the changing military in the twenty-first century (Tagarev, 1996).

The influence of technology and the information technology in particular, is overwhelming. It impacts the process of planning and conducting military operations, organization, communication, command and control, intelligence, procurement, education and training. Today, a new kind of warfare emerged - Information Warfare. "There are plans to expand offensive and defensive capabilities in cyberspace and increase budget for cyber operations. Pentagon announced a major expansion of its Cyber Command and the development of new cyber weapons and a revised set of "rules of engagement" for cyber conflicts, which will help field commanders determine how and when to deploy cyber capabilities" (Michaels, 2013).

Cyber espionage and cyber sabotage can not only speed up enemies' development of their own defence technologies but can also impose severe consequences for military forces engaged in combat, as enemies can knock out communications, corrupt data, and cause computer-based weapons to malfunction. A well-executed cyber-attack could shut down or disrupt military command, control, communications, computers, intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance (C4ISR) systems, and jeopardize the execution of entire military missions. The consequences for the military, and national security, could be devastating (Nakashima, 2013).

So far, another dimension of the use of military force - the ecological impact has been largely unaddressed by the military. However, the ecological dimension of a military operation could affect both the circumstances under which the Army is used and the way it is used (Rokke, 1995). The area of ecology is still to receive attention from our military educators.

Respective doctrinal changes are taking places and new missions appear. Today, the emphasis is shifting towards participation in international missions, coalition warfare, peacekeeping and peacemaking missions, thus requiring from the military student a qualitatively new level of ethnic, religious, cultural, ecological, and human rights awareness. These new missions demand from the officers, often even on a platoon level, deeper knowledge of psychology and social behaviour, languages, history of the conflict, cultural and religious peculiarities of the fighting factions. Communication skills on every level become critical (Gray and Tagarev, 1995). A proper attitude of an educated officer can speed up the solving of the conflict and lower the casualties among the soldiers, as well as among the civilian population.

All of the above dictates that the military education and training should focus on developing capabilities such as: critical thinking; professionalism, ethics, and cooperation; operation research, system analysis; cultural awareness; law and economics competence, as well as development of research experience, and strive for quality. Thus, a primary task of any military education system should be the development of leadership capable of making decisions under pressure and in uncertainties. We believe that underlying these skills is the ability to exercise consequential/critical thinking.

2 MODERN CURRICULA OF MILITARY EDUCATION

Security dynamics in international relations have dramatically changed after the Cold War. Processes of globalization and technological development along with all benefits have brought many challenges too. Employing benefits from globalization and technological development, many non-state actors like never before have gained strategic power and thus, have started to influence international relations including security.

To address existing challenges, leading nations (predominantly Western powers have introduced a range of new missions for military forces. These new missions, from peacekeeping and peace building through humanitarian assistance and disaster relief to the regime change and democratization under the auspices of the war on terror have unequivocally imposed necessity for change in military culture. Concepts such as "network centred warfare", "rapid, decisive operations" or "shock and awe" remain as valuable as ever. However, from military engagement in Afghanistan and Iraq we learned that operational environments have radically changed. As a result, contemporary operations on tactical level hold potential to have strategic impacts.

The military of the twenty-first century, more than ever, will need leaders able to anticipate change, to deal with uncertainty, to present ideas, to communicate vision, and to lead organizational change (Toffler, 1993). In compliance with this, military leaders in order to make sound judgments must have better understanding of economics, technologies, and diverse cultures than their predecessors.

The above mentioned requirements and operational surrounding dictate that military educational system must complement the civilian one. This approach in education widens the perceptions among future young leaders. It also equipped them with the knowledge and skills based on wider range of options and solutions to the problems that they might face.

The growth of expert military knowledge is accomplished, among other, through the development and implementation of formal, written military doctrinal literature in the military education system. Tritten (1994) asserts that doctrine is the body of institutionally approved and widely articulated concepts, practices and procedures which inform and guide the role of professionals and give them senses of common

purpose and common activity. It not only creates a better and clearer understanding but also enhances, or attempts to enhance, their sense of community and their *esprit de corps*. It is the codification of what military personnel should both understand (their beliefs) and do (their practices).

In the Information Age security environment, the first requirement for the curricula is to ensure that military students do not presume to know who their future opponents or coalition partners will be. This appreciation for uncertainty is the beginning of wisdom in the post-Cold War era (Rokke, 1995). In order to make sound judgments, students must have better understanding of economics, technologies, and diverse cultures than their predecessors.

The emphasis of military curricula is shifting from preparing managers to preparing leaders. Managers function in the lower cognitive domain of knowledge, comprehension, and application. Leaders function in the higher cognitive domain of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing (Capozzoli, 1995). The military student needs an understanding and appreciation of the blurred boundaries among military, diplomatic, economics, media, and psychological tools for influencing an opponent, as well as the specific requirements of interagency and international cooperation. New dimensions of information and knowledge impact all aspects of defence and security (Perlmutter, 1977).

The dilemma in the military education about how to provide balance between the academic and the specialized education, as well as between the humanitarian and the technical education, is not new. This in fact is the dilemma that also occupies military wisdom in the SEE (RACVIAC, 2014). In the Information Age, however, the initial educational phase of preparation of a specialist is quickly rendered obsolete by the rate of progress. It is not only special skills and knowledge we should be seeking but a higher level of abstract thinking which can be acquired from a higher academic education and a system of life-long learning (Gilman and Herold, 1993).

Universities stand poised to serve as incubators of these non-technical cyber leaders, “bringing theory and doctrine, with methodology, tools, and implementation” (Kallberg and Thuraisingham, 2013). They ought to play a key role in educating civilians and members of the military on the unique aspects of cyber security, fusing knowledge, intellectual capacity, practical skills, and optimizing their campus-wide resources to devise comprehensive curricula that synthesize technical, policy, sociological, and legal components in the study of cyber threats. Even professional military institutions studying national security and strategy have only recently begun to integrate cybersecurity education in their curricula, despite more than a decade’s worth of experience suggesting that networks and information technologies are both essential to operations and vulnerable to attack (Spidalieri, 2013).

The proposal to institute a new structure to educate civilians within the system of military education may seem as a contradiction to the principle of civilian control of the military. However, even NATO experts reason that “Democratic control brings a responsibility for the military to educate civilians in the government, parliament and media on military affairs, and it is incumbent on civilian officials to be prepared to learn, so that civilian and military can collaborate effectively” (Donnelly, 1997).

3 NEW MILITARY EDUCATION SYSTEM FOR OFFICERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Basis for new education and training system for officers in the Republic of Macedonia straddle the boundaries of several factors. More or less these factors are: the idea to promote qualitative, competitive spirit and training while developing young officer corps, promotion of new sources and methods for promotion of officers, selection and education of quality and competent candidates for officers. It should also insure that the roles, duties and responsibilities of officers match future force structure by rank and level of responsibility, and insure that education requirements are linked to the needs for new missions and responsibilities of the Army.

Military Academy has become a part of the higher education system in Republic of Macedonia with a status of associate member to the one of the state universities - university “Goce Delcev” in Stip. Military Academy offers studies in three cycles (the first cycle - bachelor degree, the second cycle - master studies and specializations, and the third cycle - PhD). The university diploma of completed undergraduate studies at the Military Academy is verified in the country, which provides cadets and students with relevant positions for further education within the educational system of the Republic of Macedonia and other countries members of the Bologna's process.

Military Academy, as the only military higher education and research Institution in the Republic of Macedonia, has a basic role to conduct research work and to educate, train and qualify personnel for the needs of: Ministry of Defence, Army of Republic of Macedonia, Crisis Management and Protection and Rescue Systems.

The educational process in the Military Academy is accomplished through three cycles of university studies, and it will encompass continuous professional education for the officer core of the Army, mainly for the needs of the Defence System, but also for the Crisis Management, and Protection and Rescue Systems.

The three cycles of university studies are according to the Bologna Convention and European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) - university studies in duration of 4+1+3 years. The University diploma of graduate studies of Military Academy will be verified in the country, which provides cadets and students with relevant positions for further education within the education system of the Republic of Macedonia and other foreign countries members of the Bologna process.

The curriculum for the 1st cycle (undergraduate study in duration of 4 years) is providing theoretical and practical (hand on) education. It focuses on developing fundamental knowledge in the social, natural, technical and military sciences (security and defence systems, security and defence policy, world affairs, civil defence, strategy, operations, tactics, war fighting techniques, military equipment and technology). Along with this the education system in this context contains programme that supports broader general and technical culture for further education, computer literacy for the service, good foreign language training (English + other optional language); high military knowledge and skills; higher level of military expertise at tactical level, physical fitness and mental readiness and professional training for basic leadership responsibilities. The curriculum for undergraduate studies includes academic disciplines, modules of military training, and physical education.

The first two years of education are general, and the last two years are branch specific (infantry, artillery, armour, signals, engineer, air defence, pilots, NBC, and also for specific duties in crisis management, disaster relief, and protection and rescue). This will provide all necessary preparation for the first commanding duty - platoon commander, and other duties. Military Academy will educate highly motivated, physically and military prepared cadets and students that will be challenged with all the dangers of asymmetrical and other threats, as well as organized crime, terrorism, WMD, etc.

One of the key functions of the Military Academy, along with the education, is to carry out scientific and research work and development of special studies according to the guidelines from the Ministry of Defence and General Staff of the Army of the Republic of Macedonia (ARM). Scientific and research work is a task that supports activities in defence sector. Along with these duties, the Military Academy accomplishes other tasks in the area of higher education, which comply with the law for higher education. The Military Academy also has the lead in introducing the modern computer technology in the field of education and training, and enables the use of these technologies to the other subjects in defence sector.

The Military Academy aims to develop and improve the teaching staff as the foundation of the educational process and the bearers of scientific and research work. It also aims to modernise the curriculum according to above mentioned principles, develop military science and technology, and to fulfil the needs of the Army. Another aim is to develop the instructional material base by introducing the computer technology, and new teaching aids and equipment in the teaching process required by up-to-date teaching methods.

4 PERMANENT EDUCATION DURING THE CAREER AS A PRIORITY

In the Information Age, formal schooling provides only the first step in a lifelong process of learning and utilizing technology. Learning is truly becoming a life-long endeavour rather than an activity that ends with formal schooling. Thus, students

must learn 'how to learn', which means being able to collect, organize, analyze, evaluate, and communicate all types of information. Military students must become active problem solvers and collaborative learners. They must also learn to become effective users of information technology (Houston, 1995).

Their education must be continuous, combined with training, coherent with the whole process of professional development and career planning. A long educational process or training apart from a real practice is not the remedy. The Information Age technology provides means for everyone to learn what they need, at a time they find convenient, from the place they are, in the way they prefer. Furthermore, the new technologies will greatly facilitate comparison shopping for education and will contribute to the emergence of a reliable education assessment system (Jacobsen, 1993).

In addition to the primary level of education, Military Academy is responsible for continuous professional military education of officers, which represents the system of gradual increase of knowledge, skills and perspective throughout their career. The goal is to produce a quality officer core for the Army with knowledge, courage, self-esteem, understanding and vision for future military tasks and ability to make right decisions at critical moments. Bearing in mind that Army always has to be prepared to fulfil its duties and responsibilities stated in the Constitution, the officer core has to go through permanent training for functional roles as well as through adaptation to newly developed situations and changes in accordance with high demanding tasks. This type of educational system has to be dynamic, progressive and integrated throughout officers' career.

Within the framework of continuous professional education for the officer core, the Military Academy of the Republic of Macedonia developed a set of courses at intermediate level (for the duties of company commanders and staff duties for battalion level). At this level, the Military Academy offers Company commander course and Battalion staff officer course. The aim of the Company commander course is to produce officers for the appropriate positions, while the second one is aimed to prepare the officers for battalion staff positions. Intermediate level of education is not branch specific and its aim is to provide the officers that are promoted to O-3 (captain rank) with all the leader skills, tactics and techniques necessary for command position on company level, as well as battalion staff positions. Also one should be able to understand all the principles of joint military operations that includes oversight of resources, restrains and use of doctrine at this level of operations. At this level of education, there is a shift from officer skills focused on training and missions on lower tactical level to development of analytical skills pointed to planning and evaluation of more complex military missions.

The next level of continuous professional education for the officer is advanced level. At this level, the Military Academy is organizing university studies for the 2nd and 3rd cycle (master and doctor of science studies) in the field of military science,

defence and security. The aim is to further improve the officer knowledge in military science, and to prepare the officers for command and staff positions at higher levels. Selected officers will be developing values and standards to professionally carry out military and non-military operations during peacetime, conflicts and war. Throughout the studies, officers will develop greater intellectual and analytical knowledge and skills.

At this level, the officer studies procedures, tactics, scenarios and doctrines for joint tactical units at a battalion level and higher, and at the same time they are trained for staff positions at a brigade level and above, and command positions at a battalion level. Further at this level, the officer develops skills to analyze and solve different military problems, to work as a part of a team at the unit staff, which includes a full understanding of complex military operations, organization and procedures for the mission. This form of education is organized within the 2nd cycle of university studies, as a specialization for command and staff duties. Specialization will be organized and for the need of the employees in the system for crisis management and disaster relief.

5 GENDER ISSUES IN MILITARY EDUCATION

Constitutional and legal provisions that seek to ensure the equality of all citizens prohibit discrimination and envisage measures for the attainment of full equality (so-called positive discrimination) guarantee the equal representation of women and men in the security sector, and this is the case with the military education. Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia stipulates that the state guarantees the equality of women and men and develops a policy of equal opportunities, enshrines the principle of equality for all in the Constitution and the law. The Constitution prohibits all forms of direct or indirect discrimination, especially based on race, gender, national affiliation, social origins, birth, religion, political or other opinion, property status, culture, and language. Development and enhancement of gender integration in military education and training was one of the focuses of the reforms in military education system.

The Military Academy has embedded the concept where the issue of “gender” is not strictly focusing on women in the militaries, as many may initially think. When discussing gender and security sector reform, the topic cuts across a myriad of gender topics and includes gender relations among many cultures between men, women, boys and girls. It considers cultural development, individual socialization, education within communities, and development and existence of the acceptable gender roles in various societies, among others (Lorber, 1994).

Topics related to gender equality and gender based violence are only partially integrated in the curricula of Military Academy. Still no in-depth curriculum specifically addresses gender-based and sexual violence. We believe that this should be the future objective that will provide military personnel with an appropriate

understanding of how these issues affect their professional success. Another main shortfalls include weak preventive culture and policies, and inadequate inter-agency cooperation as well as analytical and planning capacity.

There are certain steps and measures taken for integration of the gender perspective into recruitment process in the Military Academy, and military service in general. The most important are the following:

1. *The physical fitness criteria for the selection of female applicants are regulated.* During fitness testing, the same tests are administered; however, standards and scores are adjusted to recognize biological differences between women and men. All remaining selection tests are the same.
2. *Legal equality, which means that male and female personnel have the same rights and duties.* They receive equal pay to their male counterparts. Women can join the military forces both as civilian employees or military personnel, and the majority of posts in Army are open to women. Officers are appointed to a service position according to the necessary qualifications; however, measures may be adapted to promote equality of women and men.
3. *Promote equal opportunities between women and men.* Women enter the Army on a voluntary basis. Women can enter the Military Academy equally after passing competitive examinations such as medical, psychological, physical fitness, grades from high school, as well as a personal interview.
4. *No influence on the career due to pregnancy or childbirth.* This is applicable after military education and training, when they start with the military career. The assignment will remain open and conditional upon successful completion of the other tests. It does not hinder motherhood. Thus, motherhood does not become an obstacle for those women who wants to have military career.
5. *Information campaigns.* This campaigns have the goal to outlining possibilities to develop military careers for women and to combine professional and family life by men and women.

The great progress in institutionalizing women's recruitment into the Military Academy in the Republic of Macedonia was made in 1997, when we started with education of female officers for the needs of the Army. In that year, the education of the officer candidates that have finished higher education (faculty level) for the officers of logistic specialties and other services in the ARM, in a form of course, was open to women. The results were clear: in the 1997–2010 period, out of the 240 candidates who finished this form of course at the Military Academy and were promoted in officers rank, 99 or 41% were women.

The Government of the Republic of Macedonia in 2008 made decision to begin process to restart the work of the Military Academy, and in 2009 new Law for Military Academy was endorsed in the Parliament. According to this Law women were authorized to enrol in the Military Academy as students/cadets. That year, for the first time in the history of military education institutions in the Republic of Macedonia, the Ministry of Defence invited women to apply for admission to the

Military Academy, as regular students/cadets at the 1st cycle of study (undergraduate study in duration of 4 years).

The total quota for admission of students/cadets for Military Academy is set each year 'based on a job needs assessment' prepared by the General Staff of the Army. The number of women's recruitment for all five generations of students/cadets at the Military Academy are given in Table 1. Although such efforts represent some progress, gender equality in the officer core of the Army of the Republic of Macedonia has yet to reach a satisfactory level.

Table 1:
Women's
recruitment
into the Military
Academy as
regular students/
cadets at the
1st cycle of study

Generation (School years)	Total	Male	Female	%
2009-2013	34	27	7	20%
2010-2014	34	24	10	29 %
2011-2015	35	26	9	26%
2012-2016	35	29	6	17%
2013-2017	31	24	7	23%
TOTAL	169	130	39	23%

These figures indicate that not all levels of military education are equally accessible to female and male candidates, despite the principle of equal opportunities in place. In order to remedy the unequal representation of women in the military, the active promotion of women's recruitment should continue. However, this statistical data should not be regarded as a quota for affirmative action, but rather as a target against which the level of recruitment of both male and female candidates, and members of national minorities would be measured.

6 NEW EDUCATIONAL METHODOLOGIES BASED ON INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

Military training has made a big progress from the time of the first war training techniques that were used in the Prussian armies (Brewster, 2002). That progress is mainly driven by the advantages that are brought by the new computer, sensor and micro-processing technologies. These technologies are used like a particular replacement of the traditional training programs in the Army, mainly for: better readiness of the military, lowering the costs for training, longer use of the real equipment and combat technique, and because they are eco-friendly.

The Information Age technology and its all-encompassing influence not only demand changes, but also provide tools facilitating life-long education. Today's distance learning, multimedia, virtual reality, and telepresence concept allow the development of a new concept of officers education and a relevant restructuring of the military educational system. Technology enables us to facilitate learning in new and innovative ways and to provide access to the wealth of information available.

The dawn of the Information Age brings with it concepts and technologies that provide unparalleled opportunities for the military and security force, to develop and adopt new operational concepts that may radically enhance their competitive edge. According to Herz and Michael, 2002, “the military is undergoing a major cultural shift in its approach to simulation. The use of entertainment technology is not a new phenomenon in the military. What is different today is the emergence of a culture that accepts computer games as powerful tools for learning, socialization, and training”.

Technology cannot substitute for good teachers, but can allow a teacher to facilitate and tailor learning for individual students. The emerging concept requires redefining the way military schools are organized and what occurs within the school, as well as rethinking how teachers teach and students learn. According to Brewster (2002), technology enables restructuring of the military educational system by:

- providing new and more powerful ways for students to receive, understand, and manipulate information;
- enabling students to become active learners;
- escaping the boundaries of a fixed location school to facilitate interaction with people and events in faraway places;
- encouraging international, multi-disciplinary project-oriented education;
- promoting cooperative learning;
- allowing both independent and distance learning opportunities;
- matching teaching methodologies to student's learning styles and preferences;
- developing new ways of assessing student performance.

There is an embedded culture of excellence in modelling, simulation and war gaming within the military that has already begun to benefit from advances in video game technologies and methods. Using video game technologies more widely in learning and training within the military feels like a natural extension of this culture. A wide range of games options is now available, from simple board games, through casual gaming, dozens of genres of console and PC games, to massive multiplayer online environments. Advantages of simulation games lay in the provision of a safe training environment, where users are able to play, test and probe without serious consequences. At the same time, it is important to engage learners by providing a motivating, challenging environment, which becomes meaningful to the player when skills and knowledge acquired within the game are transferrable to real work tasks (Heide, Theo and Alexander, 2012).

Advances in simulation technology have enabled an increasing amount of training and instructions to be conducted on training simulations instead on real systems. Nowadays, practically no military training programs exist without some form of simulation or use of a simulator. The simulation of combat, or a wargame, is used more and more extensively to reduce cost and maintain a trained force. It is an inexpensive alternative to live training exercises (Coppieters, 2002).

Based on previous statements, the Military Academy is stimulating and supporting implementation of new educational methodologies based on information technology in order to improve and increase the quality of the educational processes. This is especially the case in education and training of helicopter pilots, where modern helicopters simulators are used. Also, the Academy uses simulation software based on gaming technology for cadets' tactical training at platoon level. There have been plans to introduce constructive simulations software in the process of education for specialization for command and staff duties, and courses at the intermediate level. In addition, the Military Academy has also developed concepts of distance learning and video-teleconferencing, using multimedia tools, virtual reality and other concepts.

Conclusion Education and training of officers and civilian personnel that carry out certain duties and tasks within the defence system entails acquisition of theory and practice of complex military and other sciences at different educational levels within the system of military education and training throughout professional career. The Military Academy is the most important part of this system.

The paper started with the evaluation of the needs for changes in military education system. On this basis, the content of modern curricula of military education was anticipated. This was next connected with the new military education system for officers in the Republic of Macedonia which will encompass continuous professional education for the officer core of the Army, mainly for the needs of the Defence System, but also for Crisis Management and Protection and Rescue Systems.

Based on positive experiences and analyses, the conclusion is that education of the officers must be continuous, combined with training, coherent with the whole process of professional development and career planning. The goal is to produce a quality officer core for the Army with knowledge, courage, self-esteem, understanding and vision for future military tasks and ability to make right decisions at critical moments.

For many militaries, gender is still a new topic. Educators face on the one hand the challenges of developing new curricula and teaching materials on gender, and on the other, the broader call to integrate gender dimensions across all military education and training. Gender, as a security concern, remains at the forefront of defence institutions and military operations.

New developments in technology enable us to facilitate learning in new and innovative ways and to provide access to the wealth of information available. New educational methodologies based on information technology provide tools for: better readiness of the military, lowering the costs for training, longer use of the real equipment and combat technique, and because they are eco-friendly.

We are aware that the key to achieving necessary standards in education and training is in development of teaching personnel and equipping the Military Academy with teaching aids and facilities similar to military academies in the developed countries. Cooperation with similar institutions in NATO and partner countries has a very important role in further development of the Macedonian Military Academy.

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IZOBRAŽEVANJE ČASTNIKOV – OD RAZPRAV O ORGANIZIRANOSTI K RAZMISLEKU O VSEBINAH

OFFICER EDUCATION – FROM DISCUSSIONS ON THE ORGANIZATION TO THE CONSIDERATION OF CONTENTS

Povzetek Sodobne vojaške organizacije izobraževanje častnikov nenehno prilagajajo novim zahtevam. V prispevku so najprej na kratko prikazani sedanji izzivi, s katerimi se pri izobraževanju častnikov srečujejo v večini zahodnih držav. V drugem delu je predstavljen pristop k izobraževanju in usposabljanju v Natu, predvsem z vidika značilnosti, ki so aktualne tudi za razmislek o izobraževanju v Slovenski vojski. V zadnjem delu pa prikažemo značilnosti, temeljne težave in izzive izobraževanja častnikov v Slovenski vojski. Pomanjkljivosti izobraževanja se kažejo predvsem na nadaljevalni ravni. Programe bi bilo treba prilagoditi sodobnim zahtevam vojaške profesije in ob tem tudi izboljšati kakovost njihovega izvajanja. Do zdaj je bila pozornost namenjena predvsem spremembam organizacijske strukture izobraževanja, vprašanja zahtev in ciljev ter kakovosti pa niso bila ustrezno obravnavana. V prihodnje bo treba več pozornosti nameniti prav tem vprašanjem in šele, ko bodo znani jasni odgovori, je smiselna tudi razprava o organizacijskih rešitvah.

Ključne besede *Izobraževanje častnikov, razvoj vojaškega izobraževanja, politika Natovega izobraževanja, vojaška profesija, Slovenska vojska.*

Abstract Contemporary military organizations constantly adjust officer education to new requirements. The article begins with a short depiction of the current challenges in officer education, which appear in most Western states. This is followed by the presentation of NATO's approach to education and training, from the viewpoint of the characteristics relevant for consideration in the Slovenian Armed Forces. The last part of the article deals with characteristics, basic issues and challenges in officer education in the Slovenian Armed Forces. Shortcomings mostly exist at a higher level of education. Educational programmes need to be aligned with contemporary requirements of the military profession, and the quality of implementation should be improved. So far, attention has mainly been given to changes in the organizational structure of education, while educational requirements, goals and quality issues were

not adequately addressed. In the future, more attention should be devoted to the latter issues, and only after reaching clear solutions, the discussion on organizational issues seems reasonable.

Key words *Officer education, military education development, NATO education policy, military profession, Slovenian Armed Forces.*

Uvod Izobraževanje častnikov je eden najpomembnejših dejavnikov kakovosti vsake vojaške organizacije. V zgodovini so se vsebine in načini izobraževanja častnikov nenehno prilagajali spremembam vojaške organizacije in njenih nalog. Od njegove kakovosti je bilo pogosto odvisno, ali je vojska zmogla izpolniti pričakovane zahteve, tesno pa je povezano tudi s kariero častnika. Začetno izobraževanje častnika še zdaleč ne more zagotoviti znanja za dolžnosti, ki so na hierarhični lestvici višje uvrščene. Zato častniki v svoji karieri opravijo veliko formalnega izobraževanja, najbrž v malokateri profesiji namenijo tej dejavnosti več časa.

V Sloveniji izobraževanje častnikov poteka že dobrih dvajset let, ves čas pa je bilo tudi predmet intenzivnih razprav, tudi danes o njem še vedno ostajajo številna vprašanja odprta. Čeprav so se razprave v preteklosti dotikale tako organiziranosti kot vsebin izobraževanja, se zdi, da je bilo več pozornosti namenjene organizacijskim vidikom. Slovenska vojska (SV) je podobno kot vojaške organizacije drugih zahodnih držav podvržena velikim spremembam, povezanim z nalogami, doktrino, organiziranostjo in zmogljivostjo, kar že več kot desetletje poimenujemo transformacija. Izobraževanje mora zato zagotoviti, da vojaška organizacija ne samo da kakovostno opravlja svoje naloge, temveč tudi, da se je sposobna ustrezno prilagajati spremenjenim razmeram. Glede na izzive, s katerimi se sooča SV, bo najbrž v prihodnje treba opraviti temeljit razmislek tudi o ustreznosti vsebin in kakovosti izvajanja izobraževanja.

1 SODOBNO IZOBRAŽEVANJE ČASTNIKOV – IZZIVI

Izobraževanje častnikov je eden ključnih dejavnikov, ki opredeljujejo kakovost vsake vojaške organizacije oziroma, če uporabimo sodobno terminologijo, tudi njeno profesionalnost. Pravzaprav večina pristopov k vojaškemu profesionalizmu častnike obravnava kot edine ali ključne nosilce profesije.¹ Med značilnosti, ki opredeljujejo profesije, spadata tudi poseben nabor specialističnega znanja in sistem izobraževanja. Petek (2011, str. 84) ugotavlja, da je ena ključnih značilnosti profesij usmerjenost k praktični uporabi teoretičnega znanja, pri čemer večšina temelji na uporabi obsežnega in visoko specializiranega korpusa teoretičnega znanja in metod njegove uporabe. Opozarja tudi, da je strokovno znanje načeloma univerzalno oziroma, da so temeljna spoznanja na področju vojaške stroke generalna vsaj v

¹ Določitev pripadnikov vojaške profesije se pri različnih avtorjih razlikuje. Mnenje o tem, kdo je vojaški profesionalc, ni točno določeno, vendar pa so častniki vedno obravnavani kot ključni nosilci vojaške profesije, pogosto tudi podčastniki. O značilnostih vojaške profesije in vprašanih določitve njenih pripadnikov sta v reviji *Sodobni vojaški izzivi v preteklosti* razpravljala Potočnik, 2012, in Petek, 2011.

evropski tradiciji. Izobraževanje častnikov torej lahko razumemo kot ključni proces v oblikovanju njihove profesionalnosti, načeloma pa naj bi vojaški profesionalci imeli dokaj podobno strokovno znanje ne glede na državo, ki ji pripadajo.² To izobraževanje ni omejeno zgolj na temeljno šolanje, v katerem častniki pridobijo prvi čin in znanje za prvo dolžnost, pač pa obsega različne ravni štabnih šolanj in druge oblike izobraževanja med vso častnikovo kariero. V zahodnih državah celovit sistem šolanja častnikov pogosto označujejo kot *profesionalno vojaško izobraževanje* (professional military education – PME).³

V tem prispevku avtorja uporablja izraz *izobraževanje častnikov*, s čimer misliva tako na izobraževanje kot tudi na usposabljanje. Oba procesa sta pogosto sočasna in povezana kot del izobraževanja častnikov. Razlikujeta pa se glede na metode in cilje. V vojaških institucijah pogosto poudarjajo vsebinsko razliko med obema, ni pa pomembno, ali potekata v formalni obliki ali ne. V ključnem Natovem dokumentu s tega področja⁴ je izobraževanje (*education*) opredeljeno kot »načrtno poučevanje posameznikov, ki zagotavlja napredek znanja in sposobnosti ter razvoj kompetenc. Je razvojna aktivnost, ki posameznike pripravlja, da se razumno odzivajo v nepredvidljivih razmerah«. Usposabljanje (*training*) pa je opredeljeno kot »razvoj sposobnosti in znanja, potrebnega za izvajanje konkretnih dolžnosti in nalog. Gre za naučen odziv na predvidljive razmere«. Na razlike med procesoma opozarjajo tudi drugi viri. »Vojaško izobraževanje je načrtno poučevanje posameznikov, ki povečuje njihovo poznavanje znanosti in veščine vojskovanja ... usposabljanje je poučevanje osebja za krepitev zmožnosti opravljanja posebne funkcije in naloge.«⁵ Podobno razliko med izobraževanjem in usposabljanjem opredeli tudi najvišji doktrinarni dokument s tega področja v SV, ki pri izobraževanju poudarja teoretično znanje, pri usposabljanju pa praktično znanje in poznavanje postopkov.⁶ Upoštevati moramo tudi, da se razmerje med izobraževanjem in usposabljanjem praviloma spreminja z ravno šolanja, tako da se z višjo ravno večja tudi delež izobraževanja. Prav tako se potreba po vse več izobraževanja (in ne zgolj usposabljanja) povečuje tudi s spreminjanjem nalog vojske v sodobnosti, o čemer bo več povedano v nadaljevanju prispevka.

² Pri tem gre za splošno znanje in splošne kompetence, ki naj bi jih imeli častniki ne glede na to, kateri državi pripadajo, seveda pa se način, kako jih uporabljajo, lahko spreminja glede na predpisane nacionalne postopke, oborožitev in tehnična sredstva, ki jih imajo na voljo, idr.

³ PME v ZDA na primer obsega pet stopenj, od temeljnega izobraževanja na vojaških akademijah do izobraževanja za najvišje (generalske) čine: 1. Precomissioning (undergraduate) PME, 2. Primary-level PME, 3. Intermediate-level PME, 4. Senior-level PME, 5. Flag/General Officer PME; http://www.dtic.mil/cjcs_directives/cdata/unlimit/1800_01.pdf; glej tudi (Watson, 2007, str. 20–22). V Natovi publikaciji *Generic Officer Reference Curriculum* pa so opredeljene tri stopnje izobraževanja častnikov: 1. Pre-Comissioning/Basic Officer, 2. Junior Officer 3. Intermediate/Senior Officer.

⁴ NATO Education, Training, Exercise and Evaluation (ETEE) Policy.

⁵ *International Military and Defence Encyclopedia* (str. 804–805).

⁶ »Pri vojaškem izobraževanju je pomembno s teoretičnim znanjem in spoznavanjem etičnih načel in standardov, ki oblikujejo dobrega vojaka, utrjevati integriteto posameznika. Pri vojaškem usposabljanju pa sta v ospredju razvijanje praktičnega znanja, veščin in postopkov ravnanja, pridobljenega predvsem z urjenjem, ter oblikovanje posebnih (na primer voditeljskih) sposobnosti, značajskih in moralnih lastnosti.« *Doktrina vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja, Slovenska vojska, PDRIU, 2013.*

Vojaške organizacije ustreznosti in kakovosti izobraževanja častnikov praviloma namenjajo veliko pozornosti. Pravzaprav se je izobraževanje častnikov v zgodovini ves čas prilagajalo zahtevam po učinkovitosti delovanja. Od začetka devetdesetih let v evropskih državah in tudi neevropskih članicah Nata zasledimo intenziviranje sprememb pri izobraževanju častnikov, sedanji sistemi častniškega izobraževanja so pogosto tudi predmet kritičnih razprav. Tudi v slovenski vojaški znanstveni in strokovni literaturi je bilo o tem že veliko napisano.

Skupni imenovalec teh razprav je ugotovitev, da je danes za častnike nujno, da poleg znanja in veščin, značilnih za vojaško stroko, ki se nanašajo predvsem na uporabo oborožene sile, pridobijo tudi izobrazbo z različnih tehničnih in predvsem družboslovnih področij. Kotnik (2008, str. 74) na primer ugotavlja, da bodo morali v prihodnosti poveljniki obvladati bojne veščine in imeti hkrati tudi diplomatske spretnosti ter sposobnost vsestranskega ocenjevanja vsake akcije, ne le z vidika vojaške učinkovitosti, temveč tudi v luči vpliva političnih, etničnih, lingvističnih in verskih okoliščin, v katerih delujejo. Meni, da »nove okoliščine zahtevajo 'intelektualiziranega' častnika s sposobnostjo strateškega razmišljanja, s tenkočutnostjo diplomata in sposobnostjo razumevanja politično-psiholoških dimenzij, ki presegajo realnost bojnega polja. Zato mora izobraževanje častnikov preseči tradicionalne načine in ozko bojiščno naravnost« (prav tam, str. 85). Jung (2003, str. 261) opozarja, da mora načrtovanje vojaškega izobraževanja zagotoviti boljše razumevanje: a) spreminjajoče se narave družbe in kulture; b) spreminjajoče se narave kriz, vojn in konfliktov ter nebojnih vojaških operacij; c) novih oborožitvenih tehnologij ter poveljevanja, nadzora in informacijskega področja.

V številnih evropskih državah sodobno izobraževanje častnikov postaja vse bolj konvergentno v smislu, da postaja vse bolj podobno običajnemu univerzitetnemu izobraževanju (glej Svete in drugi, 2011, str. 129–132). V razmišljanjih o izobraževanju častnikov se vse bolj uveljavlja tudi potreba po razvoju kritičnega razmišljanja. Geis (2013, str. xvii), ki analizira profesionalno izobraževanje častnikov v ZDA, opozarja na težavo, da je izobraževanje usmerjeno k vprašanju, kaj razmišljati namesto kako razmišljati. Po njegovem mnenju delovanje v vojaškem okolju zahteva višjo raven kognitivnih spretnosti, kot sta sposobnost sklepanja in vrednotenja, vendar pa sedanji izobraževalni sistem poudarja nižjo raven spretnosti, kot sta pomnjenje in razumevanje.

Sodobno vojaško izobraževanje opredeljuje tudi dejstvo, da pridobljeno znanje in spretnosti hitro zastarajo. Opravljeno šolanje na neki stopnji samo po sebi še ne omogoča dolgotrajnega uspešnega opravljanja dela. Zato je cilj šolanja tudi razvoj sposobnosti posameznika za (samostojno ali organizirano) nadaljnje izobraževanje, ki pravzaprav poteka med vso poklicno kariero. Kot navaja Kotnik (2008, str. 79), je ena izmed značilnosti sodobnega častnika tudi dovolj široko in trdno teoretično znanje, ki omogoča kontinuirano učenje med vso vojaško kariero. Sodobne doktrine izobraževanja častnikov zato poudarjajo pomen vseživljenjskega učenja (*life-long learning*). V ameriškem dokumentu *Joint Education White Paper* na primer najdemo

zapisano zahtevo, da naj se vsak pripadnik v obdobju služenja nenehno uči in naj bo vedno željan novega znanja in razumevanja, učenje pa ne sme biti omejeno le na občasno obiskovanje formalnih šolskih programov.

S tem, ko izobraževanje častnikov postaja vse zahtevnejše, je vedno bolj v ospredju tudi vprašanje kakovosti izvajalcev izobraževanja. Foot (2001, str. 13–16) obravnava razvoj evropske tradicije štabnega šolanja častnikov. Ugotavlja, da se v razvoju šolanja po koncu hladne vojne vedno bolj pojavlja potreba po poučevanju nevojaških vsebin na akademski ravni. S tem pa v izobraževalni proces poleg vojaških strokovnjakov vedno bolj enakopravno vstopajo tudi civilni akademski učitelji. Opisuje prehod od ozko zastavljenega in v vojaške institucije zaprtega štabnega šolanja častnikov k širšim programom, ki obsegajo podiplomsko raven obrambnih in varnostnih študij. Oblikovali so se različni modeli hkratnega izvajanja štabnega šolanja in civilno akreditiranih podiplomskih programov ter praksa vključevanja civilnih akademskih strokovnjakov v šolanje častnikov. Murray (2014, str. 13) v analizi ameriškega vojaškega izobraževanja opozarja, da so za izobraževanje častnikov pomembni dobri častniki in tudi civilni učitelji. Za te meni, da lahko imajo pomembno vlogo pri preseganju uveljavljene »vojaške kulture«. Podobno Reed (2014, str. 20) meni, da morajo biti višje vojaške izobraževalne ustanove intelektualni centri odličnosti, ki bodo združevali najboljše vojaške in civilne akademske strokovnjake. Na nadaljevalni ravni šolanja častnikov v tujini torej srečamo vse večje približevanje tega šolanja podiplomski ravni izobraževanja, ki mora obsegati tako posebne vojaške vsebine kot tudi širše, predvsem družboslovno znanje, ki jih potrebuje sodobni častnik.

Danes pogosto naletimo na kritične razprave o ustreznosti izobraževanja častnikov. Predvsem je v ospredju potreba po hitrem prilagajanju spremembam in izobraževanju, ki bo usmerjeno v vprašanja prihodnosti. Kot primer lahko navedemo razprave o izobraževanju častnikov v ZDA. Obravnavajo težave, ki so aktualne tudi za skoraj vse zahodne države. Johnson-Freese (2013) razpravlja o pomanjkljivostih v prilagajanju ameriških ustanov profesionalnega vojaškega izobraževanja realnim potrebam in ugotavlja, da bi morale za učitelje uvesti sistem imenovanja v naziv, podoben tistemu na civilnih univerzah, razviti strategijo pridobivanja kakovostnega in raznolikega učiteljskega kadra, razvijati dobre učne programe in povečati kredibilnost, temelječo na zahtevnosti programov in kakovosti učiteljev. Carafano in Kochems (2005) pa opozarjata, da način izobraževanja častnikov v ZDA zahteva nov način razmišljanja. Menita, da se je to izobraževanje od konca druge svetovne vojne le malo spremenilo: »Njihovo usposabljanje in napredovanje še vedno potekata na podlagi njihovih sposobnosti za reševanje izzivov, s katerimi se na bojišču skoraj zagotovo ne bodo srečevali.« Menita tudi, da bodo častniki v prihodnje potrebovali sposobnost kritičnega razmišljanja, ki jo lahko razvijejo na podiplomskih izobraževalnih programih. Sposobnost razmišljanja in ne poglobljen študij določene vede vidita kot najboljšo pripravo za delovanje v nejasnih in negotovih razmerah, ki so ključne značilnosti vojskovanja v prihodnosti. Poleg takšnih opozoril najdemo tudi razmišljanja o tem, da bi morale biti izobraževanje častnikov bolj usmerjeno v reševanje problemov, s

katerimi se bodo srečevali v prihodnosti. Hailes (2013, str. 229) navaja ugotovitve iz raziskav izobraževalnih programov za višje častnike. Pokazalo se je, da je 71 odstotkov vsebin programov usmerjenih v sedanost, 22 v preteklost in le sedem v prihodnost. Pri tem se sprašuje, ali lahko izobraževalni programi, ki so v glavnem usmerjeni v sedanost in preteklost, primerno pripravijo častnike za reševanje izzivov, s katerimi se bodo srečali v prihodnosti.

V zadnjih dveh desetletjih so se zahteve po izobraževanju častnikov temeljito in zelo dinamično spreminjale. Tudi trenutni načini šolanja so predmet kritičnih razprav in sprememb. Pri tem so v ospredju potrebe po širitvi vsebin izobraževanja, po hitrem prilagajanju spremenjenim razmeram, vseživljenjskem učenju ter usmerjenosti v prihodnost in razvoj sposobnosti kritičnega razmišljanja. V vojskah članic Nata je ustrezno izobraževanje tudi dejavnik, ki zagotavlja zmožnost transformacije. Ob tem, ko se skoraj vse zahodne države soočajo s podobnimi zahtevami in težavami pri izobraževanju častnikov, to poteka v nacionalnih ustanovah in po programih, ki se razlikujejo med seboj. Ne glede na razlike pa morajo vsi izobraževalni sistemi sproti ugotavljati zahteve po znanju, ki ga častniki potrebujejo, in na tej podlagi razvijati ustrezne vsebine ter zagotavljati kakovostno izvedbo izobraževanja in njegovo sprotno evalvacijo.

Za izobraževanje in usposabljanje častnikov so v celoti odgovorne države, ki za ta namen vzdržujejo svoje vojaške izobraževalne ustanove. V sodobnosti je na tem področju tudi vse več različnih oblik sodelovanja in izmenjave izkušenj med državami ter ponekod tudi razvoja programov svetovanja in pomoči pri gradnji vojaških izobraževalnih ustanov in programov izobraževanja.⁷ V SV bo treba razmisliti o prihodnjem razvoju izobraževanja častnikov, pri tem pa so lahko, predvsem z vsebinskega vidika, zelo koristne tudi tuje izkušnje. Vsekakor so tudi programi izobraževanja častnikov v SV v preteklosti nastajali ob upoštevanju tujih izkušenj, vendar je smiselno postaviti vprašanje, koliko sledimo sodobnim trendom v izobraževanju častnikov. Iskanje odgovora na to vprašanje bo zahtevalo poglobljeno razpravo, pri čemer se bo treba bolj kot na to, kako naj bo izobraževanje organizirano, osredotočiti na njegove vsebine. Tu se kot prispevek k tej razpravi zdi smotrno omejiti na kratko predstavitev sprememb v načrtovanju in izvajanju izobraževanja v Natu ter na nekatere izzive, ki se v zvezi s tem pojavljajo.

2 PRENOVA IZOBRAŽEVANJA IN USPOSABLJANJA V NATU

Izobraževanje in usposabljanje v Natu sta posebni aktivnosti, ki zagotavljata pripravljenost posameznikov, poveljstev in enot za izvajanje operacij zavezništva. Dopolnjujeta izobraževalne aktivnosti držav članic, ki so odgovorne za izobraževanje

⁷ O pomenu večje povezanosti na področju izobraževanja za Nato na primer govori French (2014, str. 3), ko ugotavlja, da je za uresničitev Natove Pobude povezanih sil (Conected Forces Initiative) ključnega pomena mreža nacionalnih obrambnih in varnostnih akademij v vsem zavezništvu. Te ustanove so lahko ključne v zagotavljanju sinergije in izmenjave izkušenj ter lahko veliko pripomorejo k harmonizaciji razvoja človeškega kapitala.

lastnih častnikov, in ju nikakor ne nadomeščata. Vsekakor pa je prenova sistema izobraževanja in usposabljanja, ki poteka v Natu, lahko koristna tudi z vidika razmisleka o prihodnjem izobraževanju častnikov v SV.

Nato je v zadnjih letih doživel temeljite spremembe. Naloge (kolektivna obramba, obvladovanje kriz in kooperativna varnost) in ambicije zavezništva se z novim Strateškim konceptom iz leta 2010 niso bistveno spremenile, spremenile pa so se zahteve do poveljniške strukture. Zaradi dejstva, da se zavezništvo vse več ukvarja s kriznim upravljanjem zunaj tradicionalnega območja svojega delovanja, je politično vodstvo, tudi z vidika zmanjševanja sredstev za obrambo, sprejelo odločitev, da se mora obstoječa poveljniška struktura zavezništva zmanjšati in prilagoditi novim zahtevam. Poveljstva morajo biti učinkovitejša, bolj prilagodljiva, premestljiva in vzdržljiva, obenem pa še vedno sposobna opravljati naloge iz 5. člena Severnoatlantske pogodbe. Število osebja v poveljniški strukturi se je zato zmanjšalo z več kot 13.000 na 8800, zmanjšalo se je tudi število poveljstev, preuredili pa so se tudi procesi v zavezniških strukturah. Eden ključnih dejavnikov za delovanje zavezništva, ki bi se bilo sposobno spopadati s trenutnimi in prihodnjimi izzivi, je tudi zahteva po prenovi Natovega sistema izobraževanja in usposabljanja.

Prenova sistema izobraževanja se je začela še pred sprejemom novega strateškega koncepta. Zahtevno nalogo je prevzelo Zavezniško poveljstvo za transformacijo (*Allied Command Transformation – ACT*), ki naj bi z novim sistemom oziroma pristopom zagotovilo boljšo povezanost, usposobljenost in učinkovitost zavezništva in partnerskih držav, obenem pa zagotovilo racionalno in gospodarno rabo vse manjšega obsega virov, namenjenih temu področju. V poveljstvu so se naloge lotili z globalnim pristopom, ki naj bi poleg zavezništva vključil tudi vse partnerske države, ki z zavezništvom sodelujejo v operacijah, temeljil naj bi na racionalizaciji sedanjih oblik izobraževanja in usposabljanja, uvedbi enotnih standardov za zagotavljanje kakovosti in na centraliziranem upravljanju sistema izobraževanja in usposabljanja v letnih ciklih. Cilj takega pristopa je bil uskladiti vsa področja izobraževanja in usposabljanja v Natu, vključno z vajami, in tako podpreti vse trenutne in prihodnje zahteve zavezništva.

Za ureditev razdrobljenega Natovega sistema usposabljanja (z naraščanjem zahtev so se pojavljali novi in novi programi usposabljanja ter nove institucije držav zaveznic in partneric, ki med seboj niso bili usklajeni ne po vsebini ne po zahtevnosti), so v Zavezniškem poveljstvu za transformacijo s pristopom »top-down« začeli prenavo sistema usposabljanja. V raziskavah, ki so jih opravili pred začetkom prenove, so ugotovili, da kar 80 odstotkov držav članic (in približno 60 odstotkov partnerskih držav) v nacionalnih izobraževalnih sistemih uporablja določila bolonjske pogodbe in iz nje izhajajočih rešitev. Uskladitev Natovega sistema usposabljanja in izobraževanja z mednarodnimi izobraževalnimi standardi je bila zato logična rešitev pri postavljanju sistema zagotavljanja kakovosti. Nato je sprejel dokument, s katerim se na celotnem področju izobraževanja in

usposabljanja v Natu uvajajo mednarodni standardi,⁸ torej v vseh institucijah v Natu in tistih, s katerimi Nato sodeluje, obenem pa so k uveljavitvi teh standardov pozvane tudi vse države članice. S tem korakom želijo doseči, da bi imele vse izobraževalne ustanove, ki prispevajo k skupni usposobljenosti Natovih sil, dober sistem zagotavljanja kakovosti in da bi bil ves sistem pregleden in medsebojno usklajen, kar bistveno prispeva h končnemu cilju interoperabilnosti v zavezništvu.

Natov sistem usposabljanja in priprave sil za operacije temelji na nacionalnih izobraževalnih sistemih, ki izvajajo individualno usposabljanje svojega osebja. Ustrezni in medsebojno kompatibilni nacionalni sistemi so torej eden izmed pogojev za uspešnost novega Natovega sistema priprave osebja in enot za izvajanje operacij.

Pomemben korak k temu cilju se je začel že pred desetletjem. Na vsakoletni konferenci poveljnikov vojaških šol, ki jo organizira *Nato Defence College* kot ena najpomembnejših Natovih izobraževalnih ustanov, so poveljniki šol izpostavili potrebo po poenotenju nacionalnih programov izobraževanja častnikov, saj se le tako lahko zagotovi ustrezna in pričakovana usposobljenost ključnega osebja v Natu. Pobudo so začeli uresničevati v obliki matrike s pregledom in primerjavo vsebin programov vojaških šol članic Nata in partnerskih držav. Delo na tem področju se je nadaljevalo znotraj Konzorcija Partnerstva za mir (*PfP Consortium*), v katerem je mednarodna delovna skupina izoblikovala referenčni kurikulum za častnike (*PME Reference Curriculum*) in pozneje še za podčastnike.⁹ Referenčna kurikula vsebujeta priporočene ravni šolanja v kariernih sistemih častnikov in podčastnikov ter predlagane vsebine s stopnjami zahtevnosti za posamezne ravni. V Zavezniškem poveljstvu za transformacijo so oba kurikula potrdili kot ustrezna za potrebe Nata in jih priporočili vsem članicam in partnerskim državam kot referenčno gradivo pri oblikovanju njihovih nacionalnih programov.

Prenova sistema usposabljanja v Natu prinaša tudi centralizirano upravljanje. Pri tem sta si na temeljni ravni vlogi razdelila Zavezniško poveljstvo za operacije (*Allied Command Operations – ACO*), ki oblikuje zahteve po usposobljenosti, in Zavezniško poveljstvo za transformacijo, ki izvede ustrezno usposabljanje. Poveljstvo za operacije nato ponovno oceni ustreznost in kakovost tega usposabljanja. Sistem usposabljanja torej upravlja poveljstvo za transformacijo, ki z različnimi prijemi zagotavlja pregleden, kakovosten in konkurenčen sistem oblikovanja zahtev, programov, izvedbe in evalvacije vseh izobraževalnih dejavnosti v Natu.

Kljub temu da se izobraževanje in usposabljanje v Natu glede organiziranosti in namena bistveno razlikujeta od nacionalnih sistemov vojaškega izobraževanja, pa njuno preoblikovanje opozarja na nekatera vprašanja, ki jih je treba rešiti tudi v nacionalnih vojaških izobraževalnih sistemih. Predvsem so to vprašanja, kako

⁸ *Alignment of NATO's Education and Training with International Educational Standards; 5000/TSC TXX 0040 / ser: NU 0225, 3 maj, 2012.*

⁹ *Generic Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum in Non-Commissioned Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum.*

prilagajati izobraževanje spreminjanju nalog in strukture vojske, kako zagotoviti povezovanje različnih izobraževalnih zmogljivosti, kako prilagoditi izobraževanje standardom zagotavljanja kakovosti, ki veljajo v civilnem visokem izobraževanju, in kako opredeliti pristojnosti na področju upravljanja.

3 IZOBRAŽEVANJE ČASTNIKOV V SLOVENSKI VOJSKI – PRAKSA IN IZZIVI

Razvoj sodobne, učinkovite in čim bolj profesionalne vojske, k čemur težimo v Sloveniji, je precej odvisen tudi od kakovosti častnikov. Nedvomno je zavedanje o pomenu izobraževanja častnikov prisotno že od nastanka države. Šola za častnike (ŠČ) in Poveljniško-štabna šola (PŠŠ) sta bili ustanovljeni že leta 1993. Do danes so izobraževalne ustanove SV doživele številne organizacijske spremembe, manj intenzivno pa se je spreminjala vsebina šolanja. Zato se lahko upravičeno vprašamo, kako izobraževanje sledi zahtevam častniške profesije in sodobnim težnjam v izobraževanju.

ŠČ in PŠŠ sta najprej delovali znotraj Izobraževalnega centra (IC) MO RS. Obe šoli sta vse do danes sestavni del skupne izobraževalne strukture, ki pa je doživljala pogoste reorganizacije. IC MO RS se je leta 1995 preimenoval v Center vojaških šol. Leta 1999 je bil umeščen v strukturo SV in podrejen Generalštabu, leta 2004 pa vključen v novo oblikovano Poveljstvo za doktrino, razvoj, izobraževanje in usposabljanje (PDRIU). Z reorganizacijo leta 2013 je bilo to poveljstvo ukinjeno, za izvajanje izobraževalne dejavnosti pa je bil ustanovljen Center vojaških šol (CVŠ). Vsebinsko je delo obeh šol povezano tudi z delovanjem organizacijskih enot, ki zagotavljajo večino učiteljskega kadra in so bile prav tako predmet reorganizacij. V devetdesetih letih je delovala Katedra za vojaškostrokovno izobraževanje, ki sta jo nasledila Oddelek splošnih učiteljev in Oddelek za izobraževanje in usposabljanje rodov. Po ustanovitvi PDRIU je bilo jedro učiteljev v Centru za doktrino in razvoj, leta 2011 pa je bila ustanovljena Katedra za nacionalno obrambo, ki je bila leta 2013 reorganizirana v Katedro za vojaške vede. Številne reorganizacije v zadnjih dvajsetih letih niso bile povezane s spreminjanjem vsebin izobraževanja in niso prispevale k njegovi kakovosti, pač pa so precej pripomogle k preusmerjanju pozornosti od vsebinskih k organizacijskim vidikom izobraževanja. Z reorganizacijami so bile povezane tudi številne kadrovske spremembe, mnoge so negativno vplivale na kakovost izobraževanja.

Za razumevanje stanja na področju šolanja častnikov je koristno pregledati tudi vsebino razprav, ki so o tem potekale v preteklosti. Omeniti je treba več posvetov, namenjenih tej tematiki: interni posvet v tedanjem Republiškem štabu Teritorialne obrambe leta 1992, posvet o šolanju častnikov SV z mednarodno udeležbo leta 1994, posvet Vizija razvoja izobraževanja častnikov SV leta 2007¹⁰ ter interni posvet o doktrini vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja leta 2011. Razprave na posvetih

¹⁰ *Prispevki s posveta so bili objavljeni tudi v zborniku Bilten Slovenske vojske, 2008, 10/št. 1.*

in drugi objavljeni prispevki kažejo, da je bilo šolanje častnikov predmet intenzivnih razmišljanj. S tem se je strokovno ukvarjalo veliko kvalificiranih avtorjev.¹¹ Večina poudarja pomen izobraževanja in doseganja širokega znanja oziroma večdisciplinarnega izobraževanja častnikov, opozarja na približevanje vojaških in civilnih izobraževalnih sistemov, podaja kritične ocene uveljavljene prakse izobraževanja v SV in razvija poglede na izobraževanje v prihodnje. Dokaj različne pa so zamisli o tem, kako naj bi bile organizirane ustanove za izobraževanje častnikov (glej Kotnik, 2008; Svete in drugi, 2011; Toš, 2011; Žabkar, 2008; Žabkar in Svete, 2008). V tem prispevku bi bilo preobširno predstavljati vsebine omenjenih razprav, to pa tudi ni njegov namen. Pomembna pa je ugotovitev, da se je izobraževanja častnikov v preteklosti lotevalo veliko kvalificiranih razpravljavcev, da pa so kljub tej razpravi danes na tem področju še vedno številne težave in odprta vprašanja.

Leta 2013 je bil sprejet dokument Doktrina vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja, ki je najvišji vojaškostrokovni dokument na tem področju. Obravnava poslanstvo in cilje ter načela izobraževanja in usposabljanja. Opredeljuje tudi strukturo programov izobraževanja. Doktrina obravnava vojaško izobraževanje in usposabljanje kot celovit sistem, ki obsega dejavnosti na tem področju za vse kategorije pripadnikov SV. Opredeljuje tudi, da so programi na vojaških šolah organizirani kot šolski programi, njihovi izvajalci pa morajo izpolnjevati predpisana merila in zahteve (Doktrina VIU, 2013, str. 5). Doktrina opredeli strukturo programov šolanja častnikov ter splošna načela izobraževanja, ki veljajo za vse kategorije pripadnikov. Podrobnejših določil o šolanju častnikov pa ne vsebuje, zahteve in vsebine so podrobneje opredeljene v programih šolanja.

Na praktični ravni se je SV v preteklosti ukvarjala predvsem z organizacijskimi vidiki izobraževanja, vsebini pa je bilo namenjeno manj pozornosti.¹² Dokaj podrobno so bili oblikovani nekateri modeli, ki pa niso bili uresničeni. Omeniti velja predvsem projekt priprave javne izobraževalne ustanove SV iz leta 2007, v katerem je delovna skupina pripravila osnutek dokumenta, s katerim se utemeljuje možnost ustanovitve »vojaške fakultete«.¹³ Potekala so tudi razmišljanja, da bi dele vojaških izobraževalnih programov povezali z ustanovami v javnem izobraževalnem sistemu. Ta so leta 2008 dobila tudi formalno podlago v dokumentu ministra za obrambo.¹⁴ Zanimivo je tudi, da dokumenta, ki sta nastala v tesno drug za drugim, ponujata dokaj različne rešitve organiziranosti izobraževanja.

Kljub temu da modela šolanja, ki sta bila predlagana v navedenih dokumentih, nista bila uresničena, je v preteklosti bilo nekaj oblik šolanja častnikov, ki so bile povezane s programi na civilnih fakultetah. Od leta 2006 do leta 2012 je višje

¹¹ Večino člankov smo tudi uporabili kot vire za ta članek.

¹² Podobno tudi Jelusič (2008, str. 179) ugotavlja, da je šlo pri razpravah o izobraževanju v SV za veliko modelov in malo vsebine, avtorji se ukvarjajo predvsem z obliko in ne z vsebino.

¹³ Ustanovni elaborat za formiranje izobraževalne institucije v Slovenski vojski (vojaške fakultete). Ljubljana, 2007 – delovno gradivo.

¹⁴ Izhodišča za oblikovanje v sistem javnega izobraževanja integrirane vojaške izobraževalne institucije, (MO RS 603-105/2008-3, 16. 8. 2008).

štabno šolanje potekalo v skupnih programih s tremi fakultetami in zagotavljalo tudi podiplomsko stopnjo izobrazbe.¹⁵ Na Fakulteti za strojništvo se izvaja dodiplomsko šolanje pilotov, med letoma 2006 in 2011 pa je bil tudi dodiplomski vojaški modul na Fakulteti za družbene vede.

Pri razpravi o vsebinski ustreznosti izobraževanja častnikov v SV je težava v pomanjkanju celovite analize ter ocen kakovosti izobraževanja. V nadaljevanju bomo zato trenutne težave in izzive na tem področju skušali predstaviti na podlagi sinteze različnih virov.¹⁶ Osnovno šolanje častnikov, ki je nadgradnja zaključenega izobraževanja na eni izmed civilnih fakultet, traja leto dni, poteka pa na podlagi programa, ki je bil oblikovan leta 2008, manjše vsebinske spremembe je doživel leta 2013. Ugotovimo lahko, da je program pretežno veščinsko naravnan oziroma je usmerjen v usposabljanje (glej tudi Žabkar in Svete, 2008, str. 200), podaja pa tudi nekaj vojaškega teoretičnega znanja¹⁷. Pri tem se seveda postavi vprašanje, kako lahko v tem času šolajoče, ki nimajo nikakršnega vojaškega predznanja, usposobijo za profesionalce v vojaški stroki. Večina ocen, ki jih najdemo v dosedanjih razpravah o kakovosti osnovnega izobraževanja častnikov, prihaja iz častniških vrst in opozarja na njegove pomanjkljivosti. Toš (2011, str. 113) opozarja na pretežno veščinsko naravnanost programa, Petek (2011, str. 88–9) pa na pomanjkljivo profesionalnost častniškega zbora v SV in se sprašuje, »ali tako omejen čas osnovnega izobraževanja zadostuje za pridobitev potrebnega teoretičnega znanja in metod za začetno opravljanje vojaške profesije«. Podobno tudi Potočnik (2012, str. 38) meni, da šola za častnike »ne proizvede ne bojevnikov ne vodij niti ne ustreznih intelektualcev«.

Zaradi kratkega časa, ki je na voljo, da se kandidati usposobijo za poveljevanje vodu oziroma dobijo prvi častniški čin, je prevlada večinskega izobraževanja v osnovnem izobraževanju sicer razumljiva. Najbrž brez temeljite spremembe sistema izobraževanja častnikov tega ni mogoče spremeniti. Odgovornost za nadaljnji razvoj vojaškega profesionalnega znanja pa je ob tako zasnovanem sistemu izobraževanja v predvsem na nadaljnjih fazah izobraževanja. Glede na podmeno, da profesijo opredeljujeta tudi obseg specializiranega teoretičnega znanja in poznavanje metod, je nadaljevalno izobraževanje častnikov za razvoj vojaške profesije pri nas pravzaprav ključno.

Programi nadaljevalnega izobraževanja častnikov, ki poteka na štabnem šolanju (ŠŠ), višjem štabnem šolanju (VŠŠ) in generalštabnem šolanju (GŠŠ), bi morali dati odgovor na vprašanje, kakšne vojaške profesionalce SV želi oblikovati. Kako

¹⁵ Izvajali so se skupni programi s Fakulteto za družbene vede, Fakulteto za logistiko in Fakulteto za menedžment.

¹⁶ Ob pomanjkanju celovite analize zapisane ugotovitve utemeljujemo na navedenih znanstvenih in strokovnih člankih, na delovnem gradivu Centra vojaških šol Sistem vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja v Slovenski vojski iz leta 2014, ugotovitvah iz pogovorov z zaposlenimi v CVŠ leta 2013 ter na osebnih izkušnjah.

¹⁷ Kot pokazatelj razmerja med teoretično in veščinsko usmerjenimi vsebinami izobraževanja lahko uporabimo razmerje med predavanji, ki jih je v programu približno 40 % (434 ur), in vajami (terenskimi in samostojnimi), ki jih je približno 60 %. Seveda je to samo približno, ker tudi predavanja lahko obravnavajo veščinske vsebine, vaje pa lahko vključujejo tudi teorijo. Med 434 urami predavanj je 50 ur namenjenih tujemu jeziku in 24 ur usposabljanju za javne uslužbenke, ki pravzaprav nista vojaško strokovna predmeta.

ustrezno pa je to šolanje, je težko ugotoviti. Celovita analiza zahtev po znanju, ki naj bi ga častniki dobili na teh treh ravneh šolanja, ni bila opravljena, prav tako tudi ne analiza kakovosti izobraževanja.¹⁸ Z oporo na sicer redke objavljene razprave o tem in s primerjavo s splošnimi tokovi v izobraževanju častnikov v Evropi lahko ugotovimo, da bi bila nujna precejšnja prilagoditev programov zahtevam sodobne vojaške profesije. Ena izmed ocen (Žabkar in Svete, 2008, str. 202) opozarja, da na primer na štabnem šolanju nista dovolj zastopani tehniško znanje ter poznavanje mednarodnih odnosov ter sodobnih konfliktov, na višjem štabnem šolanju pa prav tako ne proučujejo izkušenj iz vojn in oboroženih spopadov, ki so v tujini pomembna sestavina študija. Predmetnik v programih štabnega šolanja in višjega štabnega šolanja v SV smo primerjali z vsebinami, ki jih priporoča dokument *PME Reference Curriculum*. Ugotoviti je mogoče, da so izobraževalne vsebine na ravneh, primerljivih našemu ŠŠ in VŠŠ, delno enake, vendar so tudi precejšnje razlike.¹⁹ Na splošno lahko rečemo, da je v naših programih najti manko teoretično naravnanih izobraževalnih vsebin in analitične obravnave sodobnega okolja, v katerem se izvajajo vojaške operacije. Primerjava pokaže, da se na teh ravneh izobraževanje častnikov v SV bolj nagiba k večinski naravnosti.

Značilnost programov na tej stopnji šolanja je tudi, da se skozi daljše časovno obdobje vsebinsko niso spreminjali. Zadnji program štabnega šolanja je bil sprejet leta 2012 in se od predhodnega iz leta 2005 le malo razlikuje,²⁰ podobno velja za program višjega štabnega šolanja iz leta 2012, če ga primerjamo s programom iz leta 2006.²¹ Razlike so predvsem v številu ur pri posameznih predmetih, v enem primeru pa gre za preimenovanje predmeta. Pregled programov kaže na manko prelivanja novih vsebin, izkušenj, dognanj ter ugotovljenih zahtev v programe šolanja na nadaljevalni ravni. Strokovno kompetentni izvajalci, ki sprotno spremljajo stanje stroke, lahko sicer vedno nekoliko korigirajo te pomanjkljivosti, tako da nove vsebine sproti vključujejo v proces izobraževanja, vendar pa lahko glede na težave pri zagotavljanju njegovih izvajalcev o tem z razlogom dvomimo.

Poleg zadreg na ravni vsebin programov je vse več težav tudi pri zagotavljanju kakovosti izvedbe programov. V ospredje moramo postaviti zagotavljanje ustreznih izvajalcev izobraževanja. Na ravni osnovnega šolanja častnikov te težave niso tako izrazite, ves čas pa je v središču pomanjkanje ustreznega predavateljskega kadra

¹⁸ Še vedno se lahko strinjamo z ugotovitvijo iz leta 2008, da SV še ni objavila ali opravila evalvacije uspešnosti svojih poveljniško-štabnih tečajev z vidika uporabnosti v praksi vojaškega delovanja (Jelušič, 2008, str. 177, opomba 4).

¹⁹ Na ravni štabnega šolanja so vsebine, ki so podobne: vojaške operacije, taktika, proces štabnega načrtovanja in voditeljstvo. *PME Reference Curriculum* pa na tej ravni obsega tudi vsebine, ki jih v programu ŠŠ ni: pravo oboroženih konfliktov, teorija vojskovanja, mednarodna varnost, civilno-vojaški odnosi. Na ravni višjega štabnega šolanja pa v naših programih ne najdemo vsebin iz zgodovine in teorije vojne, civilno-vojaških odnosov, prava oboroženih konfliktov, sodobnega okolja operacij in kriznega menedžmenta.

²⁰ Program štabnega šolanja častnic in častnikov Slovenske vojske (MO RS, 811-01-13/2005-2, z dne 14. 4. 2005) in Program štabnega šolanja častnikov Slovenske vojske (MO RS 603-37/2012-40, z dne 24.4.2012).

²¹ Učni program višjega štabnega šolanja častnic in častnikov Slovenske vojske (GŠ SV 603-60/2006-4, z dne 24. 8. 2006 in Program višjega štabnega tečaja častnikov Slovenske vojske (MO 603-37/2012-33, z dne 14. 4. 2012).

za nadaljevalne oblike šolanja. V preteklosti sicer najdemo tudi opozorila, da so za nacionalni vojaški šolski sistem ključni kakovostni predavateljski kadri, vendar njihov razvoj zahteva ustrezno selekcijo in čas, in da SV takšnih kadrov za področje vojaških ved nima (Žabkar in Svete, 2008, str. 199). V razvoju izobraževanja je bilo tem vprašanjem namenjeno premalo pozornosti. V praksi se težave v zagotavljanju izvajalcev pojavljajo predvsem pri vojaškostrokovnih vsebinah (taktika, operatika, vodenje in poveljevanje, štabno načrtovanje), manj pa pri družboslovnih (nacionalna in mednarodna varnost, zgodovina idr.). Kako naj razložimo ta paradoks? Ali gre za to, da v SV ni ustreznih vojaških strokovnjakov? Temu najbrž ne moremo pritrditi. O nasprotnem govori že dejstvo, da je veliko častnikov opravilo šolanje v tujini. V obdobju 2011–2013 je na primer štabno ali višje šolanje v tujini opravilo 49 častnikov.²² Vendar podatki o izvajalcih izobraževanja v ŠČ in PŠŠ kažejo, da se zelo majhen delež teh častnikov vključuje v izvajanje izobraževanja doma in še to predvsem na ravni osnovnega šolanja častnikov. Samo 14 odstotkov jih je kakor koli posredovalo svoje znanje v kateri izmed šol SV.²³ Vir znanja in izkušenj sta tudi udeležba v operacijah in delo v Natovi poveljstveni strukturi, centrih odličnosti idr., v SV je že dolgo precej častnikov, ki imajo izkušnje na teh dolžnostih. Težava je, da tega v tujini pridobljenega znanja in vseh izkušenj ne znamo »pripeljati« v vojaški izobraževalni sistem. Častniki z največ znanja in izkušenj praviloma niso vključeni v izvajanje izobraževanja. Tega namreč v vojaški kulturi, uveljavljeni pri nas, ne vrednotimo kot del častnikove kariere in je bolj ovira kot pomoč pri napredovanju.²⁴ Tudi sicer redki empirični podatki kažejo, da je zanimanje za poučevanje v programih vojaškega izobraževanja majhno. Brožič (2009, str. 64) v raziskavi, opravljeni v SV med zaposlenimi z znanstvenimi nazivi, ugotavlja, da predavanje v izobraževalnem procesu ni ambicija vprašanih, predvsem pa ne v rednem delovnem času. Ob dodatnih spodbudah (materialnih ali nematerialnih) bi sicer tretjina vprašanih bila pripravljena opravljati tudi predavateljsko delo, zelo majhen delež (desetina) pa bi bil pripravljen zasesti delovno mesto predavatelja. Vse to kaže, da bo treba, če naj bi SV razvila kakovosten predavateljski kader, tem prizadevanjem nameniti posebno pozornost.

Težave z izvajalci izobraževanja so se z reorganizacijo leta 2013 še poglobile. Ob preoblikovanju PDRIU v CVŠ je odšel velik del kvalificiranega učiteljskega kadra. Na Katedri za vojaške vede je prišlo do zamenjave dveh tretjin predavateljev.²⁵ Za nove predavatelje niso bili opravljeni predpisani postopki za izbiro izvajalcev izobraževanja²⁶, njihova struktura po stroki pa ne ustreza zahtevam programov.

²² Štabno šolanje je v tem obdobju opravilo 25 častnikov, višještabno 17 in generalštabno 7 častnikov. Vir: Sistem vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja v Slovenski vojski, CVŠ – delovno gradivo.

²³ Od 49 častnikov so po opravljenem šolanju v tujini bili trije vsaj nekaj časa razporejeni v Šolo za častnike. Kot strokovnjaki iz prakse pa so se s krajšimi predavanji v izvajanje programov vključili štirje častniki.

²⁴ Na podobne težave opozarjajo tudi razprave o izobraževanju v ameriški vojski. Murray (2014) ugotavlja, da v izobraževalnih ustanovah ne poučujejo najboljši in najbolj izkušeni častniki, ker poučevanje ne šteje med dolžnosti, ki bi omogočale napredovanje (Key Development Jobs). Vključenost častnikov v poučevanje pogosto predstavlja oviro za karierno napredovanje.

²⁵ S Katedre za nacionalno obrambo je bilo prerazporejenih 18 od 26 predavateljev ter postavljenih 11 novih.

²⁶ Interna merila in standardi za izbiro in imenovanje strokovnih izvajalcev programov vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja, 804-54/2012-32, 10. 9. 2012.

Ukinjeni so bili nekateri že uveljavljeni postopki, kot so na primer hospitacije v izobraževalnem procesu ter andragoško usposabljanje njegovih izvajalcev. Tem težavam se pridružuje še prekinitve povezanosti s civilnim izobraževalnim sistemom v Sloveniji. V preteklosti so bili pri izobraževanju častnikov že narejeni nekateri koraki v tej smeri: na primer hkratno šolanje častnikov na višjem štabnem šolanju na podiplomski stopnji na civilnih fakultetah, vključevanje predavateljev z univerz v izvajanje programov štabnega šolanja in vojaški modul na Fakulteti za družbene vede. Po letu 2012 se je SV odrekla vsem tem oblikam izobraževanja častnikov, presoja vpliva teh sprememb na vsebino programov in kakovost izobraževanja pa ni bila opravljena.

Eno ključnih vprašanj, povezanih s kakovostjo izobraževanja, je, kako se oblikujejo zahteve po znanju, ki je podlaga za razvoj programov in na podlagi katerega vrednotimo ustreznost in kakovost izobraževanja. Vprašati se je treba, kje se torej opravi presoja o tem, kakšno znanje morajo pridobiti častniki na določeni stopnji izobraževanja, in kako ovrednotimo, ali po nekem šolanju častniki v enote in poveljstva prinesejo ustrezno in dovolj široko znanje ter primerne spretnosti za učinkovito delo. Izobraževanje, če naj bo smiselno, mora upoštevati tudi potrebe »uporabnika«. To seveda ne pomeni, da morajo biti častniki ozko usposobljeni samo za opravljanje konkretnih dolžnosti, ki jih bodo opravljali po končanem šolanju. Naloge sodobnega častnika zahtevajo tudi širše znanje, ki mu bo omogočalo reševati probleme v nejasnih in zapletenih razmerah. Prav zato je razprava o tem, kakšno znanje naj ima sodobni častnik, tudi tako zahtevna.

Temelj za programe, po katerih zdaj poteka izobraževanje častnikov v SV, je zagotovo ustrezno strokovno znanje. Vprašanje pa je, koliko se programi prilagajajo zahtevam sodobne vojaške profesije in kako kakovostno so izvedeni. Pravzaprav bi morale biti vsebine programov izobraževanja častnikov usmerjene v prihodnje zahteve vojaške profesije. Ustreznost izobraževanja s tega vidika pa je, kot smo nakazali v prvem poglavju, pravzaprav temeljni izziv izobraževanja častnikov danes. Na čem torej utemeljiti razmišljanja o vsebinah izobraževanja častnikov SV v prihodnje? Vsekakor je nujno upoštevati težnje sodobnega izobraževanja častnikov, ki smo jih na kratko povzeli v prvem poglavju prispevka. Primerjava s tujimi praksami, vendar pa ne njihovo nekritično prenašanje, bi morala prav tako biti ena izmed podlag teh razmišljanj. Ker je vojaško znanje pravzaprav univerzalno, je za SV upoštevanje tujih izkušenj glede na njeno majhnost in tudi glede na njeno vpetost v mednarodno okolje pravzaprav nujno. Okvir za razmišljanje o tem, kakšno znanje potrebujejo častniki, je lahko tudi že omenjeni referenčni kurikulum za častnike. V tem dokumentu so predlagane vsebine izobraževanja častnikov razdeljene v tri temeljne sklope:²⁷

- vojaško profesionalno znanje (*Profession of Arms*) – sklop obsega poznavanje vojaške profesije ter temeljev vojaških ved, taktike, operacij, načrtovanja in

²⁷ Navedene vsebine so samo okvirni prikaz strukture vsebin šolanja častnikov. Podrobneje so vsebine opisane v posameznih poglavjih dokumenta *Generic Officer Professional Military Education Reference Curriculum*, zbirno pa so prikazane v preglednici na 7. strani omenjenega dokumenta.

- odločanja na različnih ravneh, procesa štabnega načrtovanja, koncepta celostnega pristopa idr.;
- poveljevanje, vodenje in etika (*Command, Leadership and Ethic*) – drugi sklop obsega poznavanje osnov etike in temeljnih vprašanj vojaške etike, osnov vodenja ter organizacijske kulture, poveljevanja in nadzora ter prava oboroženih konfliktov idr.;
 - obrambne in varnostne študije (*Defense and Security Studies*) – tretji sklop obsega poznavanje vojaške zgodovine in teorije vojskovanja ter področja komuniciranja in medijev, upravljanja virov in logistike, mednarodne in nacionalne varnosti, civilno-vojaških odnosov, kriznega menedžmenta ter kulturne različnosti idr.

Predlagane vsebine, ki so opredeljene kot *Pre-commissioning, Junior in Intermediate*, kar bi po naši delitvi izobraževanja ustrezalo šoli za častnike, štabnemu šolanju in višjemu štabnemu šolanju, naj bi se na različni stopnji zahtevnosti izvajale na vseh ravneh izobraževanja častnikov.

Te poglede bi bilo smiselno uporabiti kot referenčni model pri razmisleku, kako strukturirati vsebine celovitega izobraževanja častnikov v SV. Vsekakor bo treba zagotoviti poznavanje vojaške stroke in hkrati dovolj široko znanje za razumevanje vojaške organizacije ter njenega družbenega okolja, hkrati pa razvijati sposobnosti posameznika, da svoje znanje med vojaško kariero nenehno nadgrajuje.

Izobraževanje je treba razumeti kot dinamičen proces, ki obsega analizo potreb ter oblikovanje, izvedbo, evalvacijo in dopolnjevanje izobraževalnih programov. Navadno vključuje več deležnikov – uporabnike rezultatov izobraževalnih aktivnosti, izvajalce izobraževanja in njegove udeležence.²⁸ Smiselno se je vprašati, kdo v SV skrbi za celovite procese izobraževanja. Za vsebino programov izobraževanja častnikov skrbi ustanova, ki izobraževanje tudi izvaja, do nedavnega PDRIU, po reorganizaciji leta 2013 pa CVŠ. Nismo pa znali opredeliti, kdo vse bi moral sodelovati pri nastajanju programov, po katerih se šolajo častniki. Prav tako ni kritične presoje o ustreznosti izobraževanja z vidika zahtev častniškega poklica. V prihodnje bi bilo treba več pozornosti nameniti vprašanju, ali znamo definirati ustrezne zahteve po znanju, nujnem za profesionalnega častnika, in najti odgovor na vprašanje, kdo je zadolžen in strokovno kompetenten za to, da poišče najbolj ustrezne izobraževalne vsebine, ki jih mora absolvirati častnik v izobraževalnem procesu, skozi katerega gre v svoji karieri.

Sedanje stanje opozarja na to, da nimamo ustreznih mehanizmov, ki bi zagotavljali »prelivanje« vsebinskih zahtev častniške profesije v ustrezne izobraževalne programe. Ali pa teh zahtev sploh nismo uspeli definirati, kar pa je lahko tudi znak nezavidljivega stanja na področju vojaškega profesionalizma v SV.

²⁸ Pri izobraževanju častnikov lahko kot uporabnike razumemo enote in poveljstva, kot izvajalce izobraževalne ustanove, ki izvajajo programe, kot udeležence pa častnike, vključene v določen program.

Sklep Prispevek na kratko prikaže razvoj in temeljne izzive v izobraževanju častnikov v SV. Želja avtorjev ni bila celovita analiza tega področja izobraževanja, pač pa sva se osredotočila na tista vprašanja, ki po najinem mnenju opozarjajo, da bo težišče razprave o izobraževanju častnikov v prihodnje nujno preusmeriti od organiziranosti k vsebinam. Več pozornosti bo treba nameniti zahtevam in ciljem izobraževanja ter kakovosti izvajanja. Šele na temelju jasnih sklepov o vsebini programov pa je smiselno tudi razmisliti o organiziranosti izobraževalnih ustanov. Organizacijske rešitve in reorganizacije v preteklosti same po sebi niso prinesle napredka pri kakovosti, to zahteva dolgotrajno, strnjeno in načrtno delo, ki mora upoštevati potrebe profesije ter zagotavljati nenehno evalvacijo in posodabljanje vsebin.

Nadgradnjo sedanjih izobraževalnih programov za častnike zahtevajo vsebinske pomanjkljivosti in spremenjene zahteve do vojaške organizacije. Sodobne vojaške organizacije se morajo glede na zahteve, ki jih prednje postavljajo tehnološke in družbene spremembe, nenehno preoblikovati in razvijati nove pristope k delovanju. Eden temeljnih procesov, ki spremlja evropske vojske, je transformacija. Ta pa ne more biti učinkovita, če je ne vodijo strokovno podkovani, izobraženi in razgledani častniki, ki so pravzaprav nosilci teh procesov. Pri razmisleku o vsebinah izobraževanja častnikov je treba upoštevati težnje v razvoju izobraževanja vojaških profesionalcev, ki smo jih predstavili v prvem delu prispevka. Smiselno pa je upoštevati tudi politiko izobraževanja v Natu. Praksa, ki nastaja na področju izobraževanja v Natu, je še posebej relevantna z vidika postopkov zagotavljanja kakovosti, ki se približujejo praksi v javnem izobraževanju z vidika zagotavljanja znanja in kompetenc častnikov ter z vidika upravljanja sistema izobraževanja.

Koraki za povečanje kakovosti izobraževanja častnikov bodo morali vsebovati strokovno razpravo o vsebinah programov, prizadevanja za razvoj kvalificiranih izvajalcev izobraževanja ter jasno razmejitev pristojnosti v pripravi in izvajanju izobraževanja. Ključne za izvajanje izobraževanja so seveda izobraževalne ustanove. Vendar pa skrb za izobraževanje častnikov ne more biti prepuščena samo njim. V SV bo treba na strateški ravni opraviti jasno presojo o vsebinah šolanja častnikov in upravljanju sistema za zagotavljanje kakovosti, k temu pa pritegniti tudi strokovno javnost v SV in zunaj nje. Posebej pozorno bo treba z vidika uporabnosti v programih izobraževanja častnikov pretehtati tudi znanje in izkušnje, pridobljene v tujini.

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PRIHODNOST SISTEMA KARIERNE POTI ČASTNIKA V SLOVENSKI VOJSKI

FUTURE OF THE OFFICER CAREER DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM IN THE SLOVENIAN ARMED FORCES

Povzetek V članku opisujemo prihodnost sistema karierne poti častnika v Slovenski vojski, in sicer za prvih deset let njegove kariere. Naš glavni namen je razviti predlagani sistem častniške karierne poti za Slovensko vojsko, ki bo zagotavljal določeno stopnjo predvidljivosti v častnikovi karieri in vključeval opredeljive kompetence ter razvoj konkurenčnega okolja za njegovo napredovanje. Osredotoča se na določanje ustreznih orodij za vse štiri funkcije upravljanja kadrov, ki so izvedljive in sprejemljive znotraj omejitev, ki jih postavlja zakonodaja.

V članku je razložen sistem karierne poti častnika na podlagi štirih kadrovskih funkcij, ki so opredeljene kot zaposlitev, razvoj, napredovanje in prehod. Slovenska vojska na podlagi transformacije reorganizira svoje enote v polkovni sistem, v katerem imajo poveljniki čet čin majorja. To je eden izmed razlogov, zakaj v članku obravnavamo tudi sistem karierne poti častnika v britanski vojski, ki bi bil v nekaterih pogledih lahko primeren za novo strukturo Slovenske vojske.

Poleg obravnave predlaganega sistema karierne poti za častnika so v članku navedeni tudi nekateri novi koncepti upravljanja kadrov, kot so izboljšani programi zaposlovanja, razvrščanje v skupine po letih, odbori častnikov in nov sistem ocenjevanja. Vsi ti koncepti omogočajo v predlaganem sistemu častniške karierne poti uvedbo centraliziranega upravljanja kadrov ter zagotovitev pregledne in predvidljive karierne poti, ki temelji na sposobnostih posameznika.

Ključne besede *Slovenska vojska, sistem karierne poti častnika, funkcije upravljanja kadrov: zaposlitev, razvoj, napredovanje in prehod, razvrščanje v skupine po letih.*

Abstract The article describes the future of the Officer Career Development (OCD) system in the Slovenian Armed Forces (SAF) for the first ten years of an officer's career. The main purpose of the article is to develop a proposed OCD system for the

SAF which will provide a certain level of predictability in an officer's career and include identifiable competencies as well as develop a competitive environment for officer promotion. The article focuses on determining appropriate tools for all four functions of the personnel management, which are feasible and acceptable under the constraints provided by the legislation.

The article defines the OCD system through four personnel functions defined as employment, development, promotion and transition. The SAF, through the transformation process, is reorganizing its units into a regimental system with company commanders being in the rank of major. This is one of the reasons the article also looks at the British Army (BA) OCD system which, in certain areas, could be applicable to the new structure of the SAF.

The article discusses the proposed OCD system and introduces several new concepts in personnel management such as: improved employment programme, year group rankings, officer's boards and new evaluation system. All these new concepts allow the proposed OCD system to introduce centralized execution of personnel management and provide a transparent and predictable career path, based on competencies of an individual.

Key words *Slovenian Armed Forces, Officer Career Development system, functions of personnel management: employment, development, promotion and transition, year group ranking.*

Introduction Since the topic of the article is based on the basic premises of the personnel management system, particularly the current Officer Career Development (OCD) system in the Slovenian Armed Forces (SAF) and the British Army (BA), this article focuses on the changes in the Officer Career Development (OCD) system that the SAF should adopt for the first ten years of an officer's career in order to meet its future challenges.

The most recent transformation of the SAF started in 2012, its reorganization bringing about several changes in the structure of the organization and consequently affecting the current OCD system. The purpose of the transformation was to enhance the organizational effectiveness and rationalize the SAF structure (Government of the Republic of Slovenia, 2013). The proposed OCD system looks at these changes through the new formations of units, changes in the Military Education and Training (MET) requirements for different assignments, and changes in ranks for certain assignments.

The reorganization process should be completed by 2018 and will introduce the new structure of the SAF. Previously, the SAF structure was comprised of the General Staff of the SAF (GS SAF), with Force Command and TRADOC as first subordinate commands. The Force command was divided into brigades which

were further divided into battalions. The new SAF structure keeps the GS SAF at the top, together with the Centre for MET and the Combined Operations Centre. Because the Force Command and TRADOC were dissolved in the process of the transformation, the units, which are divided into manoeuvre and logistics brigades, are now directly subordinate to the GS SAF. Lower echelons are manoeuvre and support regiments, as well as some independent regiments (Government of the Republic of Slovenia, 2013). For the scope of this article, changes in the OCD system are depicted through the structure and assignments within the infantry brigades and regiments, where the bulk of an officer's career in the first ten years will take place.

Assignments in the regimental staff are planned to be executed in the ranks of 1LT, CPT and MAJ. MAJs are Section Leader (SL) in the S3 and S4, other Staff SLs are CPTs. The Chief of Staff (COS) in a Regiment is also a MAJ, while the regimental XO is an LTC and the regimental commander a COL. Regiments are battalion-sized formations with company commanders (CO CDR) being majors, their executive officers (XO) CPTs, and platoon leaders (PLT LDR) 2 and 1LTs.

Other significant changes included in this proposed OCD system are the MET requirements for the positions executed in the ranks of CPT and MAJ. The previous MET requirements for assignments in the rank of CPT remain the same; however, the requirements for the rank of MAJ have changed and are depicted in the proposed OCD system. Therefore, the proposed OCD system focuses on the Basic Military Education and Training (BMET), the Staff Course (SC), and different forms of Complementary Training Programmes (CTP).

Similarities with the OCD system in the BA are quite obvious in terms of the regimental structure and developing an officer to the rank of major, at which point they can assume the position of a company commander. Although the BA's employment system is somewhat different from the SAF, the subsequent training, assignments and competencies are applicable to the new structure of the SAF, and are depicted in the proposed OCD system. However, the equivalent of CTP in the BA is focused more on the continuous development of an officer, which the proposed OCD system takes into account.

1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The analysis of different laws governing the Slovenian Defence System and its personnel management calls for a comparative case study. Literature review determined some of the specifics of the current OCD system as well as the environment for the SAF officer corps. This environment changed drastically after the Republic of Slovenia joined NATO and the EU, bringing new challenges for the military in terms of its roles and functions. It is these new challenges that drive the decisions in the competency-based OCD system.

Previous attempts at describing the OCD system in the SAF were generally focused on career models, describing how the SAF develops and promotes officers through the personnel management functions. The existing career models tried to encompass the legal framework of the promotion system which consists of assignment to positions, years in the service and the Officer Evaluation Report (OER), as well as the possible positions to which an officer should be assigned within the three career pillars. All of those career models, along with a comparison to the BA system, help the author in proposing changes to the OCD system.

Identifying aspects of the BA OCD system helps describe the important aspects of the retention policy as well as the career path of individual officers. The proposed changes in the existing OCD system will be closely connected to the strategy of the SAF and the competencies required for the achievement of this strategy, which, in turn, will be closely connected to all four personnel functions of the proposed OCD system.

Although this article focuses its research on the first ten years of service, the proposed OCD system will encompass all four personnel functions, trying to show the need for transition for a certain percentage of individuals at the end of the contract term. Therefore, introducing the transition function in the first ten years of an officer's career, together with the separation process, is crucial in building a competent officer corps as well as maintaining the necessary pyramid structure of the SAF.

2 DEFINITIONS

Officer. A person who holds a position of authority or command in the military (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2013). In the SAF, an officer has university education and has finished the Officer Candidate School. The ranks of an officer in SAF are: second lieutenant, first lieutenant, captain, major, lieutenant colonel, colonel and brigadier (Defence Act, 2004).

Officer Corps. "This is the body of commissioned officers imbued with a unique self-concept defined by the following four identities: warrior, member of profession, servant of country, leader of character." (Matthews and Snider, 2005: 9). The SAF Officer Corps is the most professional part of military profession in the SAF forces (Jelušič, 1997).

Career Development System. Is a process of balancing an employee's career needs and an employer's labour needs. The organizational tools and subsystems of the CD system, used by an employer, are recruitment, the system of promotion and motivation, determination and evaluation of competencies, and training and evaluation (Štefanič, 2010). The OCD is a career development system specifically designed for officers.

Competencies. Competencies are defined as the activation and connection of individual knowledge, capabilities, motivation, self-awareness and values, allowing an individual to perform his or her duties and solve problems in unknown and diverse environments (Kohont and Naglič, 2006). Competencies provide military leaders with a clear and consistent way for conveying their expectations. Military leaders serve to lead others, to improve the environment, to develop themselves, others and the profession as a whole, and to achieve the organizational goals (ADP 6-22, *Mission Command*, 2012).

Career path. Is a variable line in an individual's progression through different positions during their employment in the armed forces. It is connected with the ability of an individual to be promoted, assigned to other positions within the same pay grade, or degraded. The career path in the SAF presents possible positions or reassignments for each individual.

Key development positions. These are deemed fundamental to the development of an officer in his or her core branch or functional area competencies, or deemed critical by the senior military leadership to provide experience across the military's strategic mission (DA Pam 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management*, 2010).

Retention policy. Represents a set of rules and standards, set by an organization, which must be achieved by individuals who want to remain in the organization. It provides the tools to define requirements to those individuals who are already in an organization in order to prolong their employment, or serve as criteria to reduce the members of an organization through the separation process, as part of the transition function.

3 PROPOSED OCD SYSTEM IN THE SAF

One of the author's professors at the Command and General Staff College (CGCS) said to always begin with an end goal in mind, otherwise each and every road will do. That being said, this article is based on some of the challenges the SAF will face in the future, as well as on constraints placed on the OCD system by the legislation governing the SAF and its members. The proposed OCD system tries to encompass these challenges and constraints, and include them in the OCD system through a competencies-based approach. Competencies are understood as a means used by the senior SAF leadership to direct the training and education process of its personnel in order to achieve the SAF's strategic goals.

Failing to communicate those needs to the personnel management of an organization (Tomažič, 2013) eventually leads to a situation in which the senior leadership cannot achieve the strategic goals through the availability of trained and competent officers. A clear set of competencies is very important in the early stages of an officer's career and aids the SAF in the building of its officer corps by clearly communicating the

expected competencies to an individual and the society. The proposed OCD system is based on competencies and encompasses all four personnel management functions of employment, development, promotion and transition.

The first challenge of the SAF is determined by the current fiscal constraints which might have long term-effects on the organization, while forcing the SAF to prove its relevance to the people of the Republic of Slovenia. The second challenge for the SAF is its growing involvement in multinational HQs within NATO and the European Union. Other challenges are posed by deployments in various UN and NATO-led operations, and by being heavily involved in supporting the civil authorities in times of natural disasters and other emergencies. The Slovenian Armed Forces played a crucial role in the recent sleet that crippled almost half of the country in February 2014. Supporting the national and local natural disaster relief agencies and using its bilateral relations with other armed forces has led to more efficient support to the affected population. The SAF's relationship with partner countries has led to additional generators from the 173rd IBCT from Vicenza being delivered to the Postojna area which was most affected by sleet.

The proposed competencies-based OCD system looks at these challenges and determines the competencies that individual officers must have in order to lead the SAF in the future. Being able to communicate both in the domestic and international environment, using foreign languages, and having 'intellectual interoperability' with peers within the NATO and EU structures are some of the competencies the proposed OCD system looks at. Being able to operate in a fiscally constrained environment would force an officer at the tactical level to show a high level of commitment, motivation and initiative to find a way to mitigate these constraints in the training and operational environments.

3.1 Concepts supporting the proposed OCD system in the SAF

To support the development of those competencies and provide a transparent OCD system, the proposed OCD system introduces several new concepts: improved employment programme, evaluation report, key development positions, and year group ranking of officers. These concepts are the foundation for the proposed OCD system and have to be adopted in conjunction with changing the personnel management system.

The improved employment programme is one of the new concepts the proposed OCD system would introduce into the SAF. It upgrades the existing scholarship system with the purpose of identifying the competencies needed to accept an individual in the SAF during his or her under-graduate years.

Another new concept is the comprehensive evaluation concept which is no longer based solely on an individual's OER, but includes soft competencies and competencies not included in the OER, as well as the recommendation from a superior officer. The OER, soft competencies and superior's recommendation are combined in the

Officer Evaluation Package (OEP) which presents a more centralized evaluation management system intended to support all three functions of personnel management after an individual is accepted in the SAF.

The proposed evaluation process represents the basis for developing and promoting officers in the SAF. A weighted method of three different parts of the OEP gives 40% weight of the OEP to the commander's recommendation and 30% to soft competencies and the OER. The OEP is measured by a scale of one to five, and follows the same scale as the OER in order to avoid confusion.

The third new concept is the introduction of key development (KD) positions with the proposed OCD system emphasizing certain positions that must be held by an individual in order to assume leadership positions. KD positions more or less contribute to the soft competencies of an individual and are part of the OEP.

The OEP is therefore used to support the rankings for assigning an individual a KD position, provide information for the ranking list of an individual for other assignments and promotions, as well as to enrol an individual in the Advance Military Education and Training (AMET) and complementary training programmes (CTP) in Slovenia and abroad. The OEP will also be used in determining a retention policy on the basis of which the individuals who do not comply with the prescribed standards could be excluded after the first two or ten years of their service in the SAF, as is outlined in the 2013 and 2014 Guidance.

The last new concept of the proposed OCD system is the ranking of officers within their year group, where they are ranked below, within, or above the 'zone'. The article discusses all these new concepts in detail below.

3.1.1 Employment of an officer in the SAF

The SAF entry requirements are defined in the Defence Act (2004) and will not be discussed in detail in this article because the proposed OCD system is based on the current legislative framework. Future demands for officers in the SAF call for the employment of approximately 35 individuals per year. The number is a rough estimate based on the calculation of the current needs which call for the employment of about 15 officers per year, and takes into account the need for increased numbers due to the separation process as well as the need for officers in the reserve component. The separation process will be discussed in detail in the last of the four personnel management functions.

One of the shortfalls of the existing system is the low level of commitment that the students in the scholarship programme are required to show during the study. This has recently been changed with the organization of "summer camps" where students are able to practice certain individual and squad-level skills and procedures. However, the summer camp was not recognized as a formal completion of any of the forms of Core Level Training (CLT) prior to 2008, when the Minister of Defence adopted the

Regulation for Scholarship in the SAF, and is even today open to all interested students regardless of their status in the scholarship programme. In other words, it represents the only event in which students are evaluated and trained; however, having other students present on a voluntary basis does not help the evaluation and selection process.

Military summer camps are an excellent way of promoting the military profession among the student population in Slovenian universities, but have failed to meet the expectations of providing a proper assessment of the scholarship programme members and of recruiting new individuals to the armed forces. Not receiving any formal recognition after the completion of camps has led the senior leadership into making changes to the entire enrolment system that the proposed OCD system in this paper takes into account.

Enrolment in the proposed OCD system is based on the needs of the SAF for new officers. The proposed enrolment process also takes into account the organizational changes in the SAF after the completion of transformation in 2018 and the ratio between officers, non-commissioned officers (NCO) and privates, which, at the end of the transformation process, should be 1:2:4 (Midterm Defence Programme of the Republic of Slovenia, 2013).

Igor Kotnik (2008), the current political advisor to the Chief of the GS SAF, in his article “A Modern Officer of the Slovenian Armed Forces: Their Characteristics and Formation”, highly recommends the format of the US ROTC programme. In his opinion, this programme provides the most cost-efficient way to obtain new individuals for the officer corps in the SAF. The existing OCD system already has in place a scholarship programme which gives scholarships to students of different universities in Slovenia and sends certain individuals to academies abroad.

The enrolment programme based on the Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) in the US military should be adopted to allow the SAF to monitor an individual through all four years of his or her under-graduate education. The Defence Act and Regulation for Scholarship in the SAF require, among other things, the following in order to enter and finish the scholarship programme:

- An individual must complete medical and physical screening prior to entering the programme;
- An individual must complete the Core Level Training (CLT) during his or her four years of study (Regulation for Scholarship in the SAF, 2008).

The proposed OCD system recommends changes to the existing regulations, further regulates the scholarship programme and introduces additional requirements:

- An individual must finish school in the required academic years; the only exemption would be for medical causes, but an individual must still be medically fit for military duty upon graduation;
- An individual must be actively engaged in the activities of the SAF through the civil-military events offered at university;

- An individual must complete medical and physical fitness examinations every two years.

These changes might help in implementing the already existing postulates for introducing the ROTC programme into the SAF in the framework of the Doctrine of Training and Education. The improved enrolment programme in the proposed OCD system should provide up to 90 percent of future officers, while the other ten percent should be divided among the applicants from the existing SAF structure and specialists such as doctors, legal personnel, clergy and others. The paper omits details on these specialists due to the special consideration for this personnel and very low numbers of these individuals on a yearly basis.

Selection for the Officer Candidate School (OCS) in the proposed OCD is very similar to the one the BA has and serves as an additional selection process for the SAF for accepting an individual with the necessary competencies for becoming an officer of the SAF. The selection is also necessary for the prior enlisted personnel chosen by the SAF to apply for the OCS. The enlisted personnel should possess the same level of competencies but are not sent to the CLT, as they have already finished a CLT upon their employment in the SAF. Similar can be observed in the British Army OCD system within the Late Entry (LE) programme, where serving soldiers are eligible to apply for an LE commission upon completion of nine years of reckonable service. The one big difference is that all LE officers are commissioned as captains (Offices Career Development Handbook, 2005). While the current selection process for the OCS recognizes certain entry-level skills, the proposed OCD recommends basic competencies of an individual entering the OCS. The proposed OCD system recommends a similar technique for measuring these competencies as the BA selection process, using a form of the Army Officer Selection Board. These competencies should, at minimum, be:

- Physical fitness;
- Ability to effectively communicate in Slovenian and at least one of the official NATO languages;
- Motivation and sense of responsibility;
- Reliability and initiative;
- Living by the SAF values.¹

The proposed programme should also allow the SAF to communicate expected competencies to future members of the SAF Officer Corps and the RS society, with the intent of building confidence in its military. The programme should also enforce high standards for future officer corps, having oversight of the level of commitment to the profession of arms as well as flexibility to cope with a changing environment which could demand different profiles of officers. The next step of the proposed OCD system deals with the development and promotion of an officer from the early stages of his or her career all the way to the ten-year mark.

¹ For the definition of each competency look at Appendix: Table of proposed competencies.

3.1.2 Development and promotion of an officer in the SAF

The proposed OCD system develops officers according to the Doctrine of Training and Education (TED). The development starts with the selection process as the entry requirement for the Officers Candidate School (OCS), and continues with the OCS and Military Occupational Specialty (MOS) schools as the second part of the Basic Military Education and Training (BMET). Officer's professional development after the BMET is continued with the complementary training programmes (CTP) and the Staff Course as part of the Advance Military Education and Training (AMET) and one of the prerequisites for the rank of captain.

During the OCS the candidates are continuously trained and evaluated through the competencies acquired before the OCS; moreover, they develop new competencies which are needed for commissioning as a 2LT. Those additional competencies for the first two officer's ranks include:

- Emotional intelligence;
- Powers of communication in the Slovenian language;
- Subordinate development;
- Professional effectiveness;
- Tactical proficiency;
- Communication in an official NATO language;
- Leadership;
- Management of resources.²

After completion of the OCS, the SAF commissions an individual into the rank of 2LT and provides MOS training during which an officer obtains competencies for his or her branch and future assignments. The officer is still under constant evaluation, which gives the SAF ability to manage the structure of the officer corps in the early stages of an officer's career.

The next step of the development of an individual is the CTPs which are intended to give an individual additional competencies to execute specific assignments. While the current OCD system recognizes two parts of the CTP and is focused on training and educating an individual for specific assignments, the proposed OCD system looks at the BA and recommends the following applicable programmes from the BA system for the SAF CTP.

The SAF, like the BA, should develop its CTP as a continuing professional development from the rank of captain to major and above. The CTP system is developed to provide individuals with short resident courses at designated schools or to distribute course material to individuals while working in units and then testing their knowledge through various exams. The BA's CTP is focused on developing additional leadership skills, creative and critical skills such as writing, and preparing individuals for future AMET courses.

² For the definition of each competency look at Appendix: Table of proposed competencies.

The current TED (Pešec, 2013) in the SAF recognizes the next level in developing an officer through the AMET. The scope of this article looks at the first part of the AMET, which is the Staff Course (SC). The proposed OCD system introduces several additional requirements as well as the entry-level exam for the SC, which will provide an additional tool for the OEP and identify the competencies needed to advance to the SC.

The selection process for the SC should begin in the third and fourth year of an officer's career, with the OEP for both of those years providing the tools for ranking the year group. The officers with the highest OEP in the year group represent the 'below zone' for their year group and are legible to apply for the SC in their fifth year with the 'in-the-zone group' of the previous year and the 'above the zone' group from previous two years. The entry-level exams play a crucial role in identifying the qualification to enter the SC from all three year groups and serve as an additional selection tool for the SAF to use in determining the retention policy.

The last part of developing an officer within the proposed OCD system is the Company Commander Course as part of the CTP. This should be a week-long course executed in a designated institution after completing the company command selection and within six months of assuming command. A company commander, in relatively small armed forces as the SAF, with a prevalent deployment policy, which is based mostly on company-sized units being deployed, is a very important assignment which can have strategic implications for the Republic of Slovenia. Therefore, the Company Commander Course should build on the legal, financial and administrative as well as leadership and tactical competencies needed to command a company. Moreover, it should provide an individual with the latest overview of the National Defence Strategy and the Midterm Defence Programme in order to obtain the latest strategic guidance for the SAF.

The CTP and SC are oriented to prepare an officer to assume assignments such as a company executive officer (CO XO), regimental staff officer (Reg. Staff), regimental section leader (Reg. Sect. LDR), Brigade Staff (BDE Staff), instructor in Military Education and Training (MET) institutions, regimental XO or Chief of Staff, or Section S3 and S4 leader (Reg/COS/S3/S4), General Staff of the SAF position (GS SAF), company commander (CO CDR), and others. The competencies for the ranks of captain and major are listed as general competencies, commander competencies and staff pillar competencies. The proposed OCD system recommends that an officer possess the following competencies to meet the demands of those assignments:

- General competencies:
 - Emotional intelligence;
 - Powers of communication (able to publish articles in SAF magazines);
 - Motivation;
 - Responsibility;
 - Subordinate development;
 - Courage;

- Reliability;
 - Professional effectiveness;
 - Initiative;
 - Tactical proficiency;
 - Communication in at least one of the official NATO languages.
- Commander's pillar:
 - Embrace ambiguity;
 - Leadership;
 - Accept prudent risk.
 - Staff pillar:
 - Analytical skills;
 - Interdisciplinary;
 - Accuracy;
 - MDMP proficiency;
 - Organizational skills;
 - Mission Command systems proficiency.³

The current promotion system in the SAF depends on individual assignments, years of service and a person's OER. The proposed OCD system builds on the current system and recommends the concept of year groups, as already presented.

The year group, based on the OEP, provides a transparent and competitive model that provides a satisfying level of predictability in an officer's career. This concept would allow the ranking of officers within their respective year groups. The concept will therefore eliminate confusion and lack of transparency in certain personnel management actions. Promotion and development as well as separation will be executed among the same year group at once, allowing for the competitiveness of officers among themselves.

The proposed OCD system also introduces the KD positions for the most demanding and prestigious assignments in an officer's career. The proposed 2014 Guidance of the Ministry of Defence for career management in the SAF recommends giving advantage to assignments to leadership positions if an individual held the identified KD positions. The proposed OCD system identifies the KD positions prior to company command, regimental and brigade section leader or regimental COS. For assignment to company command, an individual should hold the following KD positions:

- PLT LDR in their branch;
- Instructor in MET or Company XO;
- Being deployed as part of a regiment.

For assignments to regimental or brigade section leader (S3, S4) or Regimental COS:

- Company commander;
- BDE Staff or Regimental S3, S4.

³ For the definition of each competency look at Appendix: Table of proposed competencies.

Table 1:
Proposed
career system in
the new OCD
system

RANK	POSITIONS				SELECTION PERIOD	YRS IN SERVICE
MAJ/ CPT	MAJ: CO CDR, MET, Reg. XO/CoS/ S3/S4, GS SAF, BDE Staff	CPT on MAJ: MET, Reg. XO/ CoS/S3, GS SAF, BDE Staff	CPT: Reg. sect. LDR, BDE Staff	Separation process at the end of 10YRS mark		10YRS
CPT/ 1LT	CPT on MAJ: MET, Reg. XO/ CoS/S3/S4, GS SAF, BDE Staff	CPT on MAJ: MET, Reg. XO/ CoS/S3/S4, GS SAF, BDE Staff	1LT on CPT: CO XO, Reg. staff, BDE Staff: 1/3 Separation	1LT: Reg. Staff: Separation	} 2 nd Selection for the zone and retention	9YRS
CPT/ 1LT	CPT on MAJ: MET, Reg. XO/ CoS/S3, GS SAF, BDE Staff	CPT: CO XO, Reg. sect. LDR, BDE Staff, MET	1LT on CAPT: CO XO, Reg. staff, BDE Staff	1LT: Reg. Staff		8YRS
CPT/ 1LT	CPT: CO XO, Reg. sect. LDR, BDE Staff, MET	1LT on CPT: CO XO, Reg. sect. LDR, BDE Staff	AZ: 1LT on CAPT: Staff Course	1LT: Reg. Staff		7YRS
1LT	1LT on CPT: CO XO, Reg. sect. LDR, BDE Staff	Z: 1LT on CPT: Staff Course	1LT: PLT LDR, Reg. Staff	1LT: Reg. Staff		6YRS
2/1LT	BZ: 1LT on CAPT: Staff Course	1LT: PLT LDR, Reg. Staff	2LT on 1LT: Reg. Staff	Separation process at the end of 5YRS mark		5YRS
2/1LT	1LT: PLT LDR, Reg. Staff	1LT PLT LDR, Reg. Staff	2LT on 1LT: Reg. Staff	2LT on 1LT: Reg. Staff	} 1 st Selection for the zone**	4YRS
2LT	*2LT on 1LT: PLT LDR, Reg. Staff	2LT on 1LT: PLT LDR, Reg. Staff	2LT: PLT LDR	2LT: PLT LDR		3YRS
2LT	PLT LDR					2YRS
-2LT	OCS / MOS					1YR

* Meaning an individual is assigned to a position of higher rank to the one currently held (in this case, a 2nd LT is assigned to a position for the rank of 1LT).

** Selection is based on the OEP in the 3rd and 4th year and is used to determine individuals above the zone (AZ), in-the-zone (Z) and below the zone (BZ) of their year group.

The promotion system is based on promotion in assignments and is depicted in the Table: Proposed Career System. New assignments in the Table are depicted in the column showing an individual with a lower rank occupying a higher-rank position for a certain amount of years, based on the existing legislation. The proposed OCD system clearly identifies the years in an officer's career when he can expect promotion to a new assignment with a higher rank and years when he can expect promotion in rank if he achieves a proper OEP rating.

In addition to showing the proposed career system in the SAF as part of the proposed OCD system, the Table below focuses on the structure of both infantry brigades of the SAF, which represent the bulk of officer positions in the first ten years of their careers. The Table includes officers in both career pillars and intentionally omits the specialist pillar. This Table intentionally does not present all possible assignments for officers in the navy and air branches, and omits certain positions in the sustainment branch. A comprehensive approach to the personnel management of the SAF should depict positions equivalent to the ones represented in the Table for other branches.

The first and second selection time periods for the year groups are depicted in the selection period column of the table and present the critical years used by the SAF for its transition policy as well as the assigning of officers to the MET or new assignments.

3.1.3 Transition of an officer in the SAF

Transition of an officer is the last personnel function through which the proposed OCD system defines the retention and separation actions. The proposed OCD system recognizes all termination criteria depicted in different legislative documents. The focus of the transition phase in the proposed OCD system follows the transparency principle and defines the criteria for the separation or retention. The intent is to clearly depict the milestones in an officer's career in the first ten years, when an officer can expect those actions to occur.

This article defines those milestones and criteria in the Table: Proposed career system. In this Table, the proposed OCD system depicts the first separation process after five years and the second after ten years of an officer's career. Once again, the OEP is the base for determining whether or not an officer is eligible to sign another contract. In order to support these milestones, the proposed OCD system includes two selection periods. The first milestone is proposed at the third and fourth year mark of an officer's career, and the second one at the eighth and ninth year mark. Both selection periods are also used for development and promotion functions. As shown in the Table, individuals with the OEP of two or less in the third and fourth year of their career are to be separated after five years and are not planned for any higher assignments or future MET. The same goes for the second selection period where individuals with the OEP of two or less are considered for separation and not planned for higher assignments or future MET. Those individuals stay in the military according to their contract until their fifth or tenth year of service, using the last year of their career for the separation process.

Although the Table shows that the separation occurs for individuals with the OEP of two or one, the proposed OCD system recognizes the ability of the SAF to decide to retain more individuals or increase the number of separations depending on the SAF needs, which it should communicate well in advance.

At the five or ten-year mark, the SAF, under the current legislation, is not obliged to pay any severance to the individual who is separated from the military. The retention policy depends on the manning needs of the SAF, where the proposed OCD system recommends commencing the process at least one year before the contract can be renewed or terminated. As part of the separation process, the SAF should provide additional training for an individual to be qualified for another job, or start procedures to employ an individual as a civilian in the Ministry of Defence or other equivalent assignments within the government.

The latter is especially important for the individuals who do not decide to stay in the military after five or ten years, but their service was exemplary. The proposed OCD system recommends developing mechanisms to provide those individuals assignments in equivalent positions within the government structure if they wish to do so. Providing those assignments to individuals within the government system should minimize the employments of new civil servants, while maintaining competencies within the defence or a broader government system.

3.2 Summary

The proposed OCD system provides the foundation for developing the personnel management policy and processes within the SAF. A clear evaluation method through the OEP should provide the personnel management division with the right tools for all four discussed personnel management functions. A combination of the OEP and the concept of year group division, and using this in assigning individuals to MET and new assignments, as well as in developing the retention or separation policy should help build transparency in the system.

The proposed OCD system enables the establishment of a more centralized personnel management system and reduces administrative work at lower echelons. It would create bottom-up reporting through the OEP and top-down management. In addition, the personnel management division should appoint a department to manage its officers in accordance with the needs of the SAF. The directives within the SAF should establish this element to coordinate officers' careers within different branches, as seen in the BA, preside over the Officers' Boards and use the OEP when executing different personnel actions.

Central execution of personnel management and demanding selection processes at all levels of an officer's career, based on competencies, should provide the basis for a competitive environment in which officers will advance according to their year group and abilities. This would allow the OCD system to introduce a demanding but transparent and predictable system. This system, in which officers could enjoy the

learning environment and be able to excel solely on the basis of their capabilities, would lead the SAF, as the current Minister of Defence, Roman Jakič, stated in his interview for the national television, towards “a small, well equipped, flexible and professional military.” (Roman Jakič, Interview on the National TV Slovenia, 29 April 2013).

Conclusion The environment in which the SAF is operating today will definitely change in the future. Currently, the SAF has to be able to operate in an international environment as part of the standing headquarters of international organizations or part of internationally led operations in different parts of the world. While being a credible partner in the international environment, the SAF has to conduct its primary task of protecting the sovereignty and integrity of the territory of the RS and proactively engage in other activities of the Slovenian society. The proposed OCD system makes recommendations to help produce such leadership in the SAF that will be able to execute the proposed and required tasks and activities in domestic and international environments in the future.

The Slovenian Armed Forces played a crucial role in the War for Independence in 1991 and remains the most trusted national institution in the Republic of Slovenia (*Political Barometer, 2013*). This type of trust is (according to the 2012 US Army White Paper, “Our Army Profession”, issued by General Raymond T. Odierno in January 2012) an essential prerequisite for an organization to be considered a profession (Odierno, 2012). The level of trust a society has in an institution will determine the professional status of this organization. In other words, the society is the only element that grants an organization and its members the status of a profession.

Building this trust and, most importantly, maintaining it is a long and constant process that an organization should carry out with utmost dedication. The process includes the ability to self-evaluate, provide the society with exclusive services which cannot be performed by any other institution, and uphold high moral and ethical standards prevalent in the society (Odierno, 2012).

Effects of the proposed OCD system should reaffirm the existing trust that the society has in the SAF, build a more competent officer corps, and help establish the relevance of the SAF in the society. The former Minister of Defence of the RS, Ljubica Jelušič, defined the officer corps as the most professional part of the SAF (Jelušič, 1997). The proposed OCD system is intended to provide a more effective and transparent personnel management system in the SAF, which should enable further development of the SAF’s most professional part. This should have significant effects on the SAF in the future in the light of fiscal constraints which have already affected almost half of the SAF’s budget in the last four years.

Having professional leadership should enable executing the required tasks in the SAF and meeting the future challenges. It would also allow for the execution of the transformation processes which, among other things, are aimed at reconnecting the SAF with the society. Alternatively, as the current Chief of GS SAF, MG Dobran Božič, stated, “One of the goals of the transformation in the SAF is also the mindset that our military comes from the society and should also give back to the society.” (Božič, 2013: 10-11)

The process of establishing the relevance of the SAF in the society is also supported by the proposed OCD system through a clear set of competencies for individual officers at different stages of their career. One of the initial steps of the transformation process is relocating smaller-size units to periphery military installations and thus decentralizing the concentration of units in larger cities. The relocation of certain company-sized elements to smaller military installations requires company commanders to be able to communicate effectively with the local community and the local government, as they are trained to do on deployment. The ability to execute these tasks is part of the proposed OCD system which also encompasses the competencies needed to support the additional steps required for the SAF’s transformation process.

Through the transformation process, the SAF also executed several initiatives in the area of civil-military cooperation. This will be made even easier through the intensified dialogue that the relocated units will have with local government representatives, where they will be able to identify the needs of local communities. In this light, the SAF is continuing to provide logistic support to every major sporting and other event in the RS. Identifying the needs of local communities and providing support to major events in the RS requires certain competencies that the proposed OCD system encompasses in the MET.

The transformation process of the SAF will require additional sets of competencies that officers should have in order to meet the goals of the transformation process, maintain the level of trust of the society, and build on the attributes of a professional institution. Only a transparent and competitive OCD system will provide the environment fit to produce such leadership in the SAF that will be able to answer and respond to those demands.

While some changes in the SAF require a two-thirds vote in the Parliament of the RS, the proposed OCD system intentionally avoids those recommendations. This, however, does not preclude the additional changes from further developing the OCD system in order to allow an even more transparent career path for all members of the SAF. The most obvious change in the current legislation is the change in the promotion system in ranks. As discussed in this article, the current promotion system in ranks is based on the promotion in assignments, followed by years in service and, afterwards, the promotion in rank.

The current system is based on the existing legislation and requires an individual to assume assignments executed in rank that is higher than his or her personal rank. This might work while an individual works in a domestic environment, but is hardly understood by our partners in the international community. It creates unnecessary confusion and, in many cases, hinders the career prospects of an individual in the international community where he or she might be competent to assume certain assignments but cannot do so due to their personal rank. Although the proposed OCD system builds an individual's career with clearly communicated competencies for higher assignments, it does not change the promotion in rank system. Only changes in the existing legislation would allow an individual promotion in rank based on his or her future potential and not on past accomplishments.

The article describes the current operational environment in which the SAF is developing its officer corps. Using the lenses of the future challenges of the SAF, the author recommends an improved OCD system which will produce officers able to lead the SAF to face those challenges. The article discusses the reasons for changing the OCD system and its effects on the current structure of the Officer Corps in the SAF. It also provides recommendations needed to change the current OCD system, which can be made without any changes to the legislation in the defence sector. The proposed OCD system is intentionally built upon the existing legislation and does not require any political decisions for its implementation.

Probably one of the most important things the proposed OCD system requires now is a high level of maturity of an organization and willingness to implement the changes discussed the paper. The responsibility lies with the SAF leadership who are controlling the "human resource systems, which are so vital to the Army being a profession." (Snider, 2012: 30). If they will include those changes in the existing acts and directives within the SAF, then it is the responsibility of the existing officer corps to implement them in all functions of the personnel management system.

APPENDIX

TABLE OF PROPOSED COMPETENCIES

Number	Competency	Description
1.	Emotional intelligence	An individual maintains relaxed, calm and controlled reactions to challenging situations, while understanding the ambiguity of an environment, and with his actions diminishes the ill effects of a challenging environment. In stressful situations an individual acts reasonably and effectively and is able to solve problems that occur.
2.	Management of resources	An individual is prudently using the given resources to accomplish the task; he or she is aware of the scarce resources and uses them only when necessary. He or she prevents unnecessary damage to material, therefore also keeping down the costs of repair or replacement.
3.	Effective communication in Slovenian and at least one of official NATO languages	An individual has the ability to express his or her thoughts well, with exact and clear instructions orally and in written form in Slovenian and one of the official NATO languages. He or she is also able to publish articles in the RS Defence System official magazines.
4.	Ability to work and communicate in an international environment	An individual has the ability to communicate in an official NATO language, and understands other nations' military techniques and procedures as well as local culture. He or she understands and respects cultural diversity and uses it to accomplish the coalition mission.
5.	Motivation	An individual displays the ability to overcome obstacles with initiative, which is reflected in their attitude, which is also transferred to their subordinates and soldiers.
6.	Responsibility	An individual is confident in making decisions which will lead to the accomplishment of a mission or task, and accepts the consequences of failure or success. When an individual is leading, he or she creates a shared understanding oriented towards mission accomplishment and promotes timely execution.
7.	Life by SAF values	An individual respects and works with SAF values: patriotism (an individual is loyal to the RS and is prepared to work hard for the good of the SAF and the RS); courage (an individual expresses no fear while executing demanding and dangerous assignments, and displays moral courage); loyalty (an individual is prepared to work hard to contribute to the success of the SAF); selfless service (an individual executes his tasks anytime and anyplace necessary, his or her goals are subordinated to the goals of the SAF); honour (an individual is a proud member of the SAF and shows that with his demeanour in public life); esprit de corps (an individual respects other members of the organization, helps them execute their tasks and invests in personal relationships with other members of the SAF).
8.	Accuracy	An individual concentrates on accurate execution of his or her tasks and avoids mistakes. While working with numbers, maps and drawings, the individual is careful and thorough.
9.	Reliability	An individual executes tasks in a timely manner and demonstrates a sense of duty and commitment.
10.	Initiative	An individual always looks for new approaches to solving issues.
11.	Physical fitness	An individual demonstrates satisfactory physical fitness through various evaluated events such as: Army Physical Fitness Test, prescribed marches, and mountain climbing.

Number	Competency	Description
12.	Tactical proficiency	An individual is proficient in individual tactical skills, as well as in effectively employing his or her unit and weapon systems in decisive actions through the ability to comprehend the higher intent, develop a plan, effectively communicate the plan to subordinates, and effectively exercise control throughout execution.
13.	Subordinate development	An individual is a steward of his or her profession and strives to develop subordinates and help peers in understanding their role and tasks and the military profession in general.
14.	Professional effectiveness	An individual carries out the full range of tasks effectively, shows clear understanding of the professional environment, and displays interest in wider aspects of the defence and current affairs. He or she also seeks to enhance professional knowledge and understanding of new technology and other military developments in Slovenia and other countries.
15.	Leadership	An individual projects a strong persona and character to motivate subordinates to do what is required of them, and promotes a positive sense of purpose and direction. The individual also inspires, influences, directs and supports others in both routine activities and under stress; he or she instils self-esteem, team spirit and unity of effort through developing a shared understanding. He or she creates early momentum and success, leads with firmness and fairness, demonstrates responsibility for those under their command, sets an example consistent with SAF values and standards, and motivates others to embrace change when change is required.
16.	Embrace ambiguity	An individual is aware of unpredictable environments, friction on the battlefield and other uncertainties. He or she executes positive control over subordinates and communicates with mission-type orders to allow the initiative of subordinates.
17.	Analytical skills	An individual is able to recognize certain characteristics and causes of diverse challenges. He or she uses a logical and systematic approach to problem solving.
18.	Interdisciplinary skills	An individual has the ability to connect knowledge from different areas of expertise and is able to work in other fields when necessary.
19.	MDMP proficiency	An individual understands and uses the methods and techniques of the MDMP process; he or she understands the value of cooperation in the process. Their products are in accordance with the doctrine and they are able to present them in a concise and accurate manner.
20.	Organizational skills	An individual is organized and able to use time effectively, and organizes the work for subordinates.
21.	Mission Command systems proficiency	An individual is able to use the Mission Command system while analyzing and presenting products from higher systems and developing their own.

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POVELJEVANJE Z NAMERO IN SLOVENSKA VOJSKA

AUFTRAGSTAKTIK – MISSION COMMAND IN THE SLOVENIAN ARMED FORCES

Povzetek Besedilo obravnava doktrino in načela poveljevanja z namero, njegov izvor in temeljne pogoje za njegovo delovanje. Glede na to, da je bila doktrina poveljevanja z namero razvita konec 19. stoletja, članek v nadaljevanju opredeli nekatere družbene, tehnološke in vojaškostrokovne dejavnike, ki so bistveni za uveljavitev poveljevanja z namero, so se pa od nastanka doktrine do danes precej spremenili. Nazadnje spregovori tudi o smiselnosti uveljavitve te doktrine v Slovensko vojsko in čemu bi bilo treba ob njenem uveljavljanju nameniti posebno pozornost.

Ključne besede *Poveljevanje z namero, vodenje in poveljevanje, Slovenska vojska, civilno-vojaški odnosi, vojaško izobraževanje, vojaška tehnologija.*

Abstract The text deals with the doctrine and principles of mission command, its origin and basic precondition for its functioning. Given that the doctrine of mission command, developed in the late 19th century article goes on to identify some of the social, technological, and military technical factors that are essential for the implementation of mission command, but have, since the creation of the doctrine, changed significantly. Finally, it speaks about the reasonableness of the entry into force of such a doctrine in the Slovenian army and what should be given special attention in the enforcement of the doctrine.

Key words *Mission command/auftragstaktik, command and control, Slovenian Armed Forces, civil military relations, military education, military technology.*

Uvod Konec sedemdesetih in v osemdesetih letih prejšnjega stoletja so se tri različne zahodne vojske znašle v precej podobnem položaju. Vojska ZDA in Britanske oborožene sile v Evropi ter Izraelske obrambne sile na Bližnjem vzhodu so se znašle v situaciji, v kateri so bile soočene s številčno in tehnološko močnejšim nasprotnikom. V teh razmerah so začele intenzivno iskati rešitve za položaj, v katerem so se znašle. Iskale so koncepte, s katerimi bi lahko nevtralizirale svoje pomanjkljivosti in dosegle prevlado na bojišču. Vse tri so se ozrle v zgodovino in »ponovno odkrile« pruskonemško doktrino *auftragstaktik*.

Principi *auftragstaktik* so plod prusko-nemške vojaške šole pod vodstvom Helmuta von Moltkeja (starejšega). Angleško govoreči svet je *auftragstaktik* prevedel v *mission command*, stotnik Miha Rijavec pa je za uporabo v Slovenski vojski (SV) predlagal izraz *poveljevanje z namero* (Rijavec, 2012, str. 34). Doktrina SV sicer uporablja izraz poveljevanje na podlagi poslanstva, vendar menim, da je poveljevanje z namero bližje prusko-nemškemu *auftragstaktik* kot anglo-ameriški *mission command* in da ustrezno povzema bistvo nemškega pojmovanja.

Trdim, da je poveljevanje z namero primerno za majhne in tehnološko slabše razvite vojske, kakršna je tudi SV. Najprej je treba opredeliti njegov koncept oziroma vsebino in obliko, kot je bilo izvorno mišljeno. To je namreč nujno, če želimo razumeti, kako tako poveljevanje deluje, zakaj je uspešno in kaj je treba, da deluje tako, kot je zamišljeno. V nadaljevanju bom poveljevanje z namero osvetlil z vidika civilno-vojaških odnosov, tehnologije ter sistema izobraževanja, usposabljanja in kariernih poti častniškega zbora. Nazadnje bom pogledal na poveljevanje z namero z vidika odnosa do SV.

1 AUFTRAGSTAKTIK

Doktrina *auftragstaktik* je nastala v specifičnem prusko-nemškem okolju ob koncu 19. in na začetku 20. stoletja kot posledica uničujočega pruskega poraza pri Jeni in Auerstedtu leta 1806. S francosko revolucijo so vojske postale množične, s pojavom repetirk in učinkovitega topništva pa je postalo jasno, da je treba vojsko na bojišču razpršiti (Parker, 2009, str. 200–204). Poveljujoči, če niso bili ravno vojaški geniji tipa Napoleon, niso bili več sposobni neposrednega nadzora nad podrejenimi in njihovega usmerjanja po bojišču. Od nižjih častnikov (do majorja) se je do tega trenutka pričakovalo, da bodo čim dosledneje izvrševali ukaze. Razmišljanje in sprejemanje odločitev sta bili rezervirani za višje ravni, za tiste, ki so poveljevali vsem enotam na bojišču in so običajno na njem zasedali točko, od koder so lahko opazovali vse enote in jim dajali neposredna navodila. Prusi so v vojni z Avstrijskim cesarstvom leta 1866 in Francijo leta 1871 ugotovili, da potrebujejo nov tip poveljujočih na vseh ravneh, in sicer poveljujoče, ki so sposobni presoditi situacijo in sprejeti ustrezne odločitve, tudi če nimajo neposrednih navodil in niso pod neposrednim fizičnim nadzorom nadrejenega. Težava pri tem je seveda v tem, kako zagotoviti ustrezna nadzor in sinhronizacijo delovanja, da ne bi podrejeni nenadzorovano

prevzemali pobude, kar bi vodilo v kaos. Odgovor je bil v ustreznem izobraževanju poveljujočih, zagotavljanju skupne doktrine in jezika vodenja in poveljevanja ter v stvarnem urjenju. Skratka, v tem, da se podrejenim pove, *kaj* je treba storiti, in jim prepustiti, *kako* bodo to uresničili. To naj bi ustvarilo poveljujoče, ki bodo sposobni samostojnega kritičnega razmišljanja (Nelsen, 1987, str. 22–23). Hkrati se je pokazalo kot nujno, da so poveljujoči izbrani glede na njihove sposobnosti in ne na njihov družbeni status. Do leta 1914 je koncept v nemški vojski dokončno zaživel.

Ko govorimo o uvedbi auftragstaktik v doktrino sodobnih zahodnih oboroženih sil, moramo upoštevati, da so se civilno-vojaški odnosi, kulturno okolje, tehnologija ter izobraževanje in usposabljanje od konca prve svetovne vojne do danes precej spremenili.

Auftragstaktik je posebna doktrina vodenja in poveljevanja oboroženih sil. Njeno bistvo je v posebnem pogledu na vojno, ki jo vidijo kot spopad volj, v katerem ni nič vnaprej zagotovljeno. Grajena je na izdajanju kratkih in jasnih ukazov, ki temeljijo na poznavanju doktrine, skupnem jeziku in medsebojnem zaupanju nadrejenih in podrejenih. Ti ukazi podrejenim dovoljujejo maksimalno svobodo odločanja in pobudo znotraj omejitev dodeljene naloge in predvsem namere nadrejenega. Napake podrejenih in celo neizvrševanje naloge so dovoljeni, dokler podrejeni uspešno sledi nameri nadrejenega.

Načela auftragstaktik oziroma poveljevanja z namero temeljijo na predpostavkah, kot so:

- podrejeni razume namero nadrejenega in ji sledi ter razume morebitno trenje (frikcijo) s svojo nalogo;
- medsebojno zaupanje, ki temelji na profesionalnih kompetencah (ne pa na osebnih odnosih in poznanstvih);
- odlično komuniciranje, temelječe na skupnem razumevanju doktrine;
- visok status izobraževanja in usposabljanja;
- strpnost do tako imenovanih dobronamernih napak;
- nagnjenost k akciji in pobudam, samoiniciativnost;
- povezanost odgovornosti z iniciativo;
- zaupanje v to, da so posamezniki sposobni sprejemati prave odločitve.

Da bi razumeli načela poveljevanja z namero, je treba vedeti, kako je pruska oziroma nemška vojska pristopila k vojni in zgornjim načelom. Prvi in glavni imperativ v vojni, ki se pojavlja skozi ves priročnik za vodenje enot nemške vojske v drugi svetovni vojni, je hitrost, tako na strateški kot na taktični ravni (Condell, 2009). Na strateški ravni je imela Nemčija težavo dveh front. Glavna zamisel je bila nasprotnika na eni fronti vreči iz boja, še preden bi bil na drugi pripravljen na vojno. Na taktični ravni pa gre za to, da je nasprotnik po začetnem stiku s serijo hitrih manevrov postavljen v položaj, ko se je prisiljen predvsem odzvati na nemške akcije, kar naj bi omogočilo njegov poraz po delih (Nelsen, 1987, str. 23).

Preglednica 1:
Primerjava
glavnih
značilnosti
poveljevanja
z namero in
direktivnega
poveljevanja
kot njegove
alternative

Poveljevanje z namero	Direktivno poveljevanje
nadrejeni poveljuje z namero	nadrejeni poveljuje s podrobnimi navodili
medsebojno profesionalno zaupanje	nadrejeni ne zaupa podrejenim
jasna doktrina	jasna doktrina
izobraževanje, ki temelji na kritičnem razmišljanju	izobraževanje, ki temelji na izpolnjevanju nalog
strpnost do napak	napake niso dovoljene
nagnjenost k pobudi in akciji	čakanje na navodila nadrejenega
prevzemanje odgovornosti	izogibanje odgovornosti
podrejeni so vredni zaupanja	podrejeni izvršujejo dobljene naloge

Drugo je prepričanje, da je v vojni kakršno koli podrobno načrtovanje po prvem stiku z nasprotnikom nesmiselno. Pri tem so sledili Moltkejevi dikciji, da »noben plan operacije ne zagotavlja zmage po prvem stiku z nasprotnikovo glavnino« (Nelsen, 1987, str. 23). Ker je vojna predvsem spopad volje, je nemogoče pričakovati, da se bo nasprotnik odzval tako, kot želimo. Ob tem pa so v nemški vojski še dobro razumeli pomen frikcije v vojni.

Tretji imperativ pa je bil, da so vsako situacijo v vojni obravnavali kot povsem unikatno, kar zahteva od poveljujočih, da so sposobni presoditi situacijo in hitro sprejeti odločitve ter jih nato agresivno izvesti. Ob tem je treba upoštevati še, da so odločitve morali sprejemati na podlagi nepopolnih, napačnih ali nasprotujočih si informacij (Nelsen, 1987, str. 23). Poveljujoči je zato moral biti razmišljujoči posameznik, sposoben intuicije, hitrega logičnega sklepanja in kritičnega razmišljanja, da je lahko razvil ustrezno varianto delovanja. To povzema tudi prva točka priročnika, ki pravi: »Vojna je umetnost, prosta in kreativna dejavnost, osnovana na znanstvenih principih. Do človekove osebnosti postavlja izjemno visoke zahteve.« (Condell, 2009, str. 17)

Ravno ti pogledi na vojno so tisti, ki naj bi nižje podrejenim omogočali pobudo in dali podlago za ustrezen značaj poveljujočega, solidno metodologijo izdajanja in izvrševanja ukazov ter ustrezne odnose med nadrejenimi in podrejenimi.

Značaj poveljujočega se je v nemški doktrini kazal v pripravljenosti prevzemati pobudo, v priročniku je posebej izpostavljeno, da je najbolj zaželena kakovost častnika, da je sposoben prevzemati odgovornost. Temu je treba dodati še tveganje in odločno ukrepanje. Glede na to, da so vse akcije v vojni nepredvidljive in posebne, naj ne bi iskali popolne rešitve, temveč kakršno koli teoretično rešitev, ki bi jo tudi agresivno izvedli. Častnike so posebej svarili pred tem, da bi predolgo čakali na informacije, v tem oziru je bila hitrost pomembnejša od točnosti. Takoj uresničen dober načrt je bil boljši od popolnega načrta pozneje (Nelsen, 1987, str. 24).

Nemci so leta 1988 uvedli metodologijo izdajanja ukazov, po kateri je bilo podrejenim predvsem povedano, kaj morajo storiti, ne da bi jim povedali, kako to storiti. Hkrati pa je nadrejeni podrejenemu dodelil ustrezne vire, navedel omejitve in podal navodila za usklajevanje. Smisel je bil v tem, da je bilo podrejenemu prepuščene kar največ pobude. Nemci so menili, da se bodo tako usposobljeni poveljujoči v vojni lažje spopadali z Clausewitzevo meglo vojne in frikcijo. Najpomembnejši del te metodologije pa ni bila izjava o poslanstvu podrejenega, temveč namera nadrejenega. Namera je bila namreč tista, ki je dala celotni operaciji nekakšno vizijo zaželenega končnega stanja. Predvsem pa je omogočala podrejenim, ki so se soočali z nepredvidenimi situacijami, da so prilagodili svoje delovanje. V najbolj skrajnih primerih je bilo celo dopustno neizvrševanje dodeljene naloge, če je podrejeni vseeno sledil nameri nadrejenega. To so bile seveda izjemne situacije in pričakovalo se je, da podrejeni v želji po odmiku od dodeljene naloge dobi potrditev nadrejenega, če pa to ni bilo mogoče, je moral svoje odločitve vedno zagovarjati po izvršenem dejstvu. Ta metodologija izdajanja ukazov pa vseeno ni pomenila, da je bil nadrejeni odsoten z bojišča. Nasprotno. Nadrejeni so vedno težili k temu, da bi bili čim bližje bojišču, a hkrati v poziciji, da so lahko vplivali na potek dogodkov. Podrejene so redno obiskovali in nadzorovali, a so v odločitve posegali le, ko je bilo to nujno ali pa je bila odločitev podrejenega očitno nespametna. Prav tako ni bilo nenavadno, če so dodali, spremenili ali prekinili naloge, dodeljene podrejenim, pač skladno s situacijo, kot so jo videli (Nelsen, 1987, str. 25).

V odnosih med nadrejenim in podrejenim je bil pomemben razvoj podrejenega, predvsem zelenih osebnostnih značilnosti in vodstvenih sposobnosti. Pomembno ni bilo toliko, o čem podrejeni razmišlja, temveč to, kako razmišlja. Temu so bile namenjene številne aktivnosti, od taktičnih vaj na zemljevidu ali maketi do štabnih izvidovanj in terenskih taktičnih vaj. Žarišče taktičnih vaj ni bilo v taktičnem problemu, temveč v razvoju podrejenih. Rezultat te velike pozornosti, ki so jo nadrejeni namenjali podrejenim, je bil, da so drug drugega zelo dobro poznali. Podrejenemu je to omogočalo, da je »bral med vrsticami« ukaze nadrejenega, nadrejenemu pa, da je precej dobro vedel, kaj lahko pričakuje od podrejenega. To je seveda povzročilo obojestransko zaupanje in omogočalo uresničevanje pobud v okviru namere. Poleg tega so tako v vojaških šolah kot v enotah izpostavljali enoten pogled na naravo vojne, pobudo, zelene lastnosti poveljujočega, odnos med nadrejenimi in podrejenimi ter na to, kako se izdajajo ukazi. Terminologija je bila poenotena, točno določena in široko razumljena. Tudi pristopi k reševanju problemov in v analizah opravljenih akcij so prispevali k pobudi in prevzemanju odgovornosti. Glede na to, da je bila vsaka situacija v vojni šteta kot enkratna in neponovljiva, ni bilo šolskih »pravilnih« rešitev. Prva rešitev je bila prav tako dobra kot druga. Kritika se je osredotočala na razmišljanje podrejenega – zakaj se je odločil tako, kot se je, katere dejavnike je pri tem upošteval in katerih ne, je izvedba ustrezala oceni, kako razumljivi so bili ukazi, ali je bila akcija taktično sprejemljiva in ali je imela resnične možnosti za uspeh. To so bila glavna vprašanja, okrog katerih se je vrtela analiza dogajanja. Cilj je bil razviti analitične sposobnosti podrejenega. Analize so bile prizanesljive in razumevajoče, ne ostre in boleče, namenjene so bile

spodbujanju in razvoju samozavesti podrejenega. Napake so bile del procesa učenja in merilo uspeha ni bila uspešno ali neuspešno opravljena naloga, temveč koliko je posameznik pri tem napredoval (Nelsen, 1987, str. 26).

Iz zapisanega je torej jasno, da auftragstaktik ni samo tehnika pisanja ukazov, v katerih bi imela naloga osrednjo vlogo. Je precej več kot to. Je koncept, ki holistično zaobseže tako teorijo o naravi vojne kot značaj in voditeljske sposobnosti poveljujočih, taktiko, poveljevanje in kontrolo, odnos med nadrejenimi in podrejenimi ter usposabljanje in izobraževanje.

Eitan Shamir v svoji knjigi *Transforming Command* ugotavlja, da zaradi različnih vzrokov nobeni od zahodnih vojsk, omenjenih na začetku, ni uspelo v celoti uveljaviti doktrine auftragstaktik, kot je bila zamišljena v prusko-nemškem okolju ob koncu 19. stoletja. Razlogi za to so različni, povezani pa so s civilno-vojaškimi odnosi, tehnologijo ter sistemom izobraževanja in usposabljanja častniškega zbora.

2 POVELJEVANJE Z NAMERO V RAZLIČNIH TIPIH OPERACIJ

Poveljevanje z namero, kot se je oblikovalo v posebnih prusko-nemških okoliščinah, je v bistvu namenjeno poveljevanju velikim vojaškim enotam na operativni in taktični ravni, v okoliščinah manevrskega vojskovanja in brez večjih družbenopolitičnih omejitev. Poveljevanje z namero sicer ni predpogoj za manevrsko vojskovanje ali združeno bojevanje rodov, kar je dokazala že Rdeča armada med drugo svetovno vojno, je pa doktrina in sistem vodenja in poveljevanja, ki omogoča številčno in materialno šibkejšim oboroženim silam »konkurenčnost« na bojišču. Poveljevanje z namero namreč skozi načela iniciativnosti, samostojnosti in napadalnosti, ki jih dopušča, omogoča lastnim silam vstop v nasprotnikov cikel odločanja oziroma tako imenovani *OODA loop*¹.

To pa seveda ne pomeni, da je poveljevanje z namero neuporabno v operacijah v podporo miru ali protiuporniških operacijah. Nasprotno, kot sistem in doktrina je ravno tako uporabno v operacijah v podporo miru in protiuporniškem delovanju kot v klasičnem manevrskem vojskovanju. Njegova načela so aplikativna tudi v prvih dveh primerih, pri čemer pa se morajo tako nadrejeni kot predvsem podrejeni zavedati posebnih okoliščin, ki jih ta dva tipa operacij prinašata, in v tem kontekstu tega, kdaj delovati, predvsem pa, kdaj ne delovati. V vseh treh tipih operacij poveljevanje z namero od podrejenih zahteva sledenje nameri nadrejenega, ki bo bistveno vplivala na način izvedbe dodeljene naloge. Na nadrejenem pa je, da skladno s tipom operacije svojo namero jasno, razumljivo in nedvoumno oblikuje.

Dejstvo je tudi, da je poveljevanje z namero v sodobnih zahodnih družbah postavljeno v okolje, ki zahteva številne omejitve zunaj profesionalnih in strokovnih okvirov. To okolje v marsičem vpliva na učinkovitost sistema poveljevanja z namero in mu v

¹ *OODA loop (Observe, Orient, Decide, Act) je metoda, ki jo je razvil polkovnik John Boyd USAF in pomeni, da bo zmagal tisti, ki v prostoru prej opazi, se pravilno orientira in odloči ter na podlagi tega prvi tudi napade.*

nekaterih primerih celo odkrito nasprotuje. Omejitve lahko razvrstimo v tri splošne kategorije civilno-vojaških odnosov, tehnologije in izobraževanja, usposabljanja ter kadrovske politike.

3 CIVILNO-VOJAŠKI ODNOSI IN POVELJEVANJE Z NAMERO

Socialno, politično in kulturno okolje zahodne civilizacije so se od konca 19. stoletja do danes močno spremenila. Danes govorimo o postmoderini družbi in s tem o postmodernih oboroženih silah. Najverjetnejša grožnja državi v tej družbi bodo še dolgo različna revolucionarno-teroristična gibanja (Moskos v Bebler, 2005, str. 316). Ob tem pa ne smemo pozabiti, da tradicionalne in moderne grožnje še vedno obstajajo. Je pa v postmoderini družbi prevladujoča težnja zamegljevanja mej med vojaško in civilno sfero, tako v strukturi kot kulturi (Moskos, 2000, str. 11).

Družba je od začetka 20. stoletja postala precej bolj individualizirana, materialno usmerjena in demokratična. Vrednote, kot so razumevanje s partnerjem, ljubezen, samoizpolnjevanje, zabava, vznemirljivo življenje, družabnost, dober poklic, individualnost, svoboda, ugled in napredek² (Banko, 2009, str. 50), so med mladimi postale pomembnejše od domoljubja, predanosti, časti, lojalnosti, poguma in tovarištva³ (Furlan, 2006, str. 17), pravice pomembnejše od dolžnosti. To je hkrati povzročilo, da so zahodne družbe postale občutljive na človeške izgube, ne samo med civilnim prebivalstvom, temveč tudi znotraj vojaških organizacij. Po eni strani naj bi bile družbe bolj občutljive na žrtve zaradi sprememb v vrednotah in kulturi, po drugi pa še vedno pripravljene nanje, če sta izpolnjena dva pogoja, da je ogrožen nacionalni interes in obstaja velika verjetnost zmage. Moskos pa trdi, da so družbe pripravljene sprejemati žrtve v oboroženih spopadih le, če je prebivalstvo prepričano, da so na žrtve pripravljene tudi voditelji. Hkrati pa ugotavlja, da v zahodnih družbah (EU in Severna Amerika) te pripravljenosti voditeljev, da bi oni ali njihovi potomci služili v oboroženih silah, ni več (Moskos v Bebler, 2006, str. 321).

Vojaška organizacija je hkrati postala bistveno bolj izpostavljena civilnemu nadzoru in vedno težje uveljavlja svoje posebne interese, ki izhajajo iz narave njenega dela. Vojska ni več avtonomna, ampak je za izvrševanje svojih nalog in način, na katerega so izvršene, postala odgovorna civilni družbi (Dandeker v Moskos, 2000, str. 38). Vse skupaj pri poveljujočih povzroča odpor do odločnega in napadalnega delovanja zaradi strahu pred »nepotrebnimi« žrtvami in odzivi civilne družbe.

Bojevniški etos je postal podrejen izogibanju nevarnostim, uveljavljanju pravic posameznika in drugim omejitvam, ki so rezultat sprememb v družbi kot celoti. Družba je namreč postala izrazito nestrpna do napak, sploh če te nastajajo v okoliščinah, ki jih družba slabo ali malo pozna. Civilisti pa slabo poznajo vojaške zadeve in njihovo pomembnost (Dandeker v Moskos, 2000, str. 45). Vojaki tako

² Vrednote mladih danes.

³ Vrednote SV.

pogosto v bran svojemu delovanju oziroma nedelovanju izjavljajo, da »za to pa nismo usposobljeni«, kot da je vojna ali krizna situacija nekaj, kar je predvidljivo.

Zadeve, ki so bile v preteklosti interna stvar vojaške organizacije in so se reševale znotraj nje in po njenih posebnih pravilih, so zdaj izpostavljene odkriti zunanji (civilni) preiskavi. Ob tem, da je vojaško osebje v celoti podrejeno civilni zakonodaji, ki pa običajno ne pozna in ne upošteva posebnosti vojaške organizacije in okolja njenega delovanja, kar precej omejuje pripravljenost na prevzemanje pobude in akcijo ter onemogoča strpnost do »dobronamernih napak«.

SV ima, kot ugotavlja Bebler, še dodatno težavo, saj civilno-vojaški odnosi niso zdravo razviti. Kot pravi, temeljijo zdravi odnosi na 1) koherentnem in učinkovitem sistemu norm in institucij za upravljanje civilno-vojaških odnosov; 2) na kompetentnem, odgovornem in »čistem« političnem vodstvu; 3) na predanosti, lojalnosti, profesionalni kompetentnosti, civilnem pogumu in precejšnji notranji institucionalni avtonomiji vojske; 4) na zadovoljivem javnem interesu in podpori oboroženim silam. Civilno-vojaški odnosi v Sloveniji so pomanjkljivi v vseh štirih elementih (Bebler, 2005, str. 99).

4 IZOBRAŽEVANJE, USPOSABLJANJE TER KADROVSKA POLITIKA IN POVELJEVANJE Z NAMERO

Uspešna uvedba poveljevanja z namero v vojaško organizacijo temelji na ustreznem sistemu izobraževanja in usposabljanja ter s tem povezano kadrovske politiko, ki ustvarja profesionalni častniški kader. Kot ugotavlja Bebler, ima SV na tej točki težavo, saj ni imela svoje tradicije profesionalnega častniškega zbora. Profesionalni častniki slovenskega porekla v JLA, predvsem višji častniki, po osamosvojitvi niso bili dovolj vključeni v nastajajočo novo strukturo. Deloma zato, ker jih preprosto ni bilo ali pa so ostali tam, kjer so si ustvarili družine. Žal je ta manko vojska na hitro zapolnila s številnimi civilisti brez ustreznih poklicnih kvalifikacij in znanja (Bebler, 2005, str. 99).

Usposabljanje z urjenjem v profesionalni organizaciji skozi dril prinaša občutek pripravljenosti, ponos in samozavest ter krepi občutek pripadnosti skupini s posebnimi veščinami. Izobraževanje, predvsem častnikov, pa mora poskrbeti tudi za razumevanje doktrine in načel⁴ vojskovanja ter enotni jezik vojaške komunikacije, s čimer častnike usposobi za pravilno razumevanje namere nadrejenega. Vse to je mogoče le, če sistem vojaškega izobraževanja in usposabljanja dovoljuje in spodbuja kritično razmišljanje⁵. Brez posameznikov, ki so sposobni kritičnega razmišljanja, ni poveljevanja z namero. Da pa bi izobraževalni sistem te posameznike ustvaril, mora

⁴ Načel in ne pravil. Doktrina mora govoriti predvsem o načelih in ne pravilih, ki naj bi jih upoštevali.

⁵ O tem, kaj točno je kritično razmišljanje, ni enotne definicije. Te se zelo razlikujejo glede na področje, ki ga avtorji obravnavajo. V oboroženih silah pa gre za to, da je posameznik v stresnih situacijah sposoben treznega razmišljanja, presoje na podlagi konfliktnih informacij, hitre sinteze dejstev, ocene možnih variant, sprejemanja odločitve, jasne komunikacije in domišljije v okviru doktrinarnih referenc.

izpolniti nekaj pogojev, in sicer: 1) kulturo organizacije, ki podpira poveljevanje z namero, 2) selektivni dostop do tečajev oziroma šol (ne vsi, le tisti, ki si to zaslužijo) in, kar je najpomembnejše, 3) kompetentne inštruktorje, ki so hkrati dobri učitelji (Murray, 2014, str. 10–12).

Tečaji oziroma šole v sistemu izobraževanja in usposabljanja morajo podrejene usposobiti tudi za prevzemanje nalog prvonadrejenih. Poveljevanje z namero namreč predpostavlja sposobnost prevzemanja nalog nadrejenega (če je treba), predvsem pa s poznavanjem njegovih nalog omogočimo lažje razumevanje njegovih namer.

Izobraževanje mora častnike opremiti z znanjem o procedurah in orodjih za delo na štabni ravni. Pri tem pa mora v njih vzbuditi zavedanje, da procedure in orodja niso sami sebi namen in ni dobro vztrajati pri njih na škodo izpolnitve naloge, saj so zgolj pripomočki, ki olajšajo delo in služijo sinhronizaciji velikih štabnih timov. Izvrševanje naloge oziroma uresničevanje namere nadrejenega ima vedno prednost pred sledenjem proceduram.

Z izobraževanjem morajo častniki pridobiti znanje o tem, kaj je namera nadrejenega, kaj jo sestavlja in kako jo pravilno oblikovati. Častniki morajo biti sposobni sprejemati odločitve v kriznih situacijah in jih uresničevati nasprotniku navkljub ter razmišljati holistično, kar je pomembno predvsem v operacijah v podporo miru in protiuponskih operacijah.

V kombinaciji z ustrežno vsebino sistema izobraževanja in usposabljanja pa mora kadrovska politika v podpori poveljevanju z namero zagotoviti promocijo in stimulacijo najboljših in predvsem izločitev neprimernih posameznikov oziroma tistih, ki sistemu škodijo. To dosežemo s kadrovskim sistemom, v katerem so nagrade in sankcije jasno opredeljene in v funkciji podpore zelenemu ravnanju (Vandergriff, 2011, str. 12). Poveljevanje z namero ima jasno opredeljeno zeleno ravnanje: pobudo, prilagodljivost, napadalnost, sledenje nameri, kritično razmišljanje itn.

Sistem izobraževanja in usposabljanja, predvsem pa kadrovska politika, mora dopuščati tako imenovane bronamerne napake, saj s tem spodbuja pobudo pri podrejenih in pripravljenost na akcijo, predvsem pa s tem krepi zaupanje podrejenih v nadrejene. Podrejeni morajo imeti občutek, da so napake, iz katerih se učijo, dovoljene in da jih nadrejeni v tem podpirajo in ščitijo.

5 TEHNOLOGIJA IN POVELJEVANJE Z NAMERO

Tehnologija je odraz temeljnih predpostavk in prepričanja družbe (Shamir, 2011, str. 168). Sodobna informacijska tehnologija ponuja veliko možnosti, vojaška informacijska tehnologija pa je obljubljala, da do dvignila Clausewitzovo »meglo vojne« in bo poveljujočim omogočila popoln vpogled v stanje na bojišču. Vojska ZDA je vložila ogromna sredstva v svoje digitalne divizije, a se je izkazalo, da tehnologija ni izpolnila pričakovanj. Mnogi so trdili, da bo sodobna informacijska

tehnologija povzročila, da poveljevanje z namero ne bo več potrebno in bo rešila vse težave s frikcijo pri vodenju in poveljevanju v vojni in kriznih razmerah. Izkazalo pa se je ravno nasprotno. Uvajanje sodobne tehnologije je vodilo v poplavo informacij in informacijsko preobremenjenost ter tako imenovani *sindrom plazma zaslonov*. Zaradi informacijske preobremenjenosti poveljujoči niso več sposobni sprejemati racionalnih odločitev, projekcije stanj na zaslonih pa poveljujoče silijo v to, da ostajajo v štabih, daleč stran od dogajanja in brez zagotovila, da je to, kar gledajo na zaslonu, resnično stanje. Od poveljujočih na nižjih taktičnih ravneh se pričakuje, da bodo redno in sproti posodabljali informacije na informacijski tehnologiji, kar pa jih odvrča od ukvarjanja s situacijo, v kateri so se znašli. Višje nadrejeni se z informacijsko tehnologijo in različnimi *droni* vmešavajo v odločitve, ki bi jih morali sprejemati podrejeni oziroma se odločajo namesto njih. Vse to vodi v mikromenedžment, v katerem je zaupanje med nadrejenimi in podrejenimi porušeno, pobude ni in napake so nedopustne.

Tudi uporaba zgolj tehnologije, ki spremlja lastne sile, tako imenovani *blue force tracker*, prinaša omejitve pri poveljevanju z namero, saj sili nadrejene v sinhronizacijo lastnih sil, pri čemer pa ubija pobudo in pripravljenost na akcijo pri podrejenih. Večkrat izpostavljen primer teh težav je operacija Puščavski vihar leta 1991, ki je v širši javnosti sicer veljala za šolsko izvedbo manevrske operacije, v resnici pa je zaradi nenehne potrebe po sinhronizaciji omogočila glavnini iraških sil (Republikanski gardi) umik brez resnejših posledic. Zavezniki so se bolj ukvarjali s sinhronizacijo lastnih sil, svojimi levimi in desnimi, kot pa z nasprotnikom.

Sodobna tehnologija vodenih projektilov povzroča preferenco ognja na račun manevra. Poveljujoči se namreč v strahu pred »nepotrebni«¹ izgubami raje zatekajo k uporabi minometnega, artilerijskega in letalskega ognja, kot pa k napadalnemu manevru in prevzemanju pobude. Seveda je ta težava manjša v oboroženih silah, v katerih takšne tehnologije nimajo.

V povezavi tehnologije s konceptom poveljevanja z namero ne gre toliko za to, kako dobro tehnologijo imajo posamezne strani, temveč, kako jo bodo uporabile v boju. Ne smemo pozabiti, da so imeli Francozi in Britanci na začetku druge svetovne vojne več tankov in boljše kot Nemci ter na splošno tudi boljše opremo, pa so bili kljub temu na zahodnem bojišču odločilno premagani.

6 POVELJEVANJE Z NAMERO IN SLOVENSKA VOJSKA

Doktrina vodenja in poveljevanja v SV, kot je formalno zapisana v Vojaški doktrini, v resnici povzema principe poveljevanja z namero (Furlan, 2006, str. 63):

Poveljevanje v Slovenski vojski temelji na pravočasnem odločanju, jasnem razumevanju namere nadrejenega, sposobnosti podrejenih, da namere uresničijo, ter na poveljnikovi sposobnosti, da si predstavlja izvedbo načrta od začetka do konca. Pristop k poveljevanju na podlagi poslanstva spodbuja decentralizirano

poveljevanje, svobodo in hitrost delovanja ter iniciativo, vendar tudi dosledno upoštevanje usmeritev in navodil nadrejenega poveljnika. Za takšen pristop je pomembno, da poveljnik zagotovi, da podrejeni razumejo njegovo namero ter svoje poslanstvo in vlogo v strateškem, operativnem in taktičnem smislu. Razumeti morajo, kakšen učinek je treba doseči, in razloge, zakaj je to potrebno. Podrejeni morajo imeti jasno določeno poslanstvo, čas in prostor ter dovolj sil in sredstev za uresničitev poslanstva. V izvedbi poveljnik v čim manjši meri uporablja kontrolo in po nepotrebnem ne ovira svobode delovanja podrejenih poveljnikov. Ti sami odločajo, kako na najboljši način uresničiti poslanstvo enot, ki jim poveljujejo.

Vojaška doktrina SV torej natančno povzema principe auftragstaktik, pri čemer pa doktrina uporablja izraz poveljevanje na podlagi poslanstva, ki je, kot že rečeno, bližji anglo-ameriškem izrazu mission command kot pruskemu auftragstaktik.⁶ SV je prevzela tudi tehniko pisanja in izdajanja ukazov skladno z metodologijo, ki jo predpisuje Nato in ustreza metodologiji poveljevanja z namero.

Kljub temu je SV daleč od koncepta poveljevanja z namero, saj so že ukazi običajno izredno podrobni in obsežni, kar je v popolnem nasprotju z načeli takšnega poveljevanja.⁷ Morda bi bila v luči koncepta poveljevanja z namero zanimiva analiza vodenja in poveljevanja v slovenski Teritorialni obrambi leta 1991, vendar bi preseгла okvire tega članka. Verjamem, da bi pokazala kar nekaj elementov poveljevanja z namero, a kljub temu na splošno ne bi mogli govoriti o tem, da je Teritorialna obramba uporabljala takšno poveljevanje. Njen poveljniški kader je bil namreč šolan po principih direktivnega vodenja. Enote so sestavljali večinoma rezervisti, ki niso bili vrhunsko usposobljeni, njihovi odnosi pa so temeljili bolj na osebnih poznanstvih kot na profesionalnih kompetencah. Enote se, z redkimi izjemami, tudi niso obsežno usposabljele, zato se postavlja tudi vprašanje zaupanja med nadrejenimi in podrejenimi. Na vsa ta vprašanja bi morala odgovoriti podrobnejša analiza dogajanja med osamosvojitveno vojno.

Nesporno pa je, da se bo SV skoraj nujno znašla v položaju, ko bo številčno ali tehnično šibkejša od svojih nasprotnikov in bo morala poiskati načine, kako te pomanjkljivosti ustrezno izravnati. Trdim, da to lahko stori s prevzemanjem iniciativnosti in disciplinirano napadalnostjo, ki jo omogoča poveljevanje z namero.

V operacijah v podporo miru in protiuporniških operacijah SV sodeluje oziroma bo sodelovala z manjšimi taktičnimi enotami na ravni voda ali čete in izjemoma za krajše obdobje tudi z bataljonsko bojno skupino. Pri tem so navadno poveljujoči teh enot

⁶ Razlika se bo komu zdela nepomembna, sam pa menim, da je ključna. V doktrini auftragstaktik je namera nadrejenega pomembnejša od dodeljenega poslanstva. Kot že rečeno, je v izvorni doktrini podrejenemu celo dovoljeno neizvrševanje poslanstva, če je kljub temu izpolnjena namera nadrejenega.

⁷ Kot ilustracijo lahko navedem, da je denimo ukaz pruskega generalštaba v vojni z Avstrijo leta 1866 obsegal vsega pet strani, kar je danes ob vsej tehnologiji skoraj nepredstavljivo v vseh zahodnih vojskah. Moltkeja so poleg tega v vojni s Francijo leta 1871 mnogi obtoževali lenuharjenja in neaktivnosti, saj je le redko in samo v izjemnih primerih posredoval pri podrejenih, pač pa jim je pustil popolno svobodo delovanja, dokler je menil, da sledijo ciljem vojne.

več sto ali tisoč kilometrov oddaljeni od svojih neposredno nadrejenih in ne poznajo podrobno vseh razmer na območju delovanja enot. Poleg tega gre v teh operacijah za delovanje znotraj koalicijskih si, pri katerem so poveljujoči enotam SV soočeni z dvojno linijo vodenja in poveljevanja – koalicijsko in nacionalno. Poveljujoči mora imeti v teh razmerah jasno predstavo o nameri nadrejenih in holistični pregled razmer na območju delovanja. Pobuda je v takih razmerah ključna, pri čemer pa ne gre samo za pripravljenost na akcijo, temveč tudi za zavedanje, kdaj ne delovati.

Za SV velja večina omejitev, ki veljajo tudi za druge oborožene sile zahodnega sveta, ko skušajo uvesti poveljevanje z namero v svoje delovanje. Če ga bo želela uporabiti kot doktrino vodenja in poveljevanja, bo morala poiskati rešitve za prepad med civilno družbo, iz katere prihajajo njeni pripadniki, in vrednostnim sistemom, ki ga zahteva poveljevanje z namero. Pri tem ne gre za to, da eno izključuje drugo, temveč za to, da se najde ustrezno ravnovesje, kar je naloga sistema izobraževanja in usposabljanja ter kadrovske politike. Povečati bo treba ugled SV, ki je primerjalno gledano glede na druge uniformirane poklice dokaj dober. Vendar pa ne zagotavlja pritoka ustreznega kadra, saj vojaški poklic po privlačnosti zaostaja, ne le za zdravniki in pravniki, temveč tudi za drugimi poklici, kot je na primer policijski inšpektor (Bebler, 2005, str. 94). To ugotavljajo tudi raziskovalci na Fakulteti za družbene vede v svojih raziskavah o odnosu slovenske mladine do vojaškega poklica – »/.../ vojska da, toda brez mene prosim« (Malešič, 2006, str. 167–168). Civilno-vojaški odnosi se bodo morali dvigniti na novo raven, na kateri bo Slovenski vojski priznana profesionalna avtonomija, ki pa si jo mora ta seveda najprej zaslužiti z izkazanimi kompetencami. Vse to bi moralo dati podlago za razvoj ustrezne vojaške kulture, ki bi podpirala poveljevanje z namero.

Sistem izobraževanja in usposabljanja mora hkrati zagotoviti poznavanje doktrine, profesionalnega jezika ter pisanja in interpretacije namere, prav tako mora bodoče častnike na vseh ravneh usposabljati za prevzemanje nalog nadrejenih. Poskrbeti pa mora tudi za poenotenje proceduralnega znanja štabnih procesov načrtovanja in odločanja. Kako to storiti? Predvsem je treba v sistem izobraževanja in usposabljanja uvesti selekcijske kriterije, ki bodo dovolj restriktivni, da bodo spodbujali kritično razmišljanje. To pomeni, da na šolanje niso sprejeti vsi po vrsti, temveč le tisti, ki so izkazano sposobni ustrezne ravni kritičnega razmišljanja. Sedanji sistem, v katerem so sprejeti vsi in vsi tudi uspešno opravijo vojaškostrokovno izobraževanje, je uničujoč za poveljevanje z namero. Ne gre za to, da se komur koli preprečuje vstop v sistem izobraževanja, temveč za to, da se za tiste, ki so prisotni, ustvari okolje, v katerem bodo lahko intelektualno in profesionalno napredovali. Nadalje mora sistem izobraževanja in usposabljanja zagotoviti kompetentne inštruktorje, ki bodo hkrati dobri učitelji oziroma predavatelji. Njihova naloga mora biti predvsem razvijati sposobnost kritičnega razmišljanja v okviru vojaške doktrine. Njihov cilj ni, da povedo, kaj je prav in kaj narobe, ampak, da razvijajo posameznikove analitične, taktične, voditeljske, poveljniške in druge lastnosti, ki so zaželeno. To ne pomeni, da so inštruktorji lahko le vojaške osebe, daleč od tega. Celó zaželeno je, da so to tudi civilisti z ustreznimi kompetencami za posredovanje snovi, za katero so zadolženi.

Vsekakor pa se moramo odmakniti od trenutnega stanja, v katerem so učitelji (inštruktorji, predavatelji) v sistemu izobraževanja in usposabljanja predvsem zaradi teritorialnega načela (živijo nekje blizu).

Toda za poveljevanje z namero je ravno toliko kot sistem izobraževanja in usposabljanja pomembno tudi, kaj se dogaja v enotah in poveljstvih. Če se tam nadrejeni ne ukvarjajo s profesionalnim razvojem svojih podrejenih, je trud v sistemu izobraževanja in usposabljanja zaman.

Vsekakor pa je kadrovska politika, temelječa na profesionalnih kompetencah, tista, ki edina zagotavlja medsebojno zaupanje nadrejenih in podrejenih, kar je temeljni pogoj za delovanje poveljevanja z namero. V povezavi s sistemom izobraževanja in usposabljanja mora kadrovska politika zagotoviti, da je eden izmed pogojev za zasedanje poveljniške dolžnosti določene ravni poučevanje na vojaški šoli ustrezne nižje ravni – poveljniki polkov bi tako na primer morali prej poučevati na štabnem tečaju (poveljnike čet). Poleg tega pa bi morala kadrovska politika z ocenjevanjem v sistemu kariernega razvoja posameznika spodbujati k sprejemanju vrednot, zelenih za uresničevanje doktrine poveljevanja z namero. Kar poenostavljeno pomeni, da bi moral ocenjevalni list službene ocene ustrezati zahtevam poveljevanja z namero.

SV se ravno tako spopada z izzivi sodobne tehnologije, predvsem informacijske. Je pa tehnologija tesno povezana s finančnimi sredstvi, ki so na voljo, zato je tehten premislek nujen. Eksperimentiranje z novo ali nepreizkušeno tehnologijo si lahko privoščijo veliki in bogati, za SV pa bi bilo primernejše uvajanje uveljavljenih tehnologij, ki preizkušeno delujejo, čeprav so kako generacijo starejše. Informacijska tehnologija je nedvomno bojni multiplikator, toda SV bo morala biti pozorna na že omenjene pasti mikrovodenja, informacijske preobremenjenosti in poveljevanja prek plazma zaslonov. Predvsem pa se mora častniški zbor SV zavedati, da tehnologija ni čarobni prah, ki bo rešil težave, ki jih povzročajo neustrezna organizacijska kultura, profesionalna nekompetentnost ter vodenje in poveljevanje. Prej nasprotno, samo še povečevala jih bo, kot bi jih tudi, če bi bilo vse na ustrezni profesionalni ravni.

Sklep Poveljevanje z namero je doktrina, ki omogoča številčno in tehnično šibkejšemu, da z izkoriščanjem majhnih oziroma trenutnih priložnosti vstopi v nasprotnikov cikel odločanja, za kar pa sta nujna prevzemanje pobud in pripravljenost na akcijo pod pogojem doktrinarne poenotenosti in medsebojnega zaupanja ter ob ustrezni organizacijski kulturi.

SV bo morala poiskati načine, ki ji bodo v spopadu z nasprotnikom, v katerem koli tipu operacije, prinesli zelene rezultate. Ob tem da bo, kljub temu da je del zaveznitva, najverjetneje vedno številčno in tehnično v podrejenem položaju. Poveljevanje z namero je vsekakor doktrina, ki bi jo v tem smislu veljalo natančneje proučiti in uvesti v SV.

SV bi s poveljevanjem z namero pridobila večjo hitrost in kakovost odzivanja na nastale situacije, tako na tradicionalnem kot postmodernem bojišču, boljši status vojaškega poklica v družbi, več zaupanja med nadrejenimi in podrejenimi, manjše izgube zaradi pasivnosti idr.

Trdim, da poveljevanje z namero ne bi imelo negativnih posledic za SV. Še več, trdim celo, da je edina možnost zanjo. Alternativa je namreč okoren in počasen sitem direktivnega vodenja, s katerim zmagaš, če prevladuješ v moštvu in opremi ter globini, ki ti dajejo čas in prostor za manever. Ne vidim, kako bi se Slovenija in SV lahko znašli v tem položaju v odnosu do morebitnih nasprotnikov.

Uveljavitev poveljevanja z namero v Slovenski vojski nikakor ne bi zahtevala milijonov evrov, niti več sto tisoč, pač pa spremembo klime in kulture organizacije. Za to pa bi potrebovali vsaj delne spremembe tudi v celotni družbi in njenem gledanju na SV. To niso spremembe, ki bi lahko nastale čez noč, ampak zahtevajo leta trdega dela. Hkrati pa niso tako nemogoče, kot se morda zdi. SV bi zrelost in pripravljenost na poveljevanje z namero pokazala že s tem, da bi sama sprožila procese, ki bi vodili v ustrezno organizacijsko kulturo, in dialog s civilno družbo. Ne da bi čakala, da to namesto nje stori kdo drug, na primer politika. Samo začeti je treba in vztrajati.

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Avtorji

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Olivian Stănică

Polkovnik Olivian STĂNICĂ je vodja odseka za vojaško doktrino J7 na sedežu generalštaba Ministrstva za obrambo Romunije. Od leta 2012 je doktorski kandidat za vojaške znanosti na Univerzi za nacionalno obrambo Carol I, od leta 2006 pa član Natove skupine za usposabljanje. Je avtor številnih člankov o vojaških sistemih izobraževanja in usposabljanja, kot so Stalno usposabljanje vojaškega osebja s srednješolsko izobrazbo v romunski vojski, Obvladovanje sprememb v romunskem vojaškem izobraževalnem sistemu in E-učenje za razvoj novih znanj in spretnosti na področju varovanja podatkov: pristojnost za kibernetko varnost.

Colonel Olivian STĂNICĂ is Head of the Military Doctrine Branch/J7/GS HQ/Romanian MoD. He has been a PhD candidate in Military Science at the National Defence University "Carol I" since 2012 and member of the NATO Training Group since 2006. He is the author of many articles on military training and education systems, such as: Continuous training of military personnel with secondary education in the Romanian Army, Change management in the Romanian military education system and E-learning for the development of new skills in security of information field: E-cyber security competence.



Darko Trifunović

Dr. Darko Trifunović je znanstveni sodelavec in predavatelj na Fakulteti za varnostne vede Univerze v Beogradu. Je strokovnjak za boj proti terorizmu ter za nacionalne in mednarodne varnostne študije. Izvoljen je bil na položaj gostujočega profesorja v Centru za ameriške študije na Univerzi Fudan na Kitajskem. Je tudi predstavnik Srbije in Črne gore pri Mednarodnem združenju za strateške študije (ISSA), ki objavlja revijo *Defense & Foreign Affairs* in upravlja storitve Globalnega informacijskega sistema (GIS).

Darko Trifunovic, PhD, is a Research Fellow and lecturer at the Faculty of Security Studies – University of Belgrade. Darko Trifunovic is a specialist in Counter-Terrorism, National and International Security Studies. He has been elected to the position of a visiting professor at the Fudan University in China, Centre for American Studies. He is also the representative of Serbia and Montenegro in the International Strategic Studies Association (ISSA), Defense & Foreign Affairs publications, and the Global Information System (GIS).



Slavko Angelevski

Polkovnik in izredni profesor dr. Slavko Angelevski

deluje na vojaški akademiji General Mihailo Apostolski v Skopju. Leta 2001 je pridobil magisterij na Fakulteti za strojništvo Univerze Sv. Cirila in Metoda v Skopju ter leta 2004 na isti univerzi doktoriral s področja vodenja in upravljanja. Kot izredni profesor predava o področjih: upravljanje virov, modeliranje in simulacije, operativne raziskave, zunanja balistika in sistemi za vodenje ognja. Dvakrat je bil izvoljen za prodekana vojaške akademije.

Colonel Associate Professor Slavko Angelevski, PhD,

works at the Military Academy "General Mihailo Apostolski" in Skopje, Republic of Macedonia. In 2001 he obtained his Master's Degree from the Mechanical Faculty of the Ss. Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, and earned his doctorate at the same university in 2004 in the field of management. As an associate professor he holds lectures in the following disciplines: Resource Management, Modelling & Simulations, Operational Research, External Ballistics and Fire Control Systems. Twice he was elected Vice-Dean of the Military Academy.



Metodi Hadji Janev

Polkovnik in izredni profesor dr. Metodi Hadji-Janev

je prodekan za izobraževanje in raziskave na vojaški akademiji General Mihailo Apostolski v Skopju. Doktoriral je iz mednarodnega prava, diplomo pa pridobil na poveljniško-štabni šoli zračnih sil ameriške letalske univerze v bazi Maxwell v zvezni državi Alabama. Leta 2003 je bil v Iraku poveljnik makedonskih namenskih sil. Področje njegovega akademskega interesa vključuje mednarodno varnost ter grožnje sodobnega terorizma in kibernetkega prostora v okviru mednarodnega prava in mednarodnih odnosov.

Colonel Associate Professor Metodi Hadji-Janev, PhD,

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Vinko Vegič

Višji vojaški uslužbenec XIV. razreda dr. Vinko Vegič

je doktoriral iz obramboslovnih znanosti. Bil je raziskovalec in predavatelj na Katedri za obramboslovje na Fakulteti za družbene vede. Področja njegovega raziskovalnega in pedagoškega dela so nacionalna in mednarodna varnost, sodobne varnostne strategije in vojaške organizacije. V Slovenski vojski je zaposlen od leta 2008. Do leta 2013 je delal v vojaškem izobraževalnem sistemu, bil je tudi načelnik Katedre za nacionalno obrambo. Trenutno svoje delo opravlja v Združenem sektorju za strateško planiranje Generalštaba Slovenske vojske.

Senior Military Specialist, Class XIV, Vinko Vegič, holds a PhD in Defence Studies. He has worked as a researcher and lecturer at the Chair of Defence Studies at the Faculty of Social Sciences. The areas of his research and educational work include national and international security, modern security strategies and military organizations. He has worked in the Slovenian Armed Forces (SAF) since 2008. Until 2013, he was engaged in the military education system, also as Head of the Chair of National Security. Currently, he works at the Joint Strategic Planning Division at the SAF General Staff.



Stojan Zabukovec

Polkovnik Stojan Zabukovec je leta 1984 diplomiral na akademiji kopenske vojske, smer zračna obramba. Leta 2003 je diplomiral na najvišji šoli ameriškega vojaškega letalstva (USAFWC), na kateri je v okviru letalske univerze pridobil magisterij iz strateških študij. Po koncu študija je bil načelnik Poveljniško-štabne šole (2003–2008), 15. maja 2004 pa je bil povišan v svoj trenutni čin. Od leta 2008 do 2009 je bil načelnik štaba za podporo Natovega poveljstva v Sarajevu. Trenutno je načelnik Sektorja J5 v GŠSV.

Colonel Stojan Zabukovec graduated from the Military Academy of the Yugoslav People's Army in 1984 in Air Defence. In 2003 he graduated from the US Air Force - Air War College where he earned his Master's Degree in Strategic Studies at the Air University. After graduation he was Head of the Command and Staff School (2003–2008), and was promoted to his current rank on 15 May 2004. From 2008 to 2009 he was Chief of Staff/Chief Support to NATO HQ Sarajevo. Currently, he is Chief of the Joint Strategic Planning Division (J5) at the SAF General Staff.

Stotnik Miha Rijavec je diplomiral iz politologije. V Sloveniji je obiskoval Šolo za častnike in leta 2002 pridobil čin poročnika. Ima tudi magisterij iz vojaške znanosti in umetnosti, ki ga je pridobil na poveljniško-generalštabni šoli ameriške kopenske vojske v Fort Leavenworthu, ki jo je obiskoval leta 2013. Udeleževal se je tudi misij v tujini. Dvakrat je sodeloval na misiji Kforja na Kosovu in enkrat na misiji Isafa v Afganistanu, kjer je deloval kot mentor poveljniku pehotne čete afganistanske nacionalne vojske (ANA) v okviru Operativne skupine za mentorstvo in povezavo (OMLT) v Bala Baluku.

Captain Miha Rijavec graduated in Political Science. He attended the Officer Candidate School in Slovenia and was commissioned as 2nd Lieutenant in 2002. He holds a Master's Degree in Military Art and Science from Command and General Staff College, Ft. Leavenworth. He attended the US Army Command and General Staff College in 2013. He was a member on missions abroad; twice in KFOR, Kosovo, and in ISAF, Afghanistan: as a Mentor to the Infantry Company Commander of the Afghan National Army in OMLT, Bala Baluk.



Viktor Potočnik

Stotnik Viktor Potočnik je v SV zaposlen od leta 2001. Do zdaj je opravljal več različnih dolžnosti. Sodeloval je v operacijah Sforja v BiH kot poveljnik motoriziranega voda in v operacijah Kforja na Kosovu kot vodja taktično-operativnega centra. Leta 2011 je končal šolanje na poveljniško-generalštabni šoli ameriške kopenske vojske in pridobil magisterij iz vojaške znanosti in umetnosti. Trenutno dela kot višji častnik za napredno planiranje v J5/GŠSV.

Captain Viktor Potočnik has worked in the SAF since 2001 and has since held a number of different positions. He has participated in SFOR operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina, acting as the Motorized Platoon Commander, and in KFOR operations in Kosovo as Head of the Tactical Operations Centre. In 2011, he graduated from the US Army Command and General Staff College (Master of Military Art and Science). He currently holds the position of a Senior Advanced Planning Officer at the Joint Strategic Planning Division (J5) at the SAF General Staff.

Navodila avtorjem
za oblikovanje prispevkov

Instructions for the authors
of papers

NAVODILA AVTORJEM ZA OBLIKOVANJE PRISPEVKOV ZA SODOBNE VOJAŠKE IZZIVE IN VOJAŠKOŠOLSKI ZBORNIK

Vsebinska navodila

Splošno

Sodobni vojaški izzivi je interdisciplinarna znanstveno-strokovna publikacija, ki objavlja prispevke o aktualnih temah, raziskavah, znanstvenih in strokovnih razpravah, tehničnih ali družboslovnih analizah z varnostnega, obrambnega in vojaškega področja.

Vojaškošolski zbornik je vojaškostrokovna in informativna publikacija, namenjena izobraževanju in obveščanju o dosežkih ter izkušnjah na področju vojaškega izobraževanja, usposabljanja in izpopolnjevanja.

Kaj objavljamo?

Objavljamo prispevke v slovenskem jeziku s povzetki, prevedenimi v angleški jezik, in po odločitvi uredniškega odbora prispevke v angleškem jeziku s povzetki, prevedenimi v slovenski jezik.

Objavljamo prispevke, ki še niso bili objavljeni ali poslani v objavo drugi reviji. Pisec je odgovoren za vse morebitne kršitve avtorskih pravic. Če je bil prispevek že natisnjen drugje, poslan v objavo ali predstavljen na strokovni konferenci, naj to avtor sporočiti uredniku in pridobiti soglasje založnika (če je treba) ter navesti razloge za ponovno objavo.

Tehnična navodila

Omejitve dolžine prispevkov

Prispevki naj obsegajo 16 strani oziroma 30.000 znakov s presledki (avtorska pola), izjemoma najmanj 8 strani oziroma 15.000 znakov ali največ 24 strani oziroma 45.000 znakov.

Recenzije

Prispevki se recenzirajo. Recenzija je anonimna. Glede na oceno recenzentov uredniški odbor ali urednik prispevek sprejme, če je treba, zahteva popravke ali ga zavrne. Pripombe recenzentov avtor vnese v prispevek.

Zaradi anonimnega recenzentskega postopka je treba prvo stran in vsebino oblikovati tako, da identiteta avtorja ni prepoznavna.

Avtor ob naslovu prispevka napiše, v katero kategorijo po njegovem mnenju in glede na klasifikacijo v COBISS spada njegov prispevek. Klasifikacija je dostopna na spletni strani revije in pri odgovornem uredniku. Končno klasifikacijo določi uredniški odbor.

Lektoriranje

Lektoriranje besedil zagotavlja OE, pristojna za založniško dejavnost. Lektorirana besedila se avtorizirajo.

Prevajanje	Prevajanje besedil ali povzetkov zagotavlja OE, pristojna za prevajalsko dejavnost oziroma Šola za tuje jezike Centra vojaških šol.
Navajanje avtorjev prispevka	Navajanje avtorjev je skrajno zgoraj, levo poravnano. <i>Primer:</i> Ime 1 Priimek 1, Ime 2 Priimek 2 V opombi pod črto se za slovenske avtorje navede, iz katere ustanove prihajajo. Pri tujih avtorjih je treba navesti tudi ime države.
Naslov prispevka	Navedbi avtorjev sledi naslov prispevka. Črke v naslovu so velike 16 pik, natisnjene krepko, besedilo naslova pa poravnano na sredini.
Povzetek	Prispevku mora biti dodan povzetek, ki obsega največ 1200 znakov (20 vrstic). Povzetek naj na kratko opredeli temo prispevka, predvsem naj povzame rezultate in ugotovitve. Splošne ugotovitve in misli ne spadajo v povzetek, temveč v uvod.
Povzetek v angleščini	Avtorji morajo oddati tudi prevod povzetka v angleščino. Tudi za prevod povzetka velja omejitev do 1200 znakov (20 vrstic).
Ključne besede	Ključne besede (3-5, tudi v angleškem jeziku) naj bodo natisnjene krepko in z obojestransko poravnavo besedila.
Besedilo	Avtorji naj oddajo svoje prispevke na papirju formata A4, s presledkom med vrsticami 1,5 in velikostjo črk 12 pik Arial. Na zgornjem in spodnjem robu naj bo do besedila približno 3 cm, levi rob naj bo širok 2 cm, desni pa 4 cm. Na vsaki strani je tako približno 30 vrstic s približno 62 znaki. Besedilo naj bo obojestransko poravnano, brez umikov na začetku odstavka.
Kratka predstavitev avtorjev	Avtorji morajo pripraviti kratko predstavitev svojega strokovnega oziroma znanstvenega dela. Predstavitev naj ne presega 600 znakov (10 vrstic, 80 besed). Če je avtorjev več, se predstavi vsak posebej, čim bolj zgoščeno. Avtorji naj besedilo umestijo na konec prispevka po navedeni literaturi.
Strukturiranje besedila	Posamezna poglavja v besedilu naj bodo ločena s samostojnimi podnaslovi in ustrezno oštevilčena (členitev največ na 4 ravni). <i>Primer:</i> 1 Uvod 2 Naslov poglavja (1. raven) 2.1 Podnaslov (2. raven) 2.1.1 Podnaslov (3. raven) 2.1.1.1 Podnaslov (4. raven)

Oblikovanje seznama literature

V seznamu literature je treba po abecednem redu navesti le avtorje, na katere se sklicujete v prispevku, celotna oznaka vira pa mora biti skladna s harvardskim načinom navajanja. Če je avtorjev več, navedemo vse, kot so navedeni na izvirnem delu.

Primeri:

a) knjiga:

Priimek, ime (lahko začetnica imena), letnica. *Naslov dela*. Kraj: Založba.

Na primer: Ulrich, W., 1983. *Critical Heuristics of Social Planning*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

b) zbornik:

Samson, C., 1970. Problems of information studies in history. V S. Stone, ur. *Humanities information research*. Sheffield: CRUS, 1980, str./pp. 44–68. Pri posameznih člankih v zbornikih na koncu posameznega vira navedemo strani, na katerih je članek, na primer:

c) članek v reviji

Kolega, N., 2006. Slovenian coast sea flood risk. *Acta geographica Slovenica*. 46-2, str. 143–167.

Navajanje virov z interneta

Vse reference se začenjajo enako kot pri natisnjenih virih, le da običajnemu delu sledi še podatek o tem, kje na internetu je bil dokument dobljen in kdaj. Podatek o tem, kdaj je bil dokument dobljen, je pomemben zaradi pogostega spreminjanja www okolja.

Ulrich, W., 1983. *Critical Heuristics of Social Planning*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, str. 45–100. <http://www.mors.si/index.php?id=213>, 17. 10. 2008.

Pri navajanju zanimivih internetnih naslovov v besedilu (ne gre za navajanje posebnega dokumenta) zadošča navedba naslova (<http://www.vpvs.uni-lj.si>).

Posebna referenca na koncu besedila v tem primeru ni potrebna.

Sklicevanje na vire

Pri sklicevanju na vire med besedilom navedite le priimek prvega avtorja in letnico izdaje. *Primer:* ... (Smith, 1997) ...

Če dobesedno navajate del besedila, ga ustrezno označite z narekovaji, v oklepaju pa poleg avtorja in letnice navedite stran besedila, iz katerega ste navajali.

Primer: ... (Smith, 1997, str. 15) ...

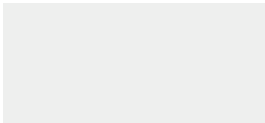
Pri povzemanju drugega avtorja napišemo besedilo brez narekovajev, v oklepaju pa napišemo, da gre za povzeto besedilo. *Primer:* (po Smith, 1997, str. 15). Če avtorja navajamo v besedilu, v oklepaju navedemo samo letnico izida in stran (1997, str. 15).

**Slike,
diagrami
in tabele**

Slike, diagrami in tabele v prispevku naj bodo v posebej pripravljenih datotekah, ki omogočajo lektorske popravke. V besedilu mora biti jasno označeno mesto, kamor je treba vnesti sliko. Skupna dolžina prispevka ne sme preseči dane omejitve.

Če avtor iz tehničnih razlogov grafičnih dodatkov ne more oddati v elektronski obliki, je izjemoma sprejemljivo, da slike priloži besedilu. Avtor mora v tem primeru na zadnjo stran slike napisati zaporedno številko in naslov, v besedilu pa pustiti dovolj prostora zanj. Prav tako mora biti besedilo opremljeno z naslovom in številčenjem slike. Diagrami se štejejo kot slike. Vse slike in tabele se številčijo. Številčenje poteka enotno in ni povezano s številčenjem poglavij. Naslov slike je naveden pod sliko, naslov tabele pa nad tabelo. Navadno je v besedilu navedeno vsaj eno sklicevanje na sliko ali tabelo. Sklic na sliko ali tabelo je: ... (slika 5) ... (tabela 2) ...

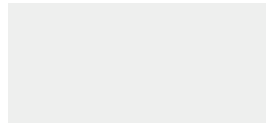
Primer slike:



Slika 5: Naslov slike

Primer tabele:

Tabela 2: Naslov tabele

**Opombe
pod črto**

Številčenje opomb pod črto je neodvisno od strukture besedila in se v vsakem prispevku začne s številko 1. Posebej opozarjamo avtorje, da so opombe pod črto namenjene pojasnjevanju misli, zapisanih v besedilu, in ne navajanju literature.

Kratice

Kratice naj bodo dodane v oklepaju, ko se okrajšana beseda prvič uporabi, zato posebnih seznamov kratic ne dodajamo. Za kratico ali izraz v angleškem jeziku napišemo najprej slovensko ustreznico, v oklepaju pa angleški izvirnik in morebitno angleško kratico.

**Format
zapisa
prispevka**

Uredniški odbor sprejema prispevke, napisane z urejevalnikom besedil MS Word, izjemoma tudi v besedilnem zapisu (text only).

**Naslov
avtorja**

Prispevkom naj bosta dodana avtorjeva naslov in internetni naslov ali telefonska številka, na katerih bo dosegljiv uredniškemu odboru.

**Kako poslati
prispevek**

Na naslov uredništva ali članov uredniškega odbora je treba poslati tiskano in elektronsko različico prispevka.

**Potrjevanje
sprejetja
prispevka**

Uredniški odbor avtorju pisno potrdi prejetje prispevka. Avtorjem, ki sporočijo tudi naslov svoje elektronske pošte, se potrditev pošlje po tej poti.

Korekture Avtor opravi korekture svojega prispevka v treh dneh.

**Naslov
uredniškega
odbora** Ministrstvo za obrambo
Generalštab Slovenske vojske
Sodobni vojaški izzivi
Uredniški odbor
Vojkova cesta 55
1000 Ljubljana
Slovenija
Elektronski naslov
Odgovorna urednica:
liliana.brozic@mors.si

Prispevkov, ki ne bodo urejeni skladno s tem navodilom, uredniški odbor ne bo sprejemal.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE AUTHORS OF PAPERS FOR THE CONTEMPORARY MILITARY CHALLENGES AND THE MILITARY EDUCATION JOURNAL

Content-related instructions

General

The Contemporary Military Challenges is an interdisciplinary scientific expert magazine, which publishes papers on current topics, researches, scientific and expert discussions, technical or social sciences analysis from the field of security, defence and the military..

The Military Education Journal is a military professional and informative publication intended for education and informing on achievements and experiences in the field of military education, training and improvement.

What do we publish?

We publish papers in Slovene with abstracts translated into English. If so decided by the Editorial Board, we also publish papers in English with abstracts translated into Slovene.

We publish papers, which have not been previously published or sent to another magazine for publication. The author is held responsible for all possible copyright violations. If the paper has already been printed elsewhere, sent for publication or presented at an expert conference, the author must notify the editor, obtain the publisher's consent (if necessary) and indicate the reasons for republishing.

Technical instructions

Limitations regarding the length of the papers

The papers should consist of 16 typewritten double-spaced pages or 30,000 characters. At a minimum they should have 8 pages or 15,000 characters and at a maximum 24 pages or 45,000 characters.

- Reviews** All papers are reviewed. The review is anonymous. With regard to the reviewer's assessment, the Editorial Board or the editor accepts the paper, demands modifications, if necessary, or rejects it. Upon receiving the reviewers' remarks, the author inserts them into the paper.
Due to an anonymous review process, the first page must be designed in the way that the author's identity cannot be recognized.
Next to the title, the author should indicate the category the paper belongs to according to him and according to the classification in the COBISS¹. The classification is available on the magazine's internet page and at the responsible editor. The Editorial Board determines the final classification.
- Proofreading** The organizational unit responsible for publishing provides the proofreading of the papers. The proofread papers have to be approved.
- Translating** The translation of the papers or abstracts is provided by the organizational unit competent for translation or the School of Foreign Languages, Military Schools Centre.
- Indicating the authors of the paper** The authors' name should be written in the upper left corner, aligned left.
Example:
Name 1 Surname 1,
Name 2 Surname 2,
In the footnote, Slovenian authors should indicate the institution they come from. Foreign authors should also indicate the name of the state they come from.
- Title of the paper** The title of the paper is written below the listed authors. The font in the title is bold, size 16 points. The text of the title is centrally aligned.
- Abstract** The paper should have an abstract of a maximum 1,200 characters (20 lines). The abstract should include a short presentation of the topic, particularly the results and the findings. General findings and reflections do not belong in the abstract, but rather in the introduction.
- Abstract in English** The authors must also submit the translation of the abstract into English. The translation of the abstract is likewise limited to a maximum of 1,200 characters (20 lines).
- Key words** Key words (3-5 also in the English language) should be bold with a justified text alignment.
- Text** The authors should submit their papers on an A4 paper format, with 1.5 line spacing, fontArial size 12 points. At the upper and the bottom edge, there should be approx. 3 cm of space; the left margin should be 2 cm wide and the right margin 4 cm. Each page consists of approx. 30 lines with 62 characters. The text should have a justified alignment, without indents at the beginning of the paragraphs.

¹ Co-operative Online Bibliographic System and Services

A brief presentation of the authors

The authors should prepare a brief presentation of their expert or scientific work. The presentation should not exceed 600 characters (10 lines, 80 words). If there are several authors, each should be presented individually, as shortly and as comprehensively as possible. These texts should be placed at the end of the paper, after the cited literature.

Text structuring

Individual chapters should be separated with independent subtitles and adequately numbered.

Example:

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Title of the chapter (1st level)
- 2.1 Subtitle (2nd level)
- 2.1.1 Subtitle (3rd level)
- 2.1.1.1 Subtitle (4th level)

Referencing

In the bibliography, only the authors of references one refers to in the paper should be listed, in the alphabetical order. The entire reference has to be in compliance with the Harvard citing style.

Example:

Surname, name (can also be the initial of the name), year. *Title of the work*. Place. Publishing House.

Example:

Urlich, W., 1983. *Critical Heuristics of Social Planning*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

With certain papers published in journals, the author should indicate, at the end of each reference, a page on which the paper can be found.

Example:

Urlich, W., 1983. *Critical Heuristics of Social Planning*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. pp. 45-100.

Referencing internet sources

All references start the same as the references for the printed sources, only that the usual part is followed by the information about the Internet page on which the document was found as well as the date on which it was found. The information about the time that the document was found on the Internet is important, because the WWW environment changes constantly.

Urlich, W., 1983. *Critical Heuristics of Social Planning*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. p. 45-100. <http://www.mors.si/index.php?id=213>, 17 October 2008.

When referencing interesting WWW pages in the text (not citing an individual document) it is enough to state only the Internet address (<http://www.vpvs.uni-lj.si>). A separate reference at the end of the text is therefore not necessary.

Citing

When citing sources in the text, indicate only the surname of the author and the year of publication. *Example:* (Smith, 1997) ...

When making a direct reference to a text, the cited part should be adequately marked with quotation marks and followed by the exact page of the text which the citing is taken from.

Example: ...(Smith, 1997, p.15) ...

Figures, diagrams, tables

Figures, diagrams and tables in the paper should be prepared in separate files which allow for proofreading corrections. The place in the text where the picture should be inserted must be clearly indicated. The total length of the paper must not surpass the given limitation.

Should the author not be able to submit the graphical supplements in the electronic form due to technical reasons, it is exceptionally acceptable to enclose the figures to the text. In this case the author must write a sequence number and a title on the back of each picture and leave enough space in the text to include it. The text must likewise contain the title and the sequence number of the figure. Diagrams are considered figures.

All figures and tables are numbered. The numbering is not uniform and not linked with the numbering of the chapters. The title of the figure is stated beneath it and the title of the table is stated above it.

As a rule, the paper should include at least one reference to a figure or a table..

Reference to a figure or a table is: ... (Figure 5) (Table 2)

Example of a figure:

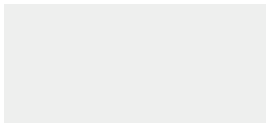
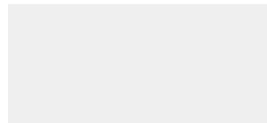


Figure 5: Title of the figure

Example of a table:

Table 2: Title of the table



Footnotes

The numbering of the footnotes is not related to the structure of the text and starts with number 1 in each paper. We want to stress that the aim of the footnotes is to explain the thoughts written in the text and not to reference literature.

Abbreviations

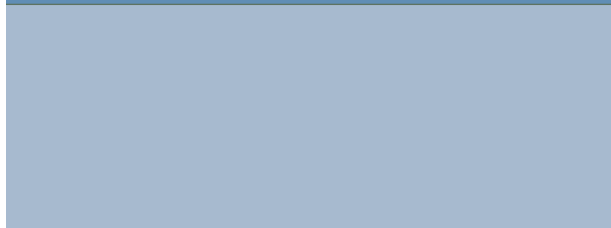
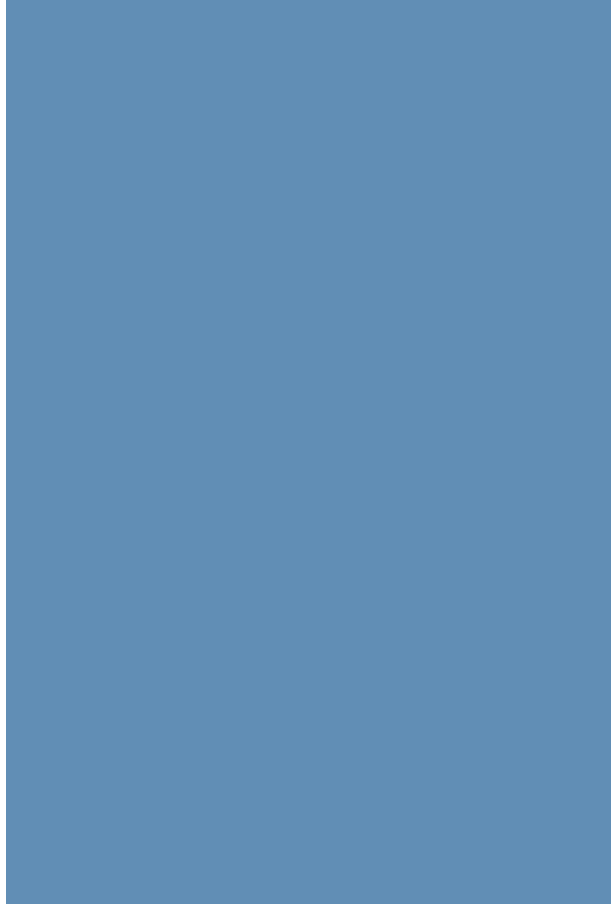
When used for the first time, the abbreviations in the text must be explained in parenthesis; therefore no additional list of abbreviations is needed. If the abbreviations or terms are written in English, the appropriate Slovenian term should be written along with the English original and possibly the English abbreviation in the parenthesis.

Format type of the paper

The Editorial Board accepts only the texts written with a MS Word text editor and only exceptionally those in the 'text only' format.

Author's address	Each paper should include the author's address, e-mail or a telephone number, so that the Editorial Board can reach him or her.
Sending the paper	A print or an electronic version of the paper should be sent to the address of the Editorial Board or the members of the Editorial Board.
Confirmation of the reception of the paper	The Editorial Board sends the author a written confirmation regarding the reception of the paper. The authors who also list their e-mails receive the confirmation via e-mail.
Corrections	The author makes corrections to the paper within three days.
Editorial Board address	Ministry of Defence Slovenian Armed Forces General Staff Contemporary Military Challenges Editorial Board Vojkova cesta 55 1000 Ljubljana Slovenia Electronic address: Editor in Chief: liliana.brozic@mors.si

The Editorial Board will not accept papers, which will not be in compliance with the above instructions.



Vsebina

Liliana Brožič	UVODNIK VOJAŠKO IZOBRAŽEVANJE IN USPOSABLJANJE MILITARY EDUCATION AND TRAINING
Olivian Staniča	GLOBALNI USPEH EVROPE 2020 – PREOBLIKOVANJE SISTEMOV IZOBRAŽEVANJA, TUDI VOJAŠKEGA? GLOBAL SUCCESS OF »EUROPE 2020« – REMODELLING EDUCATION SYSTEMS, EVEN MILITARY ONES?
Darko Trifunović	VARNOSTNE ŠTUDIJE – SINTEZA AKADEMSKEGA ZNANJA IN PRAKSE SECURITY STUDIES – SYNTHESIS BETWEEN ACADEMY AND PRACTICE
Slavko Angelevski Metodi Hadji-Janev	SODOBNI IZZIVI VOJAŠKEGA IZOBRAŽEVANJA – PRIMER MAKEDONSKE VOJAŠKE AKADEMIJE CONTEMPORARY CHALLENGES IN MILITARY EDUCATION – MACEDONIAN MILITARY ACADEMY IN THE CONTEXT
Vinko Vegič Stojan Zabukovec	IZOBRAŽEVANJE ČASTNIKOV – OD RAZPRAV O ORGANIZIRANOSTI K RAZMISLEKU O VSEBINAH OFFICER EDUCATION – FROM DISCUSSIONS ON THE ORGANIZATION TO THE CONSIDERATION OF CONTENTS
Miha Rijavec	PRIHODNOST SISTEMA KARIERNE POTI ČASTNIKA V SLOVENSKE VOJSKE FUTURE OF THE OFFICER CAREER DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM IN THE SLOVENIAN ARMED FORCES
Viktor Potočnik	POVELJEVANJE Z NAMERO IN SLOVENSKA VOJSKA AUFTRAGSTAKTIK – MISSION COMMAND IN THE SLOVENIAN ARMED FORCES