Historical Development, Current Trends and Specific Models of Competency-based Education in the Military Environment

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The article explores competency-based education in the military field. The introductory part of the article presents historical trends, supplemented by the necessary setting of the issue in the context of developments in this field. The article includes a passage summarizing the latest trends, i.e. the current models of competencies, a summary of the education and development of military professionals according to competencies and, in terms of practical application, the correlation between competency models and the process of implementing the education in the chosen department of the University of Defence. This is a critical area for educating future soldiers, undergoing dynamic changes with the introduction of modern educational approaches.

Keywords: *Competency-based education; Military education; Leadership; Competence; Education, Competencies in a military environment; University of Defence*

The study offers a comprehensive view on the topic of competency-based education in the military environment. It also takes into account the historical development, but especially the current trends in this field. For this review study, general scientific methods of investigation are used. These methods are mainly analysis, synthesis and induction. The primary sources are relevant research and findings of military competency models. Secondary literature from both Czech and international perspectives and their reflection on the topic is also an important aid. The study is supplemented by a summary of current competency models, competencies in the military environment and trends in the education and development of military professionals according to competencies. A concrete example is the use in teaching at the University of Defence.

Summary of Historical Development

Military education has a long history. Already in ancient Greece and Rome, soldiers were intensively trained. Often it was a question of the survival of an entire society, the ability to defend its civilization or, on the contrary, to expand and extend its power base. Soldiers were trained in combat, discipline and tactics. Their acquired skills were put to good use by a competent commander. Related to this is the very notion of competence, which comes from the Latin word competentia, meaning the power or ability to perform an activity. However, the current use and meaning of competence varies considerably, for example in the legal field, in the social sciences or in pedagogy, and it is evolving.[1]

But let us return to the historical development. Sparta in particular was known for its rigorous military training, which began in childhood. Alexander the Great, in turn, was clearly influenced by the education he received from his tutor, the famous philosopher Aristotle. It was Aristotle who awakened in Alexander an admiration for Greek culture and a general interest in the outside world, philosophy, art, mathematics and the natural sciences.[2]

The Romans organized their legions with an emphasis on discipline and fighting technique. Roman society was built on discharge and the ability to learn from one's mistakes. The Roman army was defeated in many battles, but the ability to learn from defeats was typical of the Romans for many centuries of their successful civilization, and the knowledge was passed on to the next generation. Individual commanders had the opportunity to learn from each other. Thus, the ancient Roman military during both the Republic and the Empire, at least until the emerging crisis of the 3rd century AD, was very strong, and the cooperation of all its components represented the most effective that had been seen up to that time, and which did not reappear until long after the fall of the Roman Empire.[3] The gradual disintegration of the Roman Empire and the subsequent emergence of the East Roman Empire (later called the Byzantine Empire) in 395 was accompanied by a decline in military leadership, ingenuity and the systematic exploration of war as an instrument of state policy.[4] The period around the turn of the first and second millennium was characterised by the emergence of feudalism in Western Europe, the Muslim world and Japan. The resulting social stratification influenced the structure and strategies of emerging military systems. Medieval knights were taught to fight, ride horses

[1] Veteška, J. (2008). *Kompetence ve vzdělávání*. Praha: Grada Publishing, p. 25.
[2] For more see Stoneman, R. (1997). *Alexander the Great*. London: Psychology Press, pp. 10–18.
[3] Anglim, S. (2006). *Bojové techniky starověkého světa*. Praha: Deus, p. 177.
[4] Dupuy, R. E. – Dupuy, T. N. (1996) *Historie vojenství. Díl 1. Od roku 3500 př. Kr. do roku 1700. Harperova encyklopedie.* Praha: Forma, p. 184.

and handle weapons. In Japan, samurai underwent similar training, with an emphasis on a code of personal honor and martial arts.[5]

Moving further back in time, the Renaissance (14th to 17th centuries) and then the Enlightenment absolutism of the 18th century saw the emergence of a more formal system of military education, which evolved into the establishment of cadet schools and military academies as institutions specialised in the education of command cadres - officers who were members of the nobility.[6] The emerging military power Prussia became a pioneer of modern military education in the 18th century. The foundation was laid in the military reforms of Frederick William I, such as the directives he proposed to the War Council in 1707 while still Crown Prince.[7] The Prussian model of this time [8] focused on the systematic training of officers. The process was further intensified in the early 18th century with the establishment of new military state schools in Berlin, Kolberg and Magdeburg, which Frederick William I merged into the Central Cadet School in Berlin shortly after his accession to the throne in 1713. Here the sons of aristocratic families were taught writing, French, logic, history, geography, engineering, dancing, fencing and „military drawing".[9] This list already includes simplified basics of tactics, strategy and soldier leadership. With similar intentions, Great Britain established the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich in 1741.[10] The French Royal Military Academy École Royale Militaire was founded in Paris in 1751.[11] In 1784 her most famous pupil, Napoleon Bonaparte, began studying here.[12] The period of the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars also represented a turning point in that future commanders began to be determined by their abilities rather than their origins, which is also illustrated by the fate of many Napoleonic marshals.[13] In the Habsburg Monarchy, the Theresian Military Academy was founded in Vienna's New

[5] Benesch, O. (2021). Medievalism, Modernity, and Militarism in Imperial Japan. In *The Visual Culture of Meiji Japan*, pp. 58–74.

[6] Dupuy, R. E. – Dupuy, T. N. (1997) *Historie vojenství. Díl 2. Od roku 1700 do války v Perském zálivu. Harperova encyklopedie.* Praha: Forma, p. 684.

[7] Clark, C. M. (2008). *Prusko: vzestup a pád železného království*. Praha: Beta, pp. 101–102.

[8] Dupuy, R. E. – Dupuy, T. N. (1997) *Historie vojenství. Díl 2. Od roku 1700 do války v Perském zálivu. Harperova encyklopedie*, pp. 718–719.

[9] Clark, C. M. (2008). *Prusko: vzestup a pád železného království*, p. 149.

[10] Johnson, W. (1989). The Woolwich professors of mathematics, 1741–1900. In *Journal of Mechanical Working Technology*, issue 18(2), pp. 145–194. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-3804(89)90073-9.

[11] Chapron, E. (2014). Des livres «pour l'usage de l'École royale militaire»: Choix pédagogiques et stratégies éditoriales (1751–1788). In *Histoire, économie & société*, issue (1), pp. 3–16.

[12] Guízar, H. A. (2020). *The École Royale Militaire: Noble Education, Institutional Innovation, and Royal Charity, 1750–1788*. Berlin: Springer Nature, p. 3.

[13] On the Fates of the Marshals of the Napoleonic Wars see Collective of authors. (2003). *Maréchaux d'Empire*. Paris: EPA Editions.

Town also in 1751.[14] In the USA, the Military Academy at West Point was founded in 1802. The academy emphasized engineering, mathematics and military strategy.[15] What these and many other emerging academies had in common was that they began to emphasize theoretical knowledge and practical skills - this process of education is sometimes called civilizing.[16]

The 19th century saw a major development in military education, partly in response to the technological and social changes of the time. The Napoleonic Wars (1803-1815) greatly influenced the approach to military education, as they demonstrated the importance of good preparation of officers and soldiers for the conduct of modern warfare. Military academies began to include technical and engineering disciplines. The development of technology required new skills and knowledge. Prussian General Carl von Clausewitz[17] wrote the important work „On War"[18], which stressed the importance of strategy and theory of war. Military academies around the world began to use the ideas and reflections of thinkers such as Clausewitz and others such as Antoine-Henri Jomini directly in the classroom.[19] Prussia became a leader in military education thanks to military reforms introduced mainly by General Gerhard von Scharnhorst[20] after the disastrous Prussian defeats to Napoleonic France at Jena and Auerstädt.[21] Prussian Military Academy (Kriegsakademie), founded in Berlin in 1810[22], has become a model for other European countries. The academy emphasized systematic training in tactics, strategy, military history and the theory of war. Military education in Prussia became part of a wider process of professionalisation of the army, resulting in an increase in the efficiency and readiness of the armed forces. After the victorious Franco-Prussian War

[14] Shek Brnardić, T. (2017). The Upbringing of Competent and Patriotic Officers: Military Education at the Theresian Military Academy in Wiener Neustadt (1752-1805). In *Povijesni prilozi*, issue 36 (53), pp. 109–132. Available from: https://doi.org/10.22586/pp.v53i2.28.

[15] Generally, on the topic Forman, S. (1950). *West Point: A History of the United States Military Academy*. New York: Columbia University Press.

[16] Through a sociological perspective see Larsson, S. (2024). The Military Academy as a Civilizing Institution: A Historical Sociology of the Academization of Officer Education in Sweden. In *Armed Forces & Society*, issue 00(0). Available from: https://doi.org/10.1177/0095327X241256127.

[17] More on Clausewitz's personality Fabian, F. (1957). *Clausewitz: sein Leben und Werk*. Berlin: Ministerium für nationale Verteidigung.

[18] Clausewitz, C. von. (2008). *O válce*. Praha: Academia.

[19] For reflections in comparison with another famous military theorist Antoine-Henri Jomini see Calhoun, M. T. (2011). CLAUSEWITZ AND JOMINI: Contrasting Intellectual Frameworks in Military Theory. In *Army History*, issue 80 (Summer), pp. 22–37.

[20] For a useful summary of Scharnhorst's reform efforts and life despite the necessary distance from the ideological ballast of the East German communist regime in the seventies see Usczeck, H. (1972). *Scharnhorst: Theoretiker – Reformer – Patriot. Sein Werk und seine Wirkung in seiner und für unsere Zeit*. Berlin: Militärverlag der DDR.

[21] Müller, H. M. – Vollrath, H. – Krieger, K.-F. (2004). *Dějiny Německa*. Praha: Nakladatelství Lidové noviny, pp. 135–136.

[22] Hall, D. I. (2002). The Modern Model of the Battlefield Tour and Staff Ride: Post-1815 Prussian and German Traditions. In *Connections*, issue 1(3 – September), pp. 93–102.

of 1866, Prussia was recognised as an important world power in land warfare.[23] Technological advances in the 19th century, such as the railroad, the telegraph, and modern firearms, required a new sets of skills. Military academies began to include technical and engineering disciplines, allowing officers to better understand and use new technologies.[24] The second half of the 19th century saw a further expansion of military education. New military schools and academies were established, focusing on specific areas of the various branches of armies, such as artillery, cavalry, infantry and navy. By 1870, after the Franco-Prussian War, it was clear that effective military education and training, as demonstrated by the efficient functioning of the Prussian General Staff during the war with France, was crucial to success on the battlefield. This was subsequently reflected in further reforms and improvements to the military education system in Europe and the world, inspired by Prussian and then German militarism.[25]

Military education and training in the 20th century went through several key phases that reflected dramatic changes in the way war was fought.[26] The First World War (1914-1918) was a conflict that required mass mobilisation and the deployment of new technologies such as tanks, aircraft and chemical weapons. As a result, it was essential that soldiers and officers were quickly trained in the use of these new means. Military academies and schools had to adapt their programs to these changes. There was an increased emphasis on teaching the logistics, organization, and coordination of major military operations. After the end of World War I, many military education programs were revised. Between the two world wars, education focused on improving tactics and strategy, but also on analyzing the mistakes of World War I.[27] During this period, new methods of training were developed, including simulations and exercises that allowed for realistic training of military operations. In Germany, the concept of „Blitzkrieg“ developed in the 1920s[28] (blitzkrieg warfare), which emphasized a rapid and coordinated attack using a combination of infantry, artillery, and aviation. This concept was supported by a new style of military education that emphasized flexibility, improvisational ability, and speed of decision-making.[29]

[23] Dupuy, R. E. – Dupuy, T. N. (1997) *Historie vojenství. Díl 2. Od roku 1700 do války v Perském zálivu. Harperova encyklopedie*, pp. 914–915.

[24] Nuciari, M. (2003). Military academies, cadets, and officer training. In J. Callaghan, F. Kernic (Eds.) *Armed Forces and International Security: Global Trends and Issues*. Münster: Verlag, pp. 288–289.

[25] Clark, Ch. M. (2008). *Prusko: vzestup a pád železného království*. Praha: Beta, pp. 457–458, 495–497.

[26] A summarizing monograph on the subject Watson, C. A. (2007). *Military education: A reference handbook*. New York: Bloomsbury Publishing USA.

[27] Vasquez, J. A. (2018). *Contagion and War: Lessons from the First World War*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[28] For a detailed analysis see Zetterling, N. (2017). *Blitzkrieg: From the ground up*. Havertown: Casemate Publishers.

[29] For details see Citino, R. M. (2007). *The Path to Blitzkrieg: Doctrine and Training in the German Army, 1920–39*. Mechanicsburg: Stackpole Books.

The Second World War (1939-1945) brought new challenges, especially in the area of coordination and technical skills. During the war, training had to be massively expanded to ensure that millions of new recruits were able to perform their tasks quickly and efficiently.[30] The Allies and Axis countries created specialized schools for training in specific skills, such as piloting aircraft, operating tanks, and working with radar systems. Military education became a critical element of the war effort. After World War II, military education increasingly focused on the complex analysis and management of modern warfare.[31] With the onset of the Cold War, officers needed to be prepared for the possibility of nuclear conflict, which required new knowledge of atomic physics, chemistry and biology. NATO introduced standardised training programmes for its members.[32] In the 1950s and 1960s, new forms of counterinsurgency and asymmetric warfare training were introduced, particularly in the context of conflicts such as the Vietnam War.[33] Military academies and institutions around the world have also begun to place greater emphasis on teaching international relations and geopolitics, which have been key to understanding global conflicts and strategies. This period also saw the development of cyber security and information technology training in response to the growing role of technology in modern warfare. The 1980s and 1990s also saw the development of other areas with respect to interventions during humanitarian interventions and peacekeeping in crisis areas of the world, which was reflected in military education. Armies had to prepare their soldiers not only for conventional combat but also for various forms of international missions that required additional skills or enhancement of existing ones, including leadership, diplomacy, language skills and cultural awareness of the region of deployment.[34]

Today, military education and training are complex and multifunctional. They include not only combat skills, but also leadership, management and technical knowledge. Modern technologies such as drones, cyber operations and the effects of artificial intelligence are part of training.[35] Military academies

[30] Millett, A. R. – Murray, W. (Eds.). (2010). *Military Effectiveness: Volume 3, The Second World War*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[31] Jordan, D. – Kiras, J. D. – Lonsdale, D. J. – Speller, I. – Tuck, C. – Walton, C. D. (2016). *Understanding modern warfare*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[32] On the topic see Kaplan, L. S. (1980). *A Community of Interests: NATO and the Military Assistance Program, 1948–1951*. Washington: Office of the Secretary of Defense – Historical Office.

[33] Tomes, R. R. (2006). *US Defence Strategy from Vietnam to Operation Iraqi Freedom: Military Innovation and the New American War of War, 1973–2003*. London: Routledge, pp. 58–95. Available from: https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203968413.

[34] Summary on the topic of leadership Wong, L. – Bliese, P. – McGurk, D. (2003). Military leadership: A context specific review. In *The Leadership Quarterly*, issue 14(6), pp. 657–692. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.08.001.

[35] Ciolponea, C. A. (2022). The Integration of Unmanned Aircraft System (UAS) in Current Combat Operations. In *Land Forces Academy Review*, issue 27(4), pp. 333–347. Available from: https://doi.org/10.2478/raft-2022-0042.

use simulations and virtual reality for realistic training.[36] Many countries are working together on joint training programmes. Training focuses on rapid adaptation to new threats and challenges posed by the changing global environment.[37] International cooperation in the field of military education is becoming increasingly important as it enables the sharing of knowledge and techniques between allies and partners around the world. The emphasis is on knowledge sharing.[38]

Current Competency Models

The importance of competencies and competency models can be disputed. If we reflect, for example, on the debate of authors such as Hollenback, Silzer and Belz, we can arrive at many arguments for and against competency modelling.[39] On the one hand, competencies can be perceived as distractions from achieving goals, creating the idea of the perfect person and causing mere following of lists without context, but on the other hand, they can very effectively serve as a kind of lamp that can shine a light on what needs attention and what is worthy of potential development. Especially if the context and individuality of situations are not forgotten. Two approaches can be used in the development of models, namely the "one size fits all" approach, which claims that the competency model is applicable without specification, or the personalised approach, which is typical for its emphasis on individuality.[40]

The importance of competencies is also reflected in the Czech Army. Attention is paid to them on many levels, in the field of scientific research, training and education of students. At the University of Defence, the implementation of current competence models in leadership courses serves as a practical example. This approach not only reflects modern educational trends but also allows for a structured application of theoretical frameworks into real-world teaching scenarios. Currently, there are a number of documents available

[36] Ahir, K. – Govani, K. – Gajera, R. – Shah, M. (2020). Application on virtual reality for enhanced education learning, military training and sports. In *Augmented Human Research*, issue 5 (7), pp. 1–9. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1007/s41133-019-0025-2.

[37] With a focus on cyber security Manulis, M. – Bridges, C. P. – Harrison, R. – Sekar, V.– Davis, A. (2021). Cyber security in new space: analysis of threats, key enabling technologies and challenges. *In International Journal of Information Security*, issue 20, pp. 287–311. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1007/s10207-020-00503-w.

[38] Kinne, B. J. (2020). The defense cooperation agreement dataset (DCAD). In *Journal of conflict resolution*, issue 64 (4), pp. 729–755. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1177/0022002719857796.

[39] Hollenbeck, G. P. – McCall, M. W. – Silzer, R. F. (2006). *Leadership competency models*. In *The Leadership Quarterly,* issue 17(4), pp. 398–413. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.04.003.

[40] Mansfield, R. S. (1996). *Building competency models: Approaches for HR professionals*. In *Human Resource Management*, issue 35(1), pp. 7–18. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-050X(199621)35:1<7::AID-HRM1>3.0.CO;2-2.

focusing on the specification of the necessary competencies of a military professional.

In the field of scientific research in the Army, significant attention has been paid in recent years to competencies and competency modelling. For the effective development of military personnel, it is essential to select appropriate approaches that will support systematic growth in key competency areas, and competency modelling is proving to be a vital tool, as it not only integrates different skills into a coherent framework, but above all clearly defines the required knowledge and skills expected of personnel. This approach allows for the precise identification of areas where training and development is required, which can ensure that military personnel achieve the required level of competencies appropriate to the specific requirements of the operational environment. In this way, it is then possible to create a structured basis for the long-term growth and adaptability of military forces.

Competencies in the Military Environment

Competency models and frameworks can cover many areas. Whether we are talking about combat skills, management competencies, leadership, communication skills, technical knowledge or others, core competencies can be identified for each of them. Competencies can vary widely, but in some cases there may be overlap. „*Although different sets of competencies predict success in different roles, there are certain consistent patterns as well*."[41] For example, competencies such as decision-making, teamwork and the ability to adapt to changing conditions are often universal in the military environment and independent of a specific role. These skills are crucial for military commanders on the battlefield, but also for managers in organisational settings, for example. Furthermore, competencies can evolve depending on context - what is important in one role may not be absolutely essential in another, yet many of these skills support and complement each other. Developing comprehensive competency models therefore requires both an understanding of the specifics of individual roles and the ability to identify commonalities across different domains.

Currently, a number of relevant competency models can be found across states and their military environments. The models are focused on diverse areas of this specific job performance. An example is the emotional intelligence competency model. The model is designed for military leaders, who are identified as having an increased emphasis on soft skills rather than technical and other hard skills

[41] Vazirani, N. (2010). *Review paper: Competencies and competency model–A brief overview of its development and application*. In *SIES Journal of management*, 7 (1), pp. 121-131, p. 122.

competencies.[42] The U.S. military environment has a number of documents that specify competencies. In the area of leadership, one can mention, for example, the handbook for military commanders dealing with character attributes and competencies. It is also important that, in relation to the identified competencies, appropriate opportunities for their development are provided.[43] Examples of competency models could be found in abundance.

Within the framework of the research plans and activities of the University of Defence, research has been carried out in recent years to identify the competencies of the commander-leader[44,45,46] and many of them also include comprehensive competency models. In 2017, a competency model was created, mentioning competencies such as decisiveness, responsibility, goal orientation, performance orientation, self-development, analytical skills, empathy, confidence, communication and creativity. These competencies were then developed into individual indicators that specify the necessary sub-skills.[47]

In 2017, a model of leader competencies was also developed that divides skills into three dimensions: hard skills (knowledge, professional and work system environment), soft skills (skills for cultivating relationships in a social environment) and subtle skills (competencies for cognition, decision-making and action). The individual dimensions are then specified by a list of specific competencies. In the area of soft skills it is possible to list social, communication and emotional competencies, empathy, cooperation, etc., while for hard skills it is listed e.g. knowledge of legislation, military and professional knowledge and skills, psychology, economics, management, etc. The subtle skills dimension is specified by competencies in the field of mental fitness, psycho-

[42] Taylor-Clark, T. M. (2015). *Emotional Intelligence Competencies and the Army Leadership Requirements Model: A thesis presented to the Faculty of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree.* Online. Fort Leavenworth, Kansas: University of South Alabama. Available from: https://apps.dtic.mil/sti/pdfs/ADA623911.pdf.

[43] FM 6-22. (2022). *Developing leaders*. Online. Washington, D.C.: Army Publishing Directorate. Available from: https://armypubs.army.mil/epubs/DR_pubs/DR_a/ARN36735-FM_6-22-000-WEB-1.pdf.

[44] Brichová, A. (2015). *Kompetence k vedení lidí jako nezbytná vlastnost velitele*. In: *Vojna ako antropologicko-historický fenomén v období globalizácie sveta*. Sládkovičovo, Slovenská republika: Vysoká škola Danubius.

[45] Binková, K. – Brichová, A. (2016). *Kompetence k vedení lidí a druhá kariéra*. In: *IV. Mezinárodní kolokvium Bezpečná společnost 2016.* České Budějovice: Vysoká škola evropských a regionálních studií, z.ú., Žižkova tř. 6, České Budějovice roku 2016, pp. 31–37.

[46] Mitáček, R. – Ptáček, B. – Kozáková, E. (2018). *Kompetence pracovníků v civilním a vojenském prostředí*. In: *Konference ICMEP - Kolokvium o řízení vzdělávacího procesu "Leadership - teorie a praxe*". Brno: Univerzita obrany, pp. 38–42.

[47] Macháčková, P. – Hodný, J. – Zezula, J. (2017). *Commander's Managerial Competences in the Czech Armed Forces*. In: *The 21st International Conference - The Knowledge-Based Organization.* Sibiu: "Nicolae Balcescu" Land Forces Academy Publishing House, pp. 189–194.

physical fitness, critical thinking, etc.[48] The authors define this element of the model as „*capabilities related to the natural potential of individuals creating one complex of a professional leader's qualities.*" The concept of subtle skills thus extends the conventional notion of soft and hard skills to include the pursuit of natural qualities for leadership.[49]

In 2019, efforts were made at the level of the University of Defence to „*introduce a unified approach to determining the competencies of military personnel in the Ministry of Defence of the Czech Republic*".[50] In the publication, the author describes, among other things, the current trends in the area of determining the competencies of the Ministry of Defence. As of 2019, a model of social competencies has been developed within the framework of the university's scientific research plans, which names 4 basic pillars, namely moral competencies, competencies for team leadership and development, communicative competencies and competencies for managing stress.[51] Currently, attention is being paid for example to competency models for system leadership, which focuses on understanding relationships and linkages, and the development of a competency model is proving to be important in this concept of leadership as well.

Some competencies can also be identified from long-term conceptual documents related to the functioning of the ACR and its future direction. One of them is, for example, the Doctrine of the Czech Republic from 2019, which indirectly specifies competencies and focuses more on more abstract capabilities. This document mentions, for example, the essence of the moral component and ethics, which play an essential role in leadership itself, as well as in cooperation in the human system. The same document then puts forward that „*military leadership is the art of making decisions, motivating and guiding to achieve goals*." Competencies in authenticity and social competencies can also be supported by the fact that „*successful leadership has several conditions, including loyalty, trust, and cooperation*."[52] It is also possible to mention the document Concept of Preparation of Personnel for the Needs of the Ministry of Defence from 2019, which, however, rather than individual competencies, describes the preparation of personnel and mentions the development of some

[48] Ullrich, D. (2017). *Kompetence velitele - leadera:* habilitační práce. Univerzita obrany.

[49] Ambrozová, E. – Ullrich, D. – Koleňák, D. – Sládek, P. – Zezula, J. – Milichovský, F. et al. (2021). *Sustainable mental mobility for professional leadership in security environment*. In *Ad Alta: Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*, issue 11(1), pp. 203-208. Available from: https://doi.org/10.33543/1101.

[50] Saibert, R. (2019). *The Approach to Defining the Competencies for Military Professionals in Command and Control in Military Operations*. In *Vojenské rozhledy*, issue 28 (1), pp. 30–47, p. 1. Available from: https://doi.org/10.3849/2336-2995.28.2019.01.030-047.

[51] Hodný, J. – Macháčková, P. – Mikulka, Z. – Nekvapilová, I. – Ďuriš, J. et al. (2019). *Sociální kompetence vojáka-leadera*: Průběžná zpráva projektu DZRO LEADER. Brno: Univerzita obrany.

[52] Abrhám, V. – Bosák, M. – Boučková, K. – Čechaček, P. – Dalecký, P. – Dubec, R. – Ďurina, M. et al. (2019). *Doktrína Armády České republiky*. 4. vydání. Praha: Ministerstvo obrany.

competency areas.[53] A complete analysis of strategic documents was carried out in 2019 and the research also included proposals and recommendations for the introduction of a unified approach to determining the competencies of military personnel in the Ministry of Defence of the Czech Republic.[54]
Within the Czech Republic, competencies can also be identified from the National Occupational System portal, whose mission is to provide an up-to-date and comprehensive overview of the requirements for qualifications and competencies for individual occupations in the Czech Republic. This portal divides competencies into several areas and then specifies specific competencies for these areas: professional skills (e.g. operation and maintenance of weapons, performance of tasks in military training, conducting combat with weapons, etc.), professional knowledge (e.g. first aid, internal regulations of the armed forces, military tactics and strategy, etc.), general skills (computer competency, language competency, etc.), and general skills (e.g.), digital competence (browsing, searching and filtering data, interacting via digital technologies, etc.) and soft competencies (competency to manage stress and strain, interpersonal competence, effective communication, people management, executive competency, problem-solving competency, planning and organising work).[55]

Training and Development of Military Professionals according to Competencies

The importance of competencies can also be seen in the field of education. Competencies according to the authors „*enable users to work in their job; they enable students to learn and achieve the curriculum goals.*“[56] It is for this reason that competency models play an important role in the field of training and development of people. „*The goal of competency-based education is to enable the learner to effectively manage situations and solve problems that will arise in the future. Learning objectives are then set in the form of situations and*

[53] *Koncepce přípravy personálu pro potřeby rezortu Ministerstva obrany* (2019). Ministerstvo obrany České republiky. Praha: Ministerstvo obrany. Available from: https://mocr.mo.gov.cz/assets/ministr-a-ministerstvo/kariera-vzdelavani/vojenske-skolstvi/priloha-bez-nazvu_-00003.pdf.

[54] Ambrozová, E. – Ullrich, D. – Koleňák, D. – Sládek, P. – Zezula, J. – Milichovský, F. et al. (2021). *Sustainable mental mobility for professional leadership in security environment*. In *Ad Alta: Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*, issue 11(1), pp. 203-208. Available from: https://doi.org/10.33543/1101.

[55] *Poručík ozbrojených sil ČR*. (2017). Národní soustava povolání. Online. Ministerstvo práce a sociálních věcí. Available from: https://www.nsp.cz/jednotka-prace/porucik-ozbrojenych-sil-c-e048.

[56] Koper, R. – Specht, M. (2007). *Ten-Competence: Life-Long Competence Development and Learning*. In M. Á. Sicilia (Ed.), *Competencies in Organizational E-Learning: Concepts and Tools* (pp. 234–252). IGI Global. Available from: https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-59904-343-2.ch011

tasks to be competently fulfilled, e.g. in accordance with the competency model of the organisation.“[57]

The Army of the Czech Republic focuses on 3 stages in the process of preparing students, namely education, upbringing and training. Education in the military is implemented in several forms within the Czech Armed Forces and there are a number of educational resources. The institution for education and development of military professionals is, among others, the University of Defence, within which the greatest emphasis is placed on the education of students at the bachelor's and master's degree level. This is the tactical level of command. Competencies at this level usually include „*the responsibility for the entrusted unit (team), the ability to manage subordinates, to be able to use formal power, conduct meetings, delegate tasks, build and protect the entrusted unit (team), motivate and promote its individual members, provide them with feedback and develop*.“[58] The military professionals can be further developed through basic training, vocational courses, career courses and language training. The University of Defence not only provides higher education, but also implements the aforementioned vocational training, specialised courses, etc.[59] „*The preparation of students of the University of Defence should be preparation of soldiers already fully equipped for positions within the army structure*.“[60] The training of professional soldiers is then aimed at achieving the appropriate level of qualification and meeting the specified qualification requirements.[61]

Correlation of Competency Models and the Process of Implementing the Education in the chosen Department of the University of Defence

The knowledge about leadership competencies, identified on the basis of the above-mentioned scientific research at the University of Defence, should naturally flow into the field of education and be directly reflected in teaching methodologies and contents. By communicating these areas, students may gain

[57] Ambrozová, E. – Ullrich, D. – Koleňák, D. – Sládek, P. – Zezula, J. – Milichovský, F. et al. (2021). *Sustainable mental mobility for professional leadership in security environment*. In *Ad Alta: Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*, issue 11(1), pp. 203-208. Available from: https://doi.org/10.33543/1101.

[58] Mikulka, Z. – Nekvapilová, I. – Pospíšil, R. (2017). *Competence to the Leadership and Its Concept in the Army of Czech Republic*. In *International conference KNOWLEDGE-BASED ORGANIZATION*, issue 23(1), pp. 205–212. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1515/kbo-2017-0033.

[59] Abrhám, V. – Bosák, M. – Boučková, K. – Čechaček, P. – Dalecký, P. – Dubec, R. – Ďurina, M. et al. (2019). *Doktrína Armády České republiky*. 4. vydání. Praha: Ministerstvo obrany.

[60] Brichová, A. (2017). *An Approach to Education of the Officers by Competencies*. In *Forum of Foreign Languages, Political Science, and International Relations*, issue 9 (1), pp. 38–45. Available from: https://www.vsdanubius.sk/files/257/sk/forum-1-2017.pdf#page=38.

[61] Kubínyi, Ľ. – Macháčková, P. – Saliger, R. (2020). *Vybrané kapitoly vzdělávání vojenských profesionálů*: studijní text. 1. vydání. Brno: Univerzita obrany.

the opportunity to better understand their own strengths and weaknesses, which may lead to a focus on targeted development in areas that require improvement. In addition, clear communication of essential topics based on competency requirements provides students with structure and direction for their personal growth and professional development, which enhances their readiness to deal effectively with real work situations.

The educational activities of the Department of Applied Social Sciences and Humanities (K-104) were chosen to analyze this interdependence. The department focuses on the development of competencies in applied psychology, ethics, social communication, and leadership. The selected department provides instruction in four courses spread over three years of military student study. The Leadership I course is taught in the first semester of the first year of study and focuses on a basic introduction to leadership issues. Students are presented with topics such as leadership theory, leadership in organizational culture, leadership in personnel education, and work and social adaptation in the military organization environment. The Leadership II course follows immediately in the 2nd semester of the 1st year and aims to impart information in the areas of ethics, morality and communication. Space is devoted to topics such as the ethical climate of the organization, the code of ethics, moral dilemmas and problems, moral failure, individual moral behavior, and the societal context of ethics. In the area of communication, topics such as social communication in the military organization, verbal and non-verbal communication, communication styles, written messages, rhetorical and presentation skills of the leader, conducting interviews and meetings, managing and controlling the quality of communication flows in the organizational unit, etc. are presented. In the 2nd year, the subject Leadership III is taught, which is dedicated to the areas of psychology, sociology, cognitive management and research. Students are introduced to topics such as motivation, self-motivation, leadership in the context of psychological and behavioural sciences, personal qualities, competencies and personal development. Cognitive management in the context and practice of the military professional is introduced. In addition, space is devoted to emotional intelligence and psychology in the practice of the military leader. A substantial part is also devoted to research issues and their implementation. A comprehensive military context is delivered in Year 3, where students are enrolled in the Military Leadership course. It is in this course that the emphasis is on introducing the competencies of the military leader. Topics such as moral competence in the military, ethical leadership, educational competencies, communication and rhetorical competence, motivation, and performance are also presented. Methods of identifying leader competencies and the topic of resilience are presented. The course extends to the 6th semester, where the emphasis is on prediagnosis of commander-leader competencies in individual students, the topic of competency development as a platoon leader, the development

of communication and moral competences, stress management, and also the development of resilience.

Conclusion

The history of education in the military environment shows how changing technologies and warfare strategies are reflected in the approach to training and educating soldiers. From ancient times to the present day, it has been continually transformed and deepened to meet the needs, trends and challenges of the times. This evolution reflects not only technological and strategic advances, but also an increasing emphasis on a comprehensive set of competencies that enable soldiers to function effectively in the challenging and unpredictable situations of the modern battlefield. Competency models are based, among other things, on historical experience, and their application today focuses on the targeted development of skills that are key to effective leadership and team cohesion. Learning and development in the armed forces thus draws on knowledge that has been progressively deepened from antiquity to the present day and links it to the current requirements and challenges facing military leaders.

The competency models used at the University of Defence are based on categories of skills and abilities that ensure effective leadership and functioning in the context of military missions and the military profession. Core competencies include technical skills, interpersonal skills, strategic thinking, and moral and ethical values. At the same time, they are designed to be compatible with global models of military education that reflect the specific demands on leaders in the armed forces.

In the process of implementing the education in the chosen department of the University of Defence, emphasis is placed on communication competencies, interpersonal competencies and teamwork, cognitive competencies and emotional intelligence and, last but not least, moral and ethical competencies. In the context of existing competency models, the selected department focuses its teaching on key areas of development that meet both historical and contemporary demands placed on soldiers and military leaders.

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