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# **Determinants of Military Adjustment and Attrition During Finnish Conscript Service**

Mikael Salo



**Department  
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**Determinants of Military Adjustment and  
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*“That when the sea was calm all boats alike  
Showed mastership in floating”*  
(Shakespeare, 1623/1966, p. 145);  
*“Only in a storm were they obliged to cope”*  
(White, 1974, p. 48).



## **ABSTRACT**

Adjustment to the military is determined by two main factors: the situational and organizational experiences of the new service member (the environment) and the member's characteristics and background (personal features). In the Finnish conscript service, an aggregate of diverse individuals is socialized into the military. Most of the conscript population adjusts to this process, but a portion of the conscripts fails to adjust and their service is terminated prematurely. The study looks at how well conscripts are expected to adjust to the military, how well they actually do adjust to basic training and later service, and how the adjustment changes over the service period. In addition, the research examines why some conscripts fail to fulfill their military obligation, resulting in military turnover (i.e. attrition).

The data were collected with Finnish-language questionnaires from 2,003 conscripts immediately after reporting for duty, at the end of basic training, and at the end of the conscript service. Information was obtained on a number of background variables, the trainees' attitudes towards various topics, and their experiences. Interviews were utilized to verify that the measures covered relevant aspects of the military adjustment process. The adjustment-related measures were refined by factor and Bayesian analyses and reliability tests.

The results show that numerous background variables are related to differences in adjustment perceptions and attitudes toward military experiences. Four main dimensions of adjustment were found: affective commitment, sociability, physical health, and perceptions about obedience and regimentation. Together they explained 50% of the variance of adjustment expectations at time 1, 58% of basic training adjustment at time 2, and 61% of later adjustment at time 3. In structural equation models, 56% of the later adjustment experiences were explained by the four dimensions. Most attrition (i.e. separation from service) occurred during the first two weeks, and most of the later attrition during the first 8 weeks of service. In all, 211 (10.5%) of the 2,003 conscripts were dropped from military service. A series of logistic regression and discriminant function analyses were carried out to explain the differences between the attrition group and those who completed their military service. Attrition was best predicted by the conscript's intent to stay or quit, education level and schooling experiences, expected adjustment, criminal background, physical health, the quality of civilian relationships, and attitudes towards military service.

Overall, the research extends previous research by considering a wider set of predictors over time, and allowing generalization of the findings about military adjustment through the use of a non-U.S. conscript sample. Alternative approaches, policy interventions, and adjustment-related considerations for instructors and service members are suggested.

Keywords:

Military, socialization, adjustment, attrition, turnover, commitment, sociability



## TIIVISTELMÄ

Varusmiehen sopeutumiskokemuksia ennustavat sekä tilanne- ja organisaatiokohtaiset kokemukset että henkilökohtaiset luonteenpiirteet, taustahistoria ja palvelusta edeltävät kokemukset. Varusmiespalveluksessa lähes koko miesten ikäluokka aluksi totutetaan toimimaan sotilasyhteisössä ja sosiaalistetaan joukon osaksi, minkä jälkeen varusmiehet koulutetaan yksilön toimintakyvyn ja joukon suorituskyvyn kehittämiseksi. Pääosa varusmiehistä sopeutuu tähän prosessiin, mutta pieni osa keskeyttää palveluksensa ennen aikaisesti pääosin juuri sopeutumisvaikeuksien takia. Tässä tutkimuksessa määritetään sopeutumisprosessin päätekijät sekä organisaation että yksilön osalta; tarkastelee sopeutumisen seurauksia; tutkii, mikä selittää sopeutumisen ennako-odotuksia, peruskoulutuskauden sopeutumista ja palvelusajan lopun sopeutumista sekä palveluksen keskeyttämistä; sekä määrittää varusmiespalveluksen keskeisimmät sopeutumistekijät.

Aineistona on 2003 varusmiehestä, jotka astuivat palvelukseen vuonna 2001. Sopeutumisen tunteja kyseltiin palvelukseen astumisen yhteydessä, peruskoulutuskauden lopulla sekä palveluksen lopulla. Kyselyt yhdistävät kotimaisessa ja kansainvälisessä kirjallisuudessa esitetyt mittarit monipuoliseksi kokonaisuudeksi. Lisäksi kyselyitä täydennettiin siviili- ja sotilaskirjoista kerätyillä taustatiedoilla ja varusmiespalveluksen onnistumista kuvaavilla tunnusluvuilla. Tutkimuksessa käytetyt muuttujat ja mittarit valittiin aikaisemman kirjallisuuden sekä täydentävien haastattelujen perusteella. Lisäksi mittarien luotettavuus arvioitiin faktorianalyysien, Bayesian muuttujamallien ja reliabiliteettitestien avulla.

Tulokset osoittavat, että lähes kaikki kerätyt taustamuuttujat olivat yhteydessä varusmiespalvelukseen sopeutumiseen, vaikka vain muutama henkilön luonnetta, kykyjä, sosiaalisia suhteita ja asenteita kuvannut muuttuja säilytti asemansa itsenäisenä selittäjänä monimuuttuja-analyseissä. Sen sijaan neljä tärkeintä sopeutumisen osa-alueita selittivät johdonmukaisesti yli puolet sopeutumiskokemuksista eri tarkasteluajankohtina. Nämä keskeiset komponentit ovat sitoutuminen varusmiespalvelukseen kohtaan, sopeutuminen sosiaalisiin suhteisiin, sopeutuminen fyysiseen rasitukseen sekä sopeutuminen käskyvaltasuhteisiin. Keskeyttämistä selitti parhaiten henkilön palveluksen keskeyttämispohdiskelu, koulutustaso, koulukokemukset, sopeutumisen ennako-odotukset, rikostausta, fyysinen kunto, seurustelusuhteen laatu sekä oma ja kavereiden asenne varusmiespalvelusta kohtaan. Tutkimuksessa tarkasteltiin sopeutumisen kokonaiskuvaa ongelmista menestykseen. Samalla siinä yhdistettiin kirjallisuuden yksittäiset tekijät toisiinsa ja testattiin niiden toimivuus suomalaisessa aineistossa. Lisäksi tutkimuksessa esiteltiin lukuisia teoreettisia ja käytännöllisiä suosituksia tulevaa varten.

Avainsanat:

Sotilaat, socialisaatio, sopeutuminen, palveluksen keskeyttäminen, sitoutuminen, sosiaalisuus





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As for the inspiration for this study, the thematic choice of this thesis heavily draws from my first work experiences as a trainer in the Armored Brigade and the studies I had carried out prior to graduation. Furthermore, the instrumental motivator of this project was Professor Jarmo Toiskallio who guided me to start my post-graduate studies in the Faculty of Education at the University of Tampere in 2000. He, moreover, remained an important mentor in this project over the years. In practical terms, the overall design for the study was drafted after my meeting with Professor Eero Ropo, who became my scientific supervisor. In addition, substantial guidance and expert advice for covering and verbalizing the relevant concepts in the existing previous studies stemmed from the meetings with Navy Captain (Med.), Doctor, Kai Parkkola and his colleague, Docent Markus Henriksson (Central Military Hospital). Their invaluable comments and critique were of use especially when taking into account the medical aspects of the adjustment process in question. The beginning stage of the research project was also supported by scientists of the Department of Behavioural Sciences of the Finnish National Defence University in Tuusula. In particular, Licentiate in Political Sciences Olli Harinen and Research Secretary Pirjo Horsma gave priceless advice for planning the research design and creating the questionnaires. Thus, I want to express my most sincere gratitude to these specialists who helped in forming a solid foundation for this project and worked with me throughout the process.

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Helsinki, September 14, 2008

Mikael Salo



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# 1 INTRODUCTION

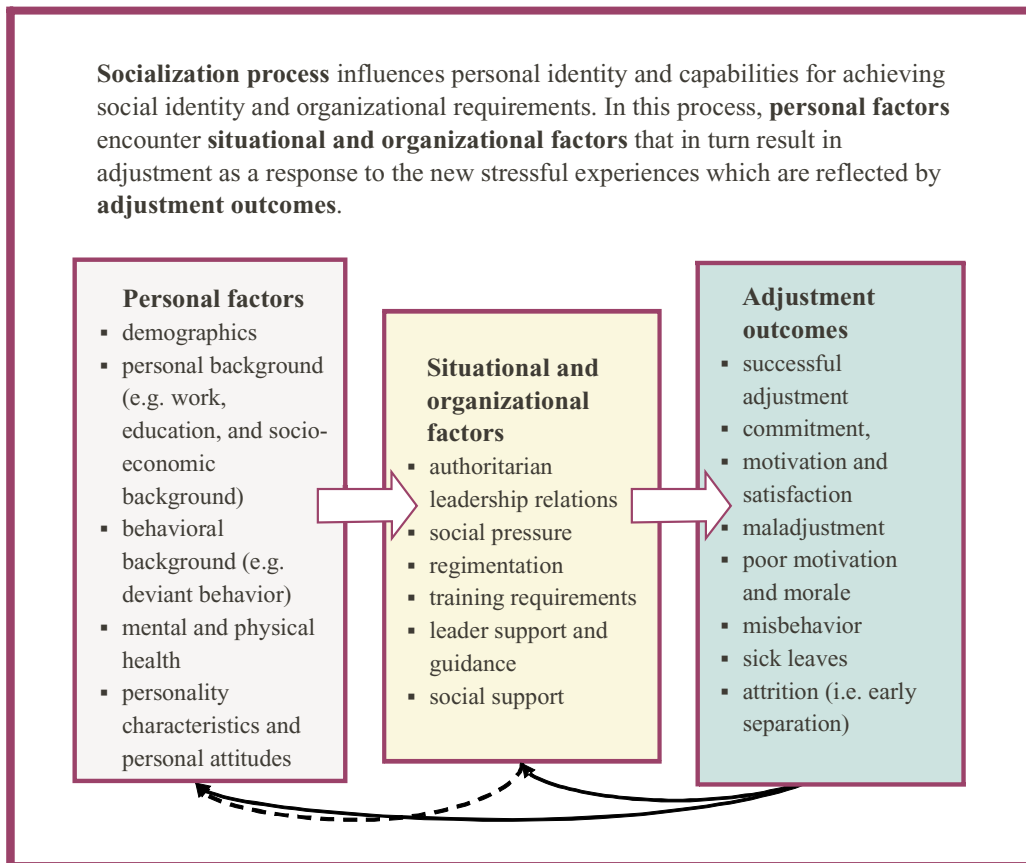
One of the challenges every modern military organization faces involves bringing together citizens of diverse identities, backgrounds, characteristics, geographical home locations, and motivations, and to help them to accustom themselves to the military during basic military skills training. Most new military service members adjust to this socialization process, but some have serious problems that jeopardize their well-being and training, and sometimes even lead to discontinuing or interrupting the conscript service.

This research looks at how easily a sample of recruits in the Finnish Defence Forces expected themselves to adjust to the military service and whether their expectations were related to their adjustment experiences. More specifically, the research was designed to determine the major variables that predict initial adjustment expectations and the extent to which those expectations are related to self-perceived adjustment at two later points in time, near the end of eight weeks of basic training and at the completion of the six-month military obligation. The research also describes reasons for maladjustment and particularly for discharge from service, and identifies variables that predict that turnover, with a special focus on the strongest predictors.

While a substantial number of previous studies focus on adjustment to military service, many of these are limited in the variety and extent of categories used to predict adjustment (i.e. the “predictor space”). Most of the research is based on English-speaking samples and many studies do not pay sufficient attention to the measurement of adjustment. Moreover, many studies are limited in the array of categories of the outcome variables they have considered (i.e. the “criterion space”). In attrition literature, most previous studies utilize only a subset of the categories of predictor variables (for research addressing a wide set of variables, see e.g. Booth-Kewley, Larson, & Ryan, 2002; Dovrat, 1995; Dawson, McGuire, Brooks, & Hebein, 1994a; HumRRO, 2004; Putka & Strickland, 2004; Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star, & Williams, 1949; Thompson & Gignac, 2001). The present research addresses the shortcomings of the existing literature by extending the research scope to a wider set of predictor variables together and over time. Further, the use of a non-volunteer force sample of service members allows for greater generalization of the findings in comparison to the bulk of prior research based on service members in other Western countries, for example, in Israel, Canada, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

The primary objective of this follow-up research is to increase the understanding of the causes and outcomes of military adjustment through which the coping and adjustment of service members to the Finnish conscript service is facilitated and maladjustment minimized. Therefore this research examines the adjustment issues encountered by new recruits entering the Finnish military service. Furthermore, this research aims at improving the capability to predict who is likely to complete the service and who is likely to opt out, and offers an insight into why either attrition (i.e. early separation) or positive adjustment may occur (Hosek, Antel, & Peterson, 1989, p. 390). Overall, factors affecting adjustment, such as the recruit’s background, perceptions about further adjustment, attitudes toward the military service, physical and mental health, and attitudes toward commands and restrictions are discussed along with service-related adjustment experiences and attitudes toward supervisors, peers, unit climate, training, and military service in general (Dovrat, 1995, p. 43).

More specifically, the following Figure 1 below describes the structure of the research and the main elements of the adjustment process in which military. The larger frame for adjustment is formed by the socialization process in which the military organization and culture affect service members and modify their personal identity and capabilities to satisfy organizational requirements and form and maintain an appropriate social identity. Basically, this kind of situation requires conscripts to cope and thus triggers the adjustment process. The foundation for the success in adjustment rests on personal factors, such as personality traits, background history, and current attitudinal, behavioral, and socio-economic characteristics. However, adjustment is determined on the basis of the extent the personal factors fit to the situational and organizational factors. The latter component of factors contains several issues, such as, for instance, military culture, unit atmosphere, training quality, leadership, and social support. Consequently, the above mentioned elements may either help or hinder adjustment, and, as a result, the combination of all these factors influences adjustment outcomes. Each person can be placed anywhere on the continuum of adjustment failure-success, and, as a matter of fact, this place slightly changes daily. Thus, a person is able to improve his or her adjustment to a situation in a particular environment or worsen the situation (or its appraisal) in a stage when the person either avoids the situation or altogether drops out from the organization.



*Figure 1.* A Conceptual Model for Studying the Military Adjustment Process

Thereby the main indicators of adjustment on this continuum are satisfaction with personal adjustment, commitment, social integration, motivation, maladjustment, misbehavior, poor motivation and morale, sick leaves, and attrition (i.e. early separation). Furthermore, since adjustment is a continuing process, also current adjustment outcomes affect personal factors (for example, attitudes, self-efficacy, knowledge, and skills) and situational and organizational factors (for example, how leaders and peers treat the person). Therefore, adjustment success or failure forms a feedback loop with the personal and organizational components in the model. As is evident in this Figure 1, the main components of this study are personal adjustment factors and situational and organizational adjustment factors with their given impacts, respectively.

This work extends previous research on adjustment and attrition by employing a comprehensive set of individual and situational predictors, by combining national and international theory and results on the field, and by forming an exhaustive view on the adjustment process, considering the whole range of adjustment outcomes (i.e. from maladjustment and attrition to successful adjustment and performance). Additionally, by keeping the focus on adjustment, this research sheds light on personal variables (such as mental and physical abilities, and working, educational, socio-economic and criminal background) and their relation to perceptions and behavior in the military – information that can be utilized by other researchers in the future.

The following chapter 2 describes the adjustment process, its phases and coping demands emphasizing the continuity of personal adjustment that takes place as a part of the socialization process. Chapter 3 reviews the details and the meaningful prior research findings about adjustment to a military organization and depicts organizational and situational stressors and facilitators of adjustment, whereas chapter 4 covers all the relevant personal factors that set a foundation for and sometimes determine the success of individuals' adjustment efforts. Chapter 5 outlines the most common adjustment criteria used in prior research discussing about both positive and negative adjustment outcomes. Chapter 6 describes the research questions, sample, questionnaire design, methodology and measures utilized in the research, and chapter 7 presents the problems and consequences encountered by conscripts attempting to adjust from the civilian to military life (i.e. the results of adjustment predictors and outcomes in three points of time and during the whole conscript service). Finally, chapter 8 discusses the main results and possible limitations of the research, suggests plausible further research questions and orientations, and proposes feasible recommendation for alleviating personal and organizational problems in the adjustment process.

## 2 SOCIALIZATION PROCESS, ADJUSTMENT AND COPING

### 2.1 Socialization Process

Basic training (BT) is a part of cultural and social learning (i.e. organizational socialization), covering the development of skills, values, and normative judgments about things that are appreciated as applicable and rewarding in the military (Van Maanen, 1983, pp. 5–6). Most adjustment in the military takes place during this *organizational socialization process* when a new member is taught and learns the value system, the desired and customary behaviors (i.e. the norms) and perspectives (Schein, 1980, p. 238; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 4) needed for participating as a member of the group or the organization. In this process, which is also referred to as “learning the ropes” (Schein, 1980, p. 237), the person “copes with psychological, physical, social, and moral demands in order to satisfy essential needs and reduce psychological tension” (Heyns, 1958, p. 5).

Moreland and Levine (1982, pp. 152–180; 1989, pp. 144–146; Moreland, Levine, & McMinn, 2001, p. 93) present five phases of *group socialization* (investigation, socialization, maintenance, resocialization, and remembrance) through which individuals move with four role transitions (entry, acceptance, divergence, and exit). Each distinct phase involves mutual evaluation and influence of the group and an individual: (1) investigation by a prospective member, (2) socialization of a newcomer, (3) maintenance of achieved full membership, (4) resocialization of a marginal member, and (5) remembrance of an ex-member (Hogg, 1992, p. 79). The most stressful socialization phases occur while a new member is socialized and a marginal member is resocialized (Moreland & Levine, 1989, p. 145). In both cases, other members try to incorporate and assimilate a person who is not yet or anymore fully integrated into the group (Bliese & Halverson, 1998, p. 564).

In the conscript military service, the socialization and adjustment process demonstrates all these five phases, although remobilization and remembrance take place almost simultaneously just before demobilization. Naturally, there are personal differences as to how a person prepares for service, is socialized into culture and unit, or is able to maintain his or her full membership. Figure 2 illustrates the main phases of the socialization process in the conscript service. The model is adapted from Moreland and Levine (1982, p. 153; 1989, p. 144) for describing socialization in the conscript military.

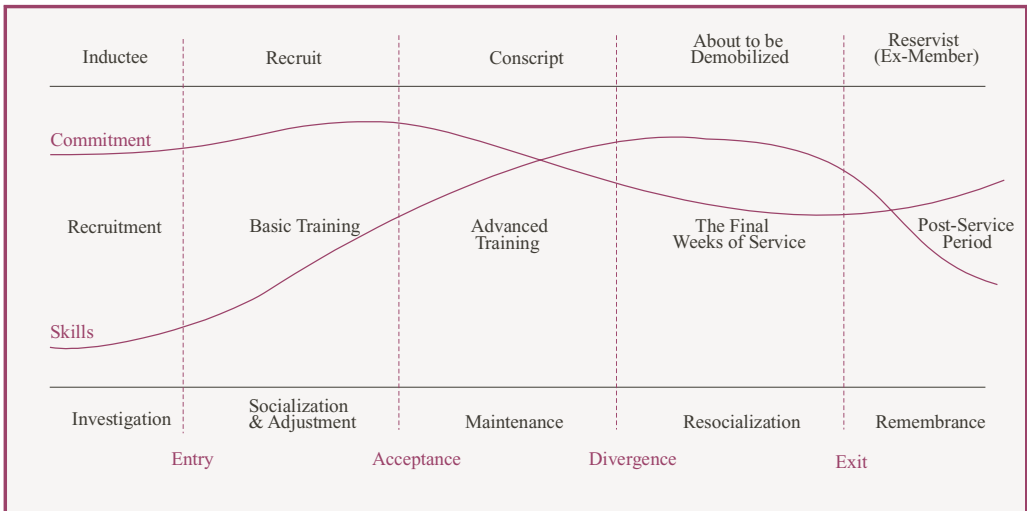


Figure 2. A Model of the Socialization Process in the Conscript Service

In the model, the lines of skills and commitment are drawn as examples how a person's abilities and orientation may fluctuate and develop during the socialization process. In general, the example applies to a person who completes his or her service. Naturally, the person who is discharged during the service demonstrates either lower (or inadequate) level of skills or commitment.

Before the entry, usually the person orients him- or herself to service by exercising, discussing with friends and family, seeking information, making plans, and organizing civilian obligations prior service. The encounter with the military (the entry) initiates the systematic integration of the person into the military and thereby starts the socialization process (from the organizational point of view) and the adjustment process (from the personal standpoint). The acceptance of the person takes place during the basic training period after which begins the maintenance phase of socialization which may last throughout the whole advanced training period. At the end of (relatively short) service, there may be programs to support commitment to national defense and ceremonies to indicate that the active service period has ended. Finally, this results in the new socialization process (or at least resocialization process) with the person returning to civilian life and facing new challenges.

### 2.1.1 Investigation / Anticipatory Socialization

Successful socialization begins prior to a conscript's entry into the military when the recruit typically gathers information and forms expectations and attitudes toward military service as a whole (Barrios-Choplin, Kominiak, & Thomas, 1999, p. 19; Nelson & Quick, 1997, p. 487). This phase has traditionally been called "anticipatory socialization" (Merton, 1957, p. 265) and later "investigation" (Moreland & Levine, 1982, p. 152). As a child, a person creates latent impressions about the military, and the values and expectations of potential recruits are influenced by the media, family, friends, and others with relevant military experiences (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 25). As the military service approaches, and



especially at the time of call-up, impressions and expectations about the military become more salient and are formed more actively.

During active investigation, a recruit explores information about the prospective group and organization, and the military engages in the recruitment, shares information and transmits booklets to prepare the prospective new members (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 93; Levine, Bogart, & Zdaniuk, 1996, pp. 535, 541). Using their knowledge and presumptions, prospective recruits plan and anticipate options and problems, insulate themselves against defeat, make commitments and obligations, and try various solutions to prepare themselves for the entry (Mechanic, 1974, pp. 38–39). Most likely, conscripts also discuss the upcoming military service and “try on” military roles with their parents, siblings, and peers (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 16; Perry, Griffith, & White, 1991, p. 115). In particular, future conscripts consider how well they will adjust to be away from their family, friends, and current environment, how well they will meet the probable physical demands of the military service, whether they will fit in socially, and whether they will adjust to the expected orders, regimentation, and personal deprivations (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, pp. 26, 40–41; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 147).

Prospective members, such as recruits, have often unrealistic or overly optimistic impressions about the military (Moreland & Levine, 1982, p. 161). The overwhelming majority of conscripts are most likely not fully prepared for the first days of basic training (BT) (Hayden, 2000, p. 5; Nelson & Quick, 1997, p. 487). Some potential conscripts also contemplate the benefits that are gained (or opportunities lost) and the experiences (positive or negative) that the military service offers. Based on these kinds of comparisons, concerns and expectations, future conscripts gain a certain degree of self-knowledge and convictions about their potential capabilities in the military organization and develop an attitude towards their conscript service. In addition, comparison of personal perceptions with others’ experiences allows them to arrive at expectations about how well they will adjust to the military, including its perceived values, norms, and required behavior.

### **2.1.2 Encounter Stage / Socialization Phase**

The entry to the service designates the end of the anticipatory stage (i.e. investigation) and the beginning of the encounter stage (i.e. socialization) (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 93). At that moment, the new environment, such as a military unit, begins the socialization process and introduces the recruits to the details and demands of military culture, such as the normative standards, tasks, roles, and habits of the military social system (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 16; Brown, 2000, pp. 31–32; Halonen, 2007, pp. 26–29, 153–156). In the process of “socialization” (Moreland & Levine, 1982, p. 163), the military takes the whole personality, attitudes, perspectives, and normative attachments as subject to modification (Faris, 1984, p. 256; Ward, 1999, p. 20) and provides an identity transition where a civilian is transferred closer to a soldier’s identity (Van Maanen, 1976, p. 101; Levine et al., 1996, p. 535).

In BT and the military socialization process the recruits’ perceptions, dispositions, goals, motives, behavior, and social relations are all under systematic influence of the military culture and leaders (Halonen, 2007, pp. 41–42; Hayden, 2000, p. 5). This process where

the personal identity is shaped towards social identity is potentially powerful, because every aspect of the recruit's life is included in the educational programs, and the person is totally integrated into the primary military group and its leaders (Salo, 2004, pp. 122–143). Thus, while the person's military, physical, and intellectual skills are developed, also transformation of the whole character and emotions are under a planned transformation (Hayden, 2000, p. 15).

In BT, several activities carry newcomers through new involvements and accomplishments that shape the recruits' orientations and self-images closer to the military goals and the social identity of the reference group (Hockey, 1986, p. 21; Stevens, Rosa, & Gardner, 1994, p. 481; Van Maanen, 1983, pp. 7–8). In this process, some cognitive processes may help in adjusting to stress and in maintaining well-being despite hardships: for example having realistic expectations about military service, the ability to find or create meaning in stressful events, the sense of feeling of being capable to handle the situation, and personal resilience (Thompson & Gignac, 2001, p. 2). Although some recruits have enough correct information and know what to expect, the first days in the military will expose everybody to some degree of stress as they go through the initial steps of unlearning familiar things and learning how to survive in a hierarchical, rule-governed, timetabled, and a physically, mentally and socially demanding environment (Hayden, 2000, p. 5).

Moreland and Levine (1982, pp. 139–140; Moreland et al., 2001, pp. 92–93) present a model of group socialization with three psychological processes: evaluation, commitment, and role transition. In terms of military socialization, *evaluation* refers to a process where a group assesses a recruit's ability to make a contribution achieving some group goals. Basically, this means normative evaluation by other group members of how the recruit fits in the group and its expectations about correct behavior and performance. Conversely, evaluation refers to the recruit's assessment about group practices, roles, norms and goals, and their rewardingness.

Throughout socialization, the group and the recruit try to change each other in a way that will make their relationship rewarding. The military organization persuades the recruit to conform, admit, and contribute to organizational goals, while the recruit expects that the group, its leaders and the organization devote effort for his or her satisfaction (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 93). Based on his or her personal resources, the recruit evaluates the value of the psychological contract in interaction with leaders, peers, and organizational demands and standards (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 19). In this evaluation, one of the main variables at stake is the congruence between the recruit's ability and values and the new demands and values of the BT environment (Hayden, 2000, p. 4; Nelson & Quick, 1997, p. 487). Successful socialization is accomplished if the recruit understands and adopts the organizational goals and values and behaves in harmony with the new membership (Moreland & Levine, 1982, p. 163; Payne & Huffman, 2005, p. 158). When the *commitment* levels of the recruit and the group exceed their respective acceptance criteria, full membership is achieved (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 93). Feldman (1976, p. 435) calls the whole phase accommodation, as the recruits accommodate themselves with new tasks, interpersonal relationships, roles, and expected progress in the organization.

In a well-organized socialization, the group members' social interaction works towards social identity and a collective understanding of the values, attitudes, and goals that are congruent with the military culture and the specific unit (Halonen, 2007, p. 155; Moreland & Levine, 1982, p. 164; Luthans, Davis, & Perrewé, 1982, p. 2; Ward, 1999, p. 20). Specifically, this is conducted in a process of role transition, where a recruit is expected to learn and adopt new role requirements (Fisher, Shaw, Woodman, & Mobley, 1983, p. 1). Graen and Scandura (1987, pp. 179–186) approach the socialization process from the point of view of dyadic relationships and identify the phases of the role-forming process, where the person becomes integrated with the group and the organization. These phases are (a) role taking, (b) role making, and (c) role routinization. In the role taking phase, the leader discovers the resources (i.e. abilities and dispositions) of the subordinate (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989, p. 547) and initiates a role (a request, demand, or assignment), whereas the new member is expected to accept the role by showing it in his or her behavior (Graen & Scandura, 1987, pp. 180–181). In role making, a recruit finds his or her place in the organization. Fundamentally, the transition and presentation of roles and the implementation of rewards and sanctions during socialization preserve the culture in the military (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 53), which, accordingly, protects from prominent changes in the structure and methods of BT.

In military training, the recruit acquires the knowledge and skills for social and task-related relationships in the military. Specifically, the recruit learns the nature of assigned tasks, the degree of his or her authority and autonomy, the amount of provided support, and the degree of shared information and exhibited concern and trust (Fisher, Shaw, & Woodman, 1985, p. 1; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989, p. 547). Similarly, the recruits discover what is required to belong to a group, which roles (or people) are more trusted, and what kind of privileges and duties are incorporated in the roles of the group (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 100). In dyadic relationships, the role routinizing involves trust, loyalty, liking, and support (Graen & Scandura, 1987, p. 184).

The socialization process does not always end successfully. Particularly, the socialization falls short if a recruit decides to drop out from the “treadmill”, or the organization expels the recruit from his or her group, and crucially failed if the person stays in the organization without accepting the social requirements of the group and never genuinely achieving a full membership. It is possible that the organization changes the recruit's attitudes and habits, but it is equally possible that at least some recruits are ready to join the military because of their pre-service orientation (Ward, 1999, p. 7). In the conscript system, it is normal that recruits are not fully prepared to accept experiences during the first days of BT (Hayden, 2000, p. 4) and perform in spite of their personal preferences (Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 66). However, the recruits have only limited influence on the military practices, and they are not able to change the situation. Therefore, the recruit's pre-existing personality characteristics and the existence of situational stressors and organizational support determine the quality of the adjustment process.

### **2.1.3 Maintenance, Resocialization, and Remembrance Phases of the Socialization Process**

The change and acquisition stage or the *maintenance* phase (Moreland & Levine, 1982, p. 167) starts after the recruits manage their new tasks well, perform correctly by rules and norms, successfully carry out their new roles, and are accepted as full members in the military (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 93; Nelson & Quick, 1997, pp. 487–488). This is signified with the soldier's oath and the specific graduation ceremony, as well as some symbolic privileges (e.g. berets) (Gal, 1986, p. 111; Hockey, 1986, p. 32). Furthermore, the oath ceremonies establish the conscripts' and their significant others' positive attitudes towards the military and the general commitment to national defense and the country (Gal, 1986, p. 112).

In the maintenance phase, the organization structure and demands are already familiar, and the conscript is ready for utilizing the learnt skills to achieve a better social position (Dawson, Sharon, Brooks, & McGuire, 1994b, p. 32; Williams, 1979, p. 168). At this stage, the conscript can develop skills which enable him to achieve some kind of social mastery and competence (op.cit. p. 30). Generally, the conscript is psychologically incorporated in the organization and more relaxed and confident than during the socialization phase (Hayden, 2000, p. 5). He or she has internalized the acceptable values and behavior and desires to be accepted and identified as a member of the organization (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, pp. 16–17, 20).

At some point of maintenance, a member's commitment to the particular organization wanes (Ward, 1999, p. 67). If the organization notices the change in the member's perceptions, it may try to *resocialize* the person to get him or her back in congruence with others. At this stage, the person has the opportunity to either accept old demands or change the group standards to satisfy his or her own needs better. However, the latter option is difficult to accomplish in a military organization. If the person and the group diverge from each other enough, the person becomes a marginal member of the group. Usually commitment levels continue falling until the exit criterion is approached and the person leaves the group, starting the last phase of socialization: remembrance. During the period of *remembrance*, the person and the group officially recall past good memories and achievements in traditional ceremonies while implicitly either one or both parties conclude that a new phase has started (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 94). For the individual, remembrance usually overlaps with his or her new investigation and socialization phases in a new group or organization.

## **2.2 Adjustment as a Response to Stressful Socialization Experiences**

In this research, the adaptation and adjustment notions are distinguished from each other, in the way that adjustment refers to a more active, anticipatory, psychological, intentional, and comprehended process, whereas adaptation is more routine-like, automatized, reactive, physiological, unintentional, and even unnoticed progression (cf. Lazarus, 1993, p. 28). Thus, adjustment includes the idea that a recruit is able to actively influence his or her socialization by preparing for conscript service (by exercising, seeking information, making plans, and organizing civilian obligations). The distinction between the notions of adjustment and

adaptation also means that success in one part of the process does not necessarily guarantee success in the other. For example, although the recruit tries to *adjust* to the prospective military membership by exercising, his or her body does not *adapt* as expected and there may be some problems in meeting the physical requirements, which hinders good adjustment. On the other hand, although a recruit would not like to *adjust* to military culture, his or her attitudes and perceptions may *adapt* under social exposure.

Despite the difference between the notions of adaptation and adjustment, they have been employed in previous studies in practically the same meaning, referring to a process where a person adjusts to the situation by coping with stress and functioning effectively enough under new requirements (Dovrat, 1995, p. 15). Adaptation was a more common notion before the 1980's, and adjustment has been mostly used recently. From now on, adjustment is utilized in this research as a general notion referring to the whole process of unconscious, unnoticed physical and mental adaptation and active, explicit personal adjustment to the situation, referring to a dynamic, evolving, and unending process where a person maintains a satisfying relation with his or her environment.

When adjusting, inductees try to maintain congruence with their new physical and social environment by fitting themselves into the situational requirements facing them, or by trying to turn the circumstances more favorable in terms of personal factors (Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 12–13, 93). With successful adjustment, people can manage the demands of the environmental change better (Anderson, 1974, p. 28), and minimize psychological tension and anxiety (Stouffer et al., 1949, p. 82), and they are better able to achieve a quality of life that equals personal needs (Thompson & Gignac, 2001, p. iii). In the adjustment process, the person never has “a total triumph over the environment or total surrender to it, but rather a striving toward an acceptable compromise” (White, 1974, p. 52).

Essentially, the need for adjustment is introduced by stress (Lazarus, 1993, p. 31; Pearlin, 1993, p. 305). Generally, stress occurs in situations where the environmental demands exceed personal resources (Dawson, et al., 1994b, p. 17), and there is an imbalance between perceived environmental demands and the person's perceived response capability (McGrath, 1970, p. 17). Therefore, stress can be defined as “the subjective feeling of anxiety in response to a stressor” (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, pp. 105–106).

Already Lazarus (1966, p. 25) introduced the idea that not only personal resources and environmental demands determine the stress level, but also the person's own perceptions about his or her resources and the demands are in play. In other words, stress is not due to an imbalance of objective demands and the person's ability to respond to them, but instead, due to the person's perception of an existing disparity. In this logic, an objective stressor is not significant if the person does not anticipate problems encountering it or if the existence of a (external) stressor is not recognized.

Stress leads to physiological (Sandal, Endresen, Vaernes, & Ursin, 1999, pp. 382–383) and affective/cognitive and behavioral reactions (House, 1981, p. 36), as well as to deterioration of performance (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 115). In general, a middle stress level is perceived as the most effective in performance, but for each task and set of individuals there is an optimal range of stress that is most favorable (Sawrey & Telford, 1971, pp. 403–404).

Thus, the relation between performance and stress is a complex one, since it depends on the type of performance and, on the other hand, different stressors have also different effects on the tasks (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 115). Actually, all stress is not harmful and there are even some benefits from stressful experiences. For example, stress makes people more humble and hardy, increases interaction in groups, and facilitates personal growth by “tempering arrogance” and increasing self-knowledge (Haan, 1993, p. 259). Some people even like stress in a way. For example, there are people who need to feel worse to experience self-blame before they are ready to pull themselves together and feel better (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 150).

The effect of stressors is moderated by personal resources and social support (Milgram & Hobfoll, 1986, pp. 323–325). Thus, personality and personal characteristics and the social resources mediate the effect of stress on psychological well-being (Sandal et al., 1999, p. 383; Vickers & Conway, 1983, p. 1), and coping with stressors demands these resources at a certain cost. Although personal characteristics and prior experience influence coping, the coping styles and consequences are not completely programmed by them. In other words, people are active players in the adjustment process. Therefore conscripts are able to select the way of using their resources or gaining more of them (e.g. investments in time or additional training) or affecting environmental circumstances in ways that reduce perceived and objective demands (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 688).

There are two classes of stressful experiences: eventful and repeated/continuous (Pearlin, 1993, p. 312). One example of a scheduled eventful experience is the start of BT. Both the recruits and the current members of the unit are aware of the event in advance. In this event, one of the most stressful experiences is the above mentioned role transition from a civilian to the new role as a service member, which refers to the transition of personal identity to social identity. However, a person can anticipate and prepare for the eventful experience and hence alleviate the perceived stress and facilitate his or her adjustment process. For instance, students who were prepared for entering university and experienced low levels of perceived stress showed good adjustment also six months later, whereas students with high levels of entry stress had also poorer levels of later adjustment (Pancer, Hunsberger, Pratt, & Alisat, 2000, pp. 49–52).

The source of stress could be external, situational strain or internal, personal demands (e.g. needs, goals, and expectations). In other words, both the environment and the person determine the extent of stress (e.g. Lazarus, 1966, p. 25). For example, Leskinen (2004, pp. 20–22) has modeled the process where a person tries to control internal and external demands through primary and secondary appraisals where he or she utilizes personal and/or situational resources for minimizing stress reactions. Prior research has particularly focused on the external stressors, suggesting that stress is experienced in situations where the person anticipates a bad event and undesirable news; takes actions in ambiguous conditions; thinks that he or she will be stressed; is under intense, objective stress; recalls a similar situation that was poorly solved; is already stressed by other matters; experiences repeated stress; is not able to diminish the stress; has no previous experiences of dealing with the situation; does not know his or her individual or environmental resources (e.g. social or leader support); or assesses available resources as inadequate (Dawson et al., 1994a, p. A–10; Haan, 1977, p. 165; Haan, 1993, p. 261).

Also external stressful experiences can be alleviated. For example, Orasanu and Backer (1996, pp. 105–106) outline strategies for reducing stress and summarize them in three different approaches. In the first type of stress programs, the stress reaction itself is in the focus and a person is taught ways of managing and lowering his or her stress reactions. The second method turns the focus on skills training, with the assumption that by enhancing generic and specific skills a person is more capable to perform in stressful events. The third method pays attention to environmental resources and especially to the effective use of team resources, such as leader and social support.

Overall, the impact of a stressful event depends more on the quality of the stressor than on its magnitude (Pearlin, 1993, p. 312). Although a new stressor itself may be insignificant, due to the net effect of stressors it can be “the straw which breaks the camel’s back” (Bourne, 1967, p. 190), and although an individual may be aware of the stressors, they can be only the tip of the iceberg since other stressors lie under the surface below the consciousness (cf. Pearlin, 1993, p. 305). The best methods for relieving stress are those that reduce uncertainty about and increase control over events (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 106), and, as a conclusion, an individual’s adequacy of adjustment is linked more to his or her means of coping with stress than with the actual extent of stress (Sawrey & Telford, 1971, p. 404).

## 2.3 Functions of Coping

Coping is defined “as constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). This definition includes assumptions that coping is more process- than stress-oriented and that coping belongs to difficult, psychologically stressful situations where personal resources are challenged (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986, p. 993). Thus, coping departs from adaptation where an individual automatically reacts to a demand which is under his or her control in a more common situation (Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 13–14; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, pp. 130–132, 141–142; Lazarus, Averill, & Opton, 1974, pp. 251, 268). In other words, coping is a dynamic, flexible, and effortful (Thompson & Gignac, 2001, p. 2) way of responding to a unique, unusual or unpredictable situation in which innate or learned adaptive capabilities are insufficient.

Since coping is a discrete rational response to unusually taxing circumstances (Costa, Somerfield, & McCrae, 1996, p. 45), it is identified with personal activities and styles of behavior (Gore, 1985, p. 264; House, 1981, pp. 19–21; Lazarus, 1966, pp. 313–318). Coping evolves through the person’s active selection of alternative processes and consequences, and thus, “people are active agents and may shape the outcomes of life stressors as well as be shaped by them” (Moos & Schaefer, 1993, p. 238). In terms of time frame, the main differences between the notions of adjustment and coping are that adjustment involves the whole process, whereas coping efforts are actual reactive, behavioral expressions in the process (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 15).

Coping arises in stressful, demanding situations that are highly relevant to a person’s welfare. Emphasized are: (a) the emotional context of the situation, (b) the ability to fail or succeed

in the stressful event, (c) the overlap of problem solving and coping, and (d) the uniqueness of the situation, which in turn limits the use of existing coping skills and thus requires the production of new actions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, pp. 141–142; Lazarus et al., 1974, p. 25; White, 1974, p. 74). The ability to cope is based on personal perceptions and resources, such as affective attributes, cognitive styles and skills, social skills and emotional abilities, and even more on how proficiently these resources are mobilized at the time of the present demands (Dawson et al., 1994a, pp. 2, A–8, A–14; Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 1, 33–34, 56; Moos & Schaefer, 1993, p. 238). The resources are in interaction with situational factors that together set constraints and also alternatives to each coping effort (Gore, 1985, p. 267; Lazarus et al., 1974, p. 292; Moos & Schaefer, 1993, pp. 236–237).

Previous experiences and events influence the current coping resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, and motivation/orientation) and how they are drawn into action (Farley & Veitch, 2003, p. 357; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 158). For example, Hamburg, Coelho, and Adams (1974, p. 410) have noted that people use coping mechanisms that have previously worked, although they may be totally unsuitable in the new conditions. The person–environment fit in the adjustment process reflects the extent to which these previous experiences and resources are congruent with the properties of one’s environment (French, Rodgers, & Cobb, 1974, p. 316; Mechanic, 1974, p. 32). In military service, and especially during BT, stress is experienced because the characteristics of the new milieu considerably depart from anything that was experienced before in civilian life (Bourne, 1967, p. 190). On the other hand, resources which match with environmental demands will aid stress resistance and lighten the burden during the first days of adjustment (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 696). Hence, the fit of personal resources, the social structure, and environmental demands establish a basis for the success or failure of particular coping strategies. However, personal resources are not limited to previous abilities and experiences; they are related to one’s social environment. Particularly people with friends and social skills are not alone with stressors, as they have an opportunity and ability for activation and utilization of social support (op.cit. p. 690).

Although the personal coping capacity is partly predetermined, an individual still has an ability to learn from new experiences in the military. Thus, the individual can learn and adopt new coping resources that are useful in stressful situations (Gore, 1985, p. 271). Motivated to find general coping skills that can be learned to alleviate future adjustment processes in the military, Dawson et al. (1994a, p. A–15) list the following skills: reading, writing, speaking, listening, computation, psychomotor, problem solving, decision making, creative, and interpersonal skills. In addition to these skills, they claim that affective attributes, such as values, attitudes, motivation, interests, and emotions, are also involved in successful adjustment and coping.

Coping and its changes are a function of continuous appraisals about person–environment relationship (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 142; Moos & Schaefer, 1993, p. 238). Appraisals about appropriate coping strategies are made upon the situation, belief systems, cognitive styles, and previous experiences (Lazarus et al., 1974, p. 260). Appraisal is either outward-directed to find a response solution in a stressful event or inward-oriented to change the meaning of the event or increase the understanding of it. Inward appraisal that correctly or falsely changes the meaning of a situation is called cognitive reappraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, pp. 142, 151). In general, an individual’s appraisal of a stressful situation is



crucial for the adjustment process, as according to it, a particular coping strategy is selected, which, consequently, determines the success of the coping efforts (Lazarus et al., 1974, p. 25; White, 1974, p. 74).

The appraisal process contains primary appraisal dealing with the motivational aspects of the encountered stressful situation, and secondary appraisal about options for coping and expectations about the consequences of the coping and situation (Lazarus, 1993, pp. 27–28). In primary appraisal, the person assesses “whether he or she has anything at stake in this encounter” (Folkman et al., 1986, p. 993). In other words, the person appraises the significance of an event (Gruen, 1993, p. 555; Lazarus, 1966, p. 44). Specifically, the person evaluates (a) goal relevance, (b) goal congruence (whether the encounter is harmful or beneficial to the goal), and (c) the type of ego-involvement. The latter refers to personal goals and commitment or, more specifically, to six facets of ego-identity consisting of self- and social esteem, moral values, ego-ideals, meaning and ideas, well-being, and life goals (Lazarus, 1993, p. 27). Shalit (1982, pp. 7–9) offers the term “orientation appraisal” to describe the primary appraisal stage, where an individual seeks information and forms an orientation towards stressful events (cf. the investigation phase in the socialization process). Briefly, in primary appraisal, an individual diagnoses the situation and discerns if it is threatening and requires responses.

In secondary appraisal, the individual processes the options for coping and expectations about the consequences by assessing (a) blame and credit (whether the actions are not executed, the coping is effortless, or the coping works), (b) coping potential (whether and in what way the situation can be managed), and (c) future expectations about possible changes in the stressful environment after coping has taken place (Lazarus 1993, p. 28). In this stage of appraisal, if an individual has uncertain or inadequate understanding of causal relations in the social world (e.g. the relation of a coping action and its consequences), he or she may have problems in secondary appraisal as well as in the adjustment process (cf. the causal-uncertainty model in Weary & Edwards, 1996, pp. 153–159). Overall, during secondary appraisal, the individual evaluates the available coping responses and their possible outcomes (Folkman et al., 1986, p. 993). Reappraisal denotes to an assessment of the completed coping behavior and its outcomes. At the same time it refers to a change in the original perception (Shalit, 1982, p. 5).

In the military, also situational factors, such as the expected outcomes of behavior and leaders’ expected reactions, have an effect on how the person decides to cope with and adjust to a situation (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 30; Shaw, Fisher, & Woodman, 1983, p. 40). One of these situational aspects is social support in the group. So, for making an appraisal, an individual may utilize his or her perception about available social support (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 686; Pierce, Sarason, & Sarason, 1990, p. 186). Specifically, appraisals of support are “subjective, evaluative assessments of a person’s supportive relationships and the supportive behavior that occurs within them” (Vaux, 1988, p. 29). In terms of social support, the appraisal is affected by (a) the intrapersonal context (that is the person’s “stable, unique patterns of perceiving social relationships”), (b) the interpersonal context (i.e. the quantity and quality of interpersonal relationships), and (c) the situational context, where relationships take place (Pierce et al., 1990, p. 173). Thus, personal, social, and environmental

factors determine the effect of social support (Hobfoll, Freedy, Lane, & Geller, 1990, p. 471). Logically, these assessments influence the resultant coping behavior.

A coping style has its function (i.e. the purpose why a particular coping style is employed) and some outcomes (i.e. the effects of coping) (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 149). Coping functions are for instance (a) securing adequate information about the environment, (b) maintaining satisfactory internal conditions (ensuring cognitive and behavioral actions), and (c) keeping up some degree of autonomy (i.e. freedom of action) (White, 1974, pp. 55, 58). On the other hand, Mechanic (1974, p. 33) explains that coping creates motivation to meet social and environmental demands, to deal with those demands, and to maintain “a state of psychological equilibrium in order to direct energy and skills toward external demands.” As noted above, for Lazarus and Folkman (1984) coping has only two general functions, which are either problem or emotion-focused (op.cit. p. 150). Simply, coping focuses on managing the situational demands that cause the problem or it directs efforts at regulating emotional responses to the situational demands (Lazarus, 1993, p. 35).

Individual skills, aptitude, values, and goals influence the coping style, which is selected for a certain situation (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 26; Lazarus, 1993, p. 27). However, people are not affected in the same manner under (objectively) equivalent stressors (Pearlin, 1993, p. 304). Thus although people’s daily life roles might look similar, the coping efforts can be totally different, due to the diverse human resources and personal appraisals. Dekel, Solomon, Ginzburg, and Neria (2003, p. 127) conclude that the impact of a stressor depends less on its objective severity than on the individual appraisal of the severity and one’s resources to cope with the stressor. For example, subjective appraisals of one’s capacity to cope with the demands of the military environment differ among conscripts having the same level of aptitude or coping skills (Thompson & Gignac, 2001, pp. iv, 14), which, in turn, causes different coping strategies and results.

## **2.4 Problem-Focused versus Emotion-Focused Coping Strategies**

An individual develops an idiosyncratic repertoire of coping strategies as responses to physical, social, and other situational demands (Sawrey & Telford, 1971, p. 18). Like appraisals, also coping actions are classified into problem-focused and emotion-focused strategies (Folkman, et al., 1986, p. 993). A person copes by actively changing the person-environment relationship through direct actions or through changing his or her own part in the relationship (i.e. problem-focused) or, in a more passive way, making internal accommodation (e.g. shaping emotions and making reappraisals), which produces subjective change instead of actual change in the person-environment relationship (Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 24, 26; Lazarus, 1993, p. 35). Both types of strategies are targeted toward particular stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 142), and the degree to which an actual strategy is adaptive depends on the situation (Sandal et al., 1999, p. 383).

Active problem-focused efforts are launched especially when the situation is highly relevant to a person’s welfare; the person is motivated to succeed in this event, and has the required

coping resources (and support) for unraveling the situation (Dawson et al., 1994a, p. A–8). Coping is displayed in active efforts, such as meeting demands, utilizing opportunities, or more defensive efforts on reducing anxiety and stress, and successful coping requires a balance of those elements (emotion-focused stress reduction and problem-focused actions) (Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 15, 19, 21). In problem-focused coping, particular strategies are targeted towards a specific stressor in order to overcome encountered difficulties and reduce experienced stress (Gore, 1985, p. 267; Haan, 1993, pp. 259–260).

Although problem-focused coping strategies are superior to emotion-focused ones in supporting a successful adjustment process (Sandal et al., 1999, p. 401), they do not always lead to a rewarding solution, because sometimes there is no reasonable solution to the problem (Haan, 1993, p. 260). For instance, in an unchangeable situation where an individual has no locus of control and he or she is exposed to inescapable stressors, problem-focused coping strategies are not optimal (Sandal et al., 1999, p. 383). In this type of a stressful event, an emotion-focused coping strategy may be more successful for alleviating the experienced stress.

Emotions are defined as “organized psycho-physiological reactions to information and knowledge” which have a significant value for personal well-being (Lazarus, 1993, p. 25). Emotions are characterized by active psychological involvement, and they differ from routine or even passive adaptation. Therefore emotions have an independent effect on coping and the adjustment process (op.cit. pp. 28, 35). Emotion-focused coping occurs when an individual assesses stressful conditions as unchangeable (Folkman et al., 1986, p. 1000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 150). Particularly, emotion-focused coping strategies concentrate on evaluation about the value and significance of the stressful event. Thus, appraisal is the center in emotion-focused coping. By changing appraisal, a person can also change the emotional distress, and, conversely, for changing an emotion, the appraisal should be first reviewed. Lazarus’s (1993, pp. 21–23) interpretation of the association between stress and emotions leads him to a suggestion that stress, which involves negative emotions, is a subset of a conceptual whole including both positive and negative emotions. Indeed, stressors cause emotional states; faced stressful conditions combined with individual commitments, beliefs, and goals lead to an appraisal, utilization of coping strategies, and some coping results, all of which are in relation with emotions.

Emotion-focused coping strategies may be functional or dysfunctional (e.g. self-deceptive). More functional emotion-focused strategies include for instance seeking emotional social support for gaining trust, acceptance and sympathy, making a positive reinterpretation, and finding positive aspects from a negative event, or venting emotions on friends (Farley & Veitch, 2003, p. 357; House, 1981, pp. 19, 23). Emotional distress can be reduced also by more dysfunctional coping strategies, such as avoidance, minimization, distancing, or selective attention (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, pp. 150–151).

Defenses are coping strategies that are employed in intense adjustment processes (White, 1974, p. 64). Defenses refer to “unconscious psychological functions people need for mastering emotional distress and anxiety” (Tuulio-Henriksson, Poikolainen, Aalto-Setälä, Marttunen, & Lönnqvist, 2000, p. 417). The main functions of defensive behavior are to facilitate the coping process and performance (Haan, 1977, p. 163; Mechanic, 1974, p. 33),

to protect an individual from intolerable levels of stress and, in that way, prevent more serious maladjustment reactions (Sawrey & Telford, 1971, pp. 36–37). Typical defensive styles are: (a) maladaptive action styles (e.g. withdrawal/early separation), (b) styles reflecting image distortion (e.g. primitive idealization), (c) styles related to self-sacrifice, and (d) adaptive defenses, such as humor and suppression (Moos & Schaefer, 1993, p. 241). Defensive coping styles have a direct relation to personal well-being. For example, an immature defensive style in late adolescence has been indicated to predict psychological disturbance among young adults in Finland (Tuulio-Henriksson, Poikolainen, Aalto-Setälä, & Lönnqvist, 1997, p. 1152).

Many of above mentioned emotion-focused strategies are derived from defensive processes whose long term results may be disappointing. Using defensive strategies without solving the situation may bring even more problems and stressful events (e.g. punitive actions or even removal from the group or organization) (Dawson et al., 1994a, p. A–13). Normally, the situation determines whether a (emotion-focused) coping strategy is functional or not. Mechanic (1974, p. 33) illustrates the discrepancy in a strategy and a situation by saying that “denial – a persistent and powerful psychological response – will do a drowning man no good!”

## **2.5 Summary of the Socialization and Adjustment Process**

This chapter has reviewed the previous research on socialization, adjustment and coping, defined the main notions, and examined the adjustment process that involves personal resources (e.g. skills, knowledge, and motivation) and environmental demands (i.e. particular stressful events and situational characteristics). As discussed in the chapter, organizational socialization is a theory about how an individual is integrated into a new social setting and its goals and actions (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 3), and “how new skills, belief systems, patterns of action and, occasionally, personal identities are acquired” by new group members (Van Maanen, 1983, p. 2). The main demands for adjustment take place right after the entry of the recruits, which also starts the active adjustment process. Adjustment refers to how well (or if) a person concretely meets unique situational demands not managed reflexively by resources that are suited to other more common situations (Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 13–14). The adjustment process fluctuates constantly; new coping and adjustment resources are learnt and assimilated during the adjustment process when individuals confront new behavioral, social, and performance requirements in a group. With fully effective socialization, each stage contributes to the next and provides the recruit with skills and tools for coping and adjusting at present and in future situational needs (Nelson & Quick, 1997, p. 487).

Coping denotes to particular, situation-related “efforts to manage demands that tax or exceed” an individual’s resources (Lazarus, 1993, p. 34). It was also discerned that coping is not only determined by personal skills and attributes, but also a particular situation has a crucial effect on the selection and utilization of coping strategies and achieved adjustment outcomes. Hence, adjustment is more accurately explained by situational variables than for instance using only background information. The conceptualization of Holahan, Moos, and Schaefer (1996) comprises both elements of adjustment predictors. In the model, “both

enduring *personal and* more changeable *situational factors* shape coping efforts” (op.cit. p. 26). For example in the military, situational factors include cultural, organizational and social characteristics, specific demands and tasks, and prescribed means to meet these factors (Dawson et al., 1994a, p. A–8), whereas personal factors refer to personality characteristics, background experiences and circumstances, mental and physical health, and personal attitudes and perceptions of recruits (e.g. HumRRO, 2004, p. 150; Laurence & Waters, 1993, p. 53).

While this chapter has provided a broad, general view about socialization, adjustment, and coping, particular situational and organizational factors of conscript service that demand coping and adjustment of recruits were not discussed. The next chapter goes further by examining military-specific environmental aspects and situations that a service member has to cope with, and by considering social relations and organizational characteristics that make the life in the military bearable.

### **3 SITUATIONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL ADJUSTMENT FACTORS IN THE MILITARY**

Adjustment and coping efforts are associated with certain environmental demands that create the need for adjustment in the first place. Therefore, the adjustment process cannot be understood without discovering the characteristics of situational factors. This chapter describes the particular characteristics of the conscript service environment that are different from civilian life, and therefore cause stress. The main organizational factors that affect the adjustment process are explored and discussed. The situational and organizational factors are divided to two main dimensions that affect the conscripts' adjustment. The first one represents the organizational level, which encompasses all elements that fall hierarchically between manpower policy and the individual conscript. These kind of organizational factors cover training, official rules, routines, processes, personnel policy, and issues that come into play in the hierarchy above the individual conscript level (Siebold, 1981, p. 4). The second dimension is the interpersonal level, which refers to the rules, norms, roles, and actual behavior among group members in conscript service, consisting of two main social actors: peer and leaders.

#### **3.1 A Total Institution – a Totally Different Kind of Place to Live in**

The characteristics of the military institution create an environment which is not normal for most people (Anderson, 1974, p. 20; Harris, White, Eshwar, & Mottern, 2005, p. 2; Johansson, 2004, p. 16), and after the first experiences it may seem as a strange, unfamiliar place with unknown people and demanding leaders (Bourne, 1967, p. 188). Induction to the Army is definitely a stressful and difficult situation: previous adjustment patterns do not work and active coping efforts are required more than ever (Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 16–17, 86). The recruit has to live against his or her own will in a controlled, authoritarian environment where the mores are contrary to personal beliefs (Mechanic, 1974, p. 35). A clash with the military is evident and a recruit's resources, potentials, and limits are put under a rigid test from the beginning of the organizational socialization process.

In the military, a recruit is converted and assimilated to a military organization whose nature and primary functions are constructed around combat activities and committed to violence (Hockey, 1986, p. 2; Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 78). Therefore, masculine warrior ethos and conservative, moralistic ideology prevail and battle-effective characteristics are glorified (Dunivin, 1994, pp. 533–534). From this perspective, the military could offer a young man an opportunity to prove his masculinity, and those who are inclined to do so may adjust more easily (op.cit. p. 536; Hockey, 1986, p. 112). On the other hand, the military situation is more problematic for women than men due to the masculine culture that rejects or ignores female participants as full members of the fighting group, and therefore, in the nature of masculine warrior ethos, women are easily underdogs, which makes their adjustment process to the military even more demanding (Rosen, Knudson, & Fancher, 2003, pp. 342–343).

In more theoretical terms and drawing from Van Maanen and Schein's (1977, p. 37) typology of socialization tactics (i.e. formal – informal; collective – individual; sequential – random; fixed – variable; serial – disjunctive; investiture – divestiture), the military institution forms a large frame for social and organizational experiences in the service, and the nature of military socialization tactics determines the whole range of situational stressors, and influences the outcomes of the socialization process. Specifically, the organizational socialization in the military could be characterized as formal, collective, sequential, fixed, serial, and divestiture methods (Hayden, 2000, p. 7; Ward, 1999, p. 70). The combination of these features distinguishes the military from most civilian organizations, which is the reason why they are introduced next in more detail.

In a *formal* course of action the recruits are segregated from other organizational members, indoctrinated into cultural expectations with highly structured programs, and located at the very bottom of the status ladder (Hockey, 1986, p. 24; Levine et al., 1996, p. 540; Smith, Wilson, & Salter, 1955, p. 1). *Collective* refers to the method of putting recruits to face a common set of socialization experiences together (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 38). Particularly in the military, the whole existence of recruits is a collective one (Hockey, 1986, pp. 24, 28, 65, 115): they are handled as collective bunches of people and treated exactly the same way by providing equal experiences and requiring identical responses. The collective approach is so implicit and deeply routed that sometimes even shrewd instructors deal with a mass of recruits “as though they were less than fully functioning persons” (Zurcher, Patton, & Jacobsen, 1979, p. 84). On the other hand, collective methods enable the recruits to form relationships with peers and leaders and integrate themselves into the new primary group and the basic roles of the military community (Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 3–4).

*Sequential* refers to discrete and identifiable steps that are used for carrying outsiders to a full membership of a unit (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 51; Ward, 1999, p. 27). The reason for the organized sequential phases and actions is their utility in making the socialization process more predictable and easy to comprehend (Janowitz & Little, 1974, pp. 69–70). *Fixed* tactics include specific timetables and goals for learning new rules and norms (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 55). Time and space are chopped to small, clear units for speeding up learning and supporting instructors' supervision. Recruits find that their full daily existence is determined and controlled by an authority (Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 43), and the recruit's life is organized by the institution both overtly and covertly (Hollingshead, 1946, p. 442). *Serial* refers to the transfer of organizational culture and tradition from an older organizational representative (i.e. an old member or a leader) who transmits culture by role modeling and conducting training (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 59; Ward, 1999, pp. 28–29). For example, the squad and platoon leaders' duty is to serve as the main facilitator of the socialization process in the military.

*Divestiture* tactics denote the military organization's way of ignoring and disregarding people's previous characteristics, and the organization's attempts at remaking or changing recruits' personal identities (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 64). In practice, divestiture signifies that the recruit is under a persistent identity reconstruction program where organizational practices are utilized to brush away or weaken previous identities and instill new roles and norms (Hayden, 2000, p. 7). In social action in the military, a new identity edition is tried to be published by creating social identity that obscures the personal identity.

From the viewpoint of the *self-categorization theory* (Turner, 1985) and the *social identity theory* (Hogg, 1992), and related to the above mentioned collective tactics, the military organization creates a sense of social identity that exceeds a recruit's previous ones, in order to get the person categorize him- or herself as a soldier more than for instance as a student or an employee. Actually, the whole emphasis is put on social identity change in hope that it will affect the personal identity as well. As mentioned by Moreland et al. (2001, p. 95) "a sense of personal identity develops when people categorize themselves as unique individuals within a group"; this is opposite to what is demonstrated to happen in the organizational socialization process in a military unit, since the organization openly points out how the individual is not important as him- or herself but as a part of a group (Salo, 2004, p. 164). In conscription, individualism yields to collective actions and, consequently, there are no individuals with personal choices, alternatives or decisions. A recruit is just a body with the last name defined by the barrack room or group he or she belongs to (Anderson, 1974, p. 40). A recruit's self-determination is diminished to the lowest, so he or she has practically no freedom for other choices than adjustment or escape from the situation. The sense of individuality is diminished to the minimum and previous personal identifying is tried to be replaced with institutional equivalence (Hockey, 1986, p. 23). Literally, nobody is allowed to stand out from the band of brothers (Bourne, 1967, pp. 191, 195; Ward, 1999, p. 29).

Before entering the details of situational and organizational adjustment factors, one extensive aspect which sets the tone for the whole military adjustment process is worthy of a short discussion. This "aspect" refers to the society, traditions, historical circumstances and present cultural climate that build the foundation for general attitudes against or towards conscription (Anderson, 1974, p. 32) and form a societal background for the situational factors in the military. During the last decades, there has been a notable societal process from modernism to postmodernism and beyond, and although the military organization has maintained its customs and autonomy apart from other educational institutions, this process has left its marks in the military.

The most well-known theoretical discussion about the transformation of the military was launched by Moskos (1977) when he argued that the military is losing some of its institutional characteristics by shifting towards the occupational format. According to Moskos (1977, pp. 42–44; 1981, p. 3), people in a traditional institutional organization (a) conform to legitimated norms and values, (b) perform for presumed higher good instead of individual self-interest, (c) are dedicated and committed to organizational goals in contrast of self-assertion and egocentric objectives, (d) are motivated more by calling (e.g. "duty, honor, country") and merits (e.g. ranks) than earnings and monetary rewards, (e) are regarded as being different or apart from other citizens, but still (f) enjoy some level of esteem from the larger society. Moskos (1981, p. 25; 1986, p. 377) reasoned that these institutional characteristics have been degenerated and there have been changes in the military policy and in the commitment among career officers from an institutional service ethic to an occupational marketplace and personal interests. However, and in spite of this transition, the specific military structure, rules, and norms are more deep-rooted and may need a more dramatic decline in commitment among cadre and conscripts before falling out of the military institution. Yet, due to changes in the balance of civilian and military



cultures and norms, military education, training, and socialization programs have already faced demands of revision to support recruits' adequate adjustment to the organization.

Not only the military has changed, but also the rest of the society has transformed from unified citizenship towards a highly egoistic para-society. Therefore, the tones of the military culture and the recruit's individual self-concept are increasingly different. Consequently, the youngest generations (Generation X and Net Generation) are not the easiest ones to train obedience to, because the respect for authority is not as deep-seated as in previous generations (e.g. Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005, p. 20; Yamashiro, 1998, pp. 2–6). This means that the military is forced to cope with poorly socialized youth with uncaring and indifferent attitudes toward military service and national interests (Savage & Gabriel, 1976, p. 363). Increasing personal aspirations combined with lowering adjustment resources (e.g. ability of social adjustment) and with questioning attitudes toward authority and long-term commitments (Dandeker & Strachan, 1993, pp. 282–283) make the fit with a *total institution* quite challenging (Goffman, 1961, pp. 313–316).

On the other hand, massive technological developments have created gaps between generations. Particularly, the Net Generation is very competent with new innovations and technical solutions. However, there may be an increasing gap between the IT environment available in the military and the technologies the Net Generation has become used to having access to. Therefore, the challenge is the recruits' high expectations combined with low satisfaction levels with the resources and their access to IT environment in the barracks. Thus, one organizational response could be to provide the conscripts with more services and facilities to allow connecting to their virtual networks off-duty (Hartman, Moskal, & Dziuban, 2005, pp. 6.1/66, 6.5/70).

Due to the alteration in societal trends, the military service is less frequently viewed as a necessary *rite of passage* into adulthood (Van Gennep, 1977), because the military conflicts with higher living standards and the changed way of life. In a broad sense, this change questions the traditional military values as a basis for civic and moral education (Janowitz & Moskos, 1979, p. 173). The difference between civilian and military environments is more notable since the civilian life styles that people are used to differ increasingly from the military culture (Halonen, 2007, pp. 39–42; Harris et al., 2005, p. 2; Johansson, 2004, p. 16). For instance, Pipping (1988, p. 15) perceptively summarizes how the time spent at lumbering camps made easier the adjustment to front line experiences easier during World War II. Specifically, adjustment was successful due to accustoming to primitive, hastily built dwellings, disciplined day rhythms with few activities and lack of diversions, few contacts with the family and friends, and a masculine environment forcing men to live together. Currently, the civilian life style totally departs from a lumbering camp. Thus, the experiences prior to the military service have changed dramatically. However, there have been only few alterations in the specific military rules and regulations. In other words, in the modern and postmodern world, all the constituents that earlier softened and facilitated the adjustment to combat have faded away, whereas the military, and especially the combat, have retained their thoroughly stressful appearance.

## 3.2 Organizational Adjustment Factors

The most profound effects of socialization and the main part of adjustment efforts take place during the recruits' BT period (Hawes, 1990, p. 40; Vickers, Walton-Paxton, Hervig, & Conway, 1993, p. 5). Especially, the start of service is compared to a catastrophe period in a civilian disaster situation (Bourne, 1967, p. 190) when all resources and skills to cope are needed for dealing with multiple situational stressors in a new environment. The difference between the civilian lifestyle and the military way of life gives many recruits a culture shock or "reality shock" (Dornbush, 1955, p. 321; Van Maanen, 1983, p. 32) that further stresses the importance of necessary coping skills. In this situation, conscripts' coping strategies do not necessarily result in successful adjustment, and there may be problems in the military adjustment caused by the unique nature of the new environment (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 15; Hawes, 1990, p. 40). Therefore adjustment to the civilian life does not guarantee an easy coping process because the demands of the military environment are so different from the previous experiences (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 2).

*The Purpose of Military Training.* The overall purpose of military training is preparing the service members and the organization for a combat situation (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 91). The military service starts with BT, which later continues with advanced or special training preparing the unit members for their wartime duty (Hosek et al., 1989, p. 396). The core idea of basic training is to provide an initial military orientation, regimentation, physical fitness, and a set of skills (Buddin, 1988, p. 14; Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 3–4; HumRRO, 2004, p. 83), which cultivate civilians into well disciplined, highly motivated and committed, and physically and mentally fit service members, who are grounded in their basic fighting and weapons skills (Bourne, 1967, p. 187; Hayden, 2000, p. 13; Pääsesikunta, 2003).

Levine et al. (1996, p. 541) have perceived the learning demands more broadly and categorized them to three areas: knowledge about the group, its members, and its tasks. Comparing to the above mentioned descriptions, this classification also considers the social aspects of military socialization. Hockey (1986, p. 21) has simplified the goals of basic training by dividing its functions to orientation to soldierly skills and to inculcation with "the canons of military discipline." Drawing from this classification, the goals of BT are fulfilled if a recruit is transformed from a civilian to a look-and-think-alike soldier acquiring basic knowledge and skills that are necessary for his or her survival in the military environment and its specific duties.

*Preparations for Military Socialization.* Not only the recruits adjust into the socialization process, but also the organization and its old members adopt new knowledge and strategies to adjust themselves to the arrival of newcomers (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 89; Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975, pp. 160–61). In fact, BT equals an organizational program that systematically reduces the tension, uncertainty, and problems introduced by new recruits in a unit (Van Maanen, 1983, p. 2). The organization utilizes several practical methods to adjust itself to the induction of recruits: for example, it holds orientation meetings; plans and revises policies and training programs; sets stages, goals, and rewards; distributes newsletters; reforms bulleting boards; arranges welcome packages; provides training information and feedback; organizes barrack rooms; and sets up rehearsals for inculcating rules, manners,

and habits in the leaders' minds before the entry of the conscripts (e.g. Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, pp. 7–8). In the rehearsals, numerous desired outcomes are detailed explicitly to ensure that all socialization agents (i.e. leaders and instructors) have a scheme about the methods and goals of the process (cf. official curriculums in different military organizations) to make sure that everyone is ready for executing the socializing procedures in an identical, logical and straightforward way (cf. Porter et al., 1975, pp. 185–186; Salo, 2004, pp. 114–121).

*Regimentation and Reinforcements.* Discipline, control and obedience are justified as essential for the functioning of a military unit (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 44; Stouffer et al., 1949, p. 410). Therefore, a recruit faces a highly structured organization which regulates almost all the behavior of the service members on and off duty (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 41; Hayden, 2000, p. 5), and the pressure to compliance and conformity permeate the military organization (Stevens et al., 1994, p. 473). Especially during BT, there are pervasive sets of control that the recruits are only expected to accept and adjust to (Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 78; Talcott, Haddock, Klesges, Lando, & Fiedler, 1999, pp. 269–274). Thus, the recruits are not allowed to question the status quo but instead adopt a custodial or conforming orientation (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 30), and the ability to conform to the military structure is taken as an indicator of successful military adjustment (Stouffer et al., 1949, p. 82). An exhaustive regimentation is made possible through exact and all-embracing rules and implicit norms that instill conformity with the correct way of behavior in people and make their performance and actions more predictable and reliable (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 22). Based on the rules and norms, the recruit's role is clarified by putting him or her to a place with certain expectations and responsibilities. Consequently, the produced role clarity eases the superiors' job to control and train newcomers (Hayden, 2000, p. 5).

At first the recruits are confused about how to behave (Anderson, 1974, p. 39), because the acceptable behavior patterns are more restricted in the military than in civilian life (Lazarus et al., 1974, p. 305) and “actions of no consequence in civilian life take on a crucial importance” in military service (Hockey, 1986, p. 28). Actually, the recruits' helplessness is carefully utilized in the socialization (Schein, 1980, pp. 239–240). While the recruits are receptive to any help or advice, the first days offer an opportunity for a unit to instill its rules, norms, and habits (cf. Hockey, 1986, p. 29). The first steps for obedience are made when the recruits are told to do exactly as ordered (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, pp. 41, 98). This kind of regimentation does not only put stress on the recruits' shoulder. The military with a disciplined and predictable environment may also give comfort after the recruits have first adjusted to it (cf. Janowitz & Little, 1974, pp. 69–70).

The military control is reinforced with the system of privileges and punishments; it is the main venue for correcting and redirecting the recruits' behavior. Behavior that is officially regarded as conducive to organizational objectives is further rewarded. Overall, the recruits are not only compelled to act and perform in certain ways, but they are also confined if they do not obey (Bourne, 1967, p. 195). With reinforcements, the leaders aim at boosting learning (Popper, 2005, p. 66) and increasing the recruits' willingness and ability to obey the requirements of official orders and traditional habits (Hicks & Nogami 1984, p. 11). However, not everybody adjusts to pervasive regimentation and surveillance (Hogg, 1992, p. 83; Johansson, 2004, p. 3), and there is always some imperfect or even deviant behavior

among recruits, which may lead to the discharge of the person (Benbenishty, Zirlin-Shemesh, & Kaplan, 1993, p. 166; Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 260).

Generally, the military utilizes three means for controlling and shaping recruits' experiences: (a) reinforcement and confirmation (i.e. positive approval); (b) nonreinforcement (by ignoring or not giving positive approval), and (c) negative reinforcement (e.g. restrictions of privileges, extra duties, fines, and confinements) (Porter et al., 1975, p. 164). Both strong positive and negative reinforcement (i.e. a distribution of a prize or a privilege vs. punishment for disobedience) are conducted in a stylized, official manner, and in both cases the procedures show the power of the authority and the legitimate order (Hockey, 1986, p. 19). In the case of reinforcement, the purpose is also to support the conscripts' [normative] commitment to organizational goals and to the unit (Meyer & Allen, 1997, pp. 25, 60–61). When the reinforcement is directed to a team or a group, it emphasizes the meaning of team performance and communal drive towards high ends, and hence eases the controlling and directing of group processes (Griffith, 2004, p. 260; Henderson, 1985, pp. 112–113). Public punishment is utilized because it is supposed to be shameful for the person as well as an example for others of what happens if concordance in actions is not achieved (Artema, 1993, pp. 33–35).

*Scheduled Rebuilding of an Identity.* The induction to the military culture means a start of extensive reformation of the individual, where the recruits are required to revise their old understanding, skills, and values at once (Van Maanen, 1983, p. 33). The recruits are riveted into an environment without claim over their own actions, and during the most excessive socialization, a recruit has no self-determination (Hockey, 1986, p. 26). Their low status is related to the lack of knowledge and little control over how they are treated, which further complicates the improvement of status (Levine et al., 1996, p. 540; Ward, 1999, p. 26). Although they are in a low position in the pecking order they would not like to be regarded as “a cog in a machine” (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 265). However, the first experiences may only intensify this feeling.

The first direct experiences of military life determine the success of socialization, as they can turn the adjustment process either on or off. This is the moment where the unit and its leaders are able to instill its values and norms (Snyder & Caylor, 1969, p. 1) and shore up the recruits' socialization by putting emphasis on organizationally important details and goals, reacting quickly and exactly alike to the recruits' mistakes, and exploiting the whole range of overt feedback from punishments through praises to rewards (e.g. Hayden, 2000, p. 9; Moreland et al., 2001, p. 89).

The recruits are carried through a sequence of planned learning experiences. The training curriculum is highly detailed, many times tested and generally approved among the elder contingent and leaders (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 21), and therefore it is reiterated similarly year after year. Basically, military roles with congruent behavioral skills are still reproduced in a way that was long ago described by Hollingshead (1946, p. 441): “every phase of a given military action must be explained so carefully, simply, and clearly that the soldier will be able to grasp the principles involved, learn the routine rapidly, and then act in concert with others in its application.” Similarly, in Finland, every action is first thoroughly taught and then the recruits are required to perform accordingly (Salo, 2004, pp. 98–99). To learn the

ropes, the recruits are instructed in every behavioral component of a human being (Schein, 1980, p. 239).

All phases of the training process are reduced to their simplest, standardized elements, and the military procedures are routinized to the most meticulous detail (Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 116). Previous knowledge and skills are given no credit if they are not analogous with these details (Bourne, 1967, p. 192; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 64), and soon the recruits find out that they basically do not know anything (Hockey, 1986, p. 29). Moreover, the topics of military training differ from civilian education, which makes it difficult for a recruit to prepare him/herself for learning them (Van de Ven & Van Gelooven, 2006, p. 1). To acquire more comprehension, the program and structure of training make the recruits keep their attention focused only on the [survival of] training (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 264), that is, on skills and knowledge that produce correct reactions in an individual action in term of social standards (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 45). Consequently, the recruits internalize how they are expected to behave, for example when and how they should stand or walk, wait or rush, listen or answer, and talk or be silent.

Generally, the daily lessons and drills burden the recruits with multiple stressors (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 3) due to high performance standards, long, hectic days, social learning situations, the constant presence of peers, and pervasive observation and evaluation by superiors (Henderson, 1985, p. 55; Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 81). Every move the recruit makes is either dictated or at least under constant surveillance, and even one slip from the correct way of routine has immediate consequences. Without a conscript's own interest in learning the topics, the situation is hard to stand. The recruits are assured that bearing on and persevering in the first, decisive days will carry them past the main anxiety and troubles encountered (Hockey, 1986, p. 31).

Not only the training actions are predetermined, also the pace at which the things are conducted is organized, and normally in a tight hastened manner striving after sharp, timely performance (Gal, 1986, p. 103; Ingraham, 1983, p. 55; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 55). During the first days of service, it is unnecessary and difficult to try to find the difference between on and off duty since the recruits' time and activities are tightly scheduled (Goffman, 1961, p. 314; Hockey, 1986, pp. 25–26; Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 116), and, consequently, they are more or less on duty all the time, which increases their stress (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 3; Moskos, 1981, p. 3). At six a.m. the organization starts its influence, easing it around 2200 hours but controlling the members' location through the night. It is in the leaders' power to allocate time for personal purposes (e.g. for leaves), although it is often done in a manner which minimizes the recruits' own time. Time is no longer of any importance for the individual but, paradoxically, still the recruit has to count seconds and minutes since duties and group performance are measured by them (Salo, 2004, pp. 133–134, 148–149).

The underlying logic behind the time and tempo of how conscripts are insulated from previous reference groups and how they are transferred into a new one lies on the assumption of its functionality and efficiency to assure a successful military socialization process. Specifically, the experiences provided in this form create a need and motivation for survival, turn the conscripts' focus on issues that are relevant for military adjustment, increase the frequency

of intra-unit association, and emphasize the conscripts' dependence upon the unit policy, the closest leaders, and their peers (cf. Henderson, 1985, pp. 20–21).

Thus, the military organization not only focuses on the appearance and behavior of recruits, but it also targets at deeper change in the conscripts' thinking and value patterns. For instance, a recruit notices that some of his or her values are better put aside or suppressed, and the new official and socially accepted ones embraced (Anderson, 1974, pp. 42–43). The implicit goal of organizational socialization and education in the military is a perfectly trained soldier who devotes his energy and interests to the demands and expectancies of the unit, whose civilian initiative is reduced to a minimum, and who seeks his personal, social, and emotional satisfaction in the military institution and his new community (Hollingshead, 1946, pp. 441–442).

Contrary to the arguments of Anderson (1974) and Hollingshead (1946), the situation in the current military and the length of conscript service in Finland may not anymore offer such a drastic influence on attitudes and value structure that is required for the a comprehensive identity change. Since the conscripts' service lasts only six months (i.e. in Finland) and the recruits are regularly and systematically allowed contacts with civilian friends and family, it is unlikely that a person with a well-developed personality and a set of values and expectancies that contradict the military ones would have longstanding personality changes due to conscription.

*Enforced Assimilation of Information.* Ample guidelines, rules and requirements, and fast pace bring a sensory overload that challenge an individual's adjustment and learning resources (Baratta & McManus, 1992, p. 1703). The wide variety of topics raises the load of assimilated information, which increases the tension (Anderson, 1974, p. 37). Orasanu and Backer (1996, p. 91) have divided psychological stressors of the environment to two main categories: factors that are perceived as creating physical or psychological harm versus those that produce cognitive or physical limitations in the adjustment process. The latter group consists of such factors as information load, workload, lack of control, and time pressure. As suggested above, military training includes moments when a person is under all these factors.

In due course, training skills reduce the anxiety and stress because of the over-learned behavior patterns that require less attention, and thus produce less cognitive load (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 108). Similarly, the recruits' achieve a sense of control over well-known activities that further ease the adjustment to the situation (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 8). In skills training, recruits are pushed through the program where action tendencies are created by combining single acts to logically and functionally working sequences that in the end cover all the behavioral patterns in the different possible activities in military barracks (Hockey, 1986, p. 34). As a result of the leaders' continued control and interventions, the recruits quickly adopt the correct customs that may help to cope for the moment. Eventually, repeated practices and rehearsals increase the durability and automaticity of a particular skill, which in turn leads to appropriate behavior and actions, propping up the destroyed self-esteem and reducing the experienced stress (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 108). Although highly stressful in the first, military training may even support functional coping and ease adjustment to the military service after the basic skills and knowledge have been learnt.

An effective approach to reduce maladjustment problems is telling the recruits what is happening to them, when and why. Generally, information serves as a method of preventing a sense of anomie (i.e. meaninglessness) and connecting the recruits to the overall goals of a unit (Siebold, 1981, p. 8). On the other hand, erroneous information and unknown near future only increase the recruits' state of anxiety (Bourne, 1967, p. 139). As a basic rule, there should always be enough information available for adjustment at any time, but not too much of it (Farley & Catano, 2006, p. 285). The main sources of information for the recruits are announcements of leaders and informal contacts with older unit members (Ingraham, 1983, p. 23). Although the recruits cannot influence the amount or content of information, they still have a control of how the received information is construed in a group. If the interpretation is negative towards the unit, its leaders, or actions, it also has a harmful effect on the organizational socialization process (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 88). Unfortunately, in the socialization process, lack of control is typically combined with lack of information (Hockey, 1986, p. 134), so the recruits usually have only a few clues of what and why something is happening to them. The socialization programs and training schedules are not flexible enough to be adapted for recruits with difficulties in adjustment (Grissmer & Kirby, 1988, p. 61), and therefore, personal problems may escalate to the limit where the recruit is unable to cope with stress.

*Physical Training.* According to the expectations, one of the greatest concerns is related to adjustment to physical training (PT). Although the recruit's body would adapt to training, it is mentally demanding to wait for something unknown and in many cases overestimated (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 44). However, for some recruits, even a cautious start of PT brings too much pressure on their physical competency, causing tender feet and distemper (Hockey, 1986, p. 27). Having physical adjustment problems may lead to some other troubles; physical adjustment problems cause a setback in the building of self- and team confidence and competence, and in the worst case, they will lead to the discharge of the person. Perhaps that is why training programs are planned to take also the physical adjustment of recruits into account and facilitate their physical development in the military (Pääsesikunta, 2003, pp. 3–4; Toiskallio, 1998, pp. 84–85).

The PT program has been made to proceed gradually, which provides intensified physical demands but, on the other hand, a feeling of growth and progress (Gal, 1986, p. 104; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 51). Thus, besides the physical development, also self-confidence and the sense of achieving goals are supported (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 82). To reduce unnecessary maladjustment due to physical health problems, the recruits are allowed to wear athletic shoes (GAO, 2000, p. 15) even elsewhere than in PT. A unit may also provide remedial training for improving the personal physical fitness of those recruits who fail the required fitness test (op.cit. pp. 15–16). However, from the social point of view, remedial training may mark the person as indifferent or even different from others, which is not useful for team building.

*From Socialization to Maintenance of Membership.* Just before the maintenance phase of socialization, the recruits are screened and tested, and their aptitudes, attributes, responses, and motivation levels are inspected and recorded. These records are later used for discriminating the best trainable, well-adjusted, "Can-Do" and "Will-Do" soldiers (Zook, 1996, pp. 1, 4, 20–22) from those who cannot or will not perform appropriately (Gal,

1986, p. 117; Grissmer & Kirby, 1988, p. 22; Horne, 1987, p. 443; Laurence, 1993, p. 5). In other words, while socializing, squad and platoon leaders use also time for identifying, evaluating and separating “cannon fodder” from those who have potential for special courses or are suitable for leadership training (Allison, 1999, p. 30). In the end of this process, the company commander, based on the instructor’s suggestion and a request of the recruit, makes the decision about the recruit’s duration of service and assigns his or her to combat duties and new units where advanced and/or unit training is received (Pääsikunta, 2001b).

This selection is anticipated since the early days of service and it is perhaps the most decisive decision made upon conscripts, because the ordered occupational path determines the length of their conscript service. The selection is a key for those who would like to serve in more demanding duties as well as those who wish to leave the service as soon as possible. Those who pass the test and are posted to special training or leadership courses participate in versatile training, which might be a merit also afterwards in the civilian life (cf. Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 97). This opportunity may enhance the motivation among the selected recruits. On the other hand, a full-term selection of a person who planned to serve the shortest period may damage his or her motivation with some negative impact on the adjustment.

In advanced and unit training, the acquired task knowledge solidifies the required behavior and helps the recruits to carry out their military duties, which as a result reduces the potential effect of stressors (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 110). Also, Greenston, Nelson, and Gee (1997, pp. 8, 10) support this, as they found that improvements in performance, while holding other factors constant, lowers the risk of turnover in the military. In terms of supporting the adjustment, even more important (than task-related know-how) is that the conscripts have social knowledge which allows them to be accepted and appreciated in their squad, platoon, and unit. This is the reason why Levine et al. (1996, p. 542) draw attention to the personal resources of the players; to a great extent, the likelihood that a recruit tries to adjust successfully to the group’s culture is determined by his or her motivation and abilities. Without readiness and motivation to conform to a group, maladjustment is expected.

*Quality of Military Training.* The recruits adjust to the training demands by monitoring the behavior and outcomes of other conscripts and their leaders, seeking feedback, searching for mentors from old members or leaders, and working in partnership with squad and platoon members (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 89). In addition to official learning objects, the military organization intentionally employs several stressors to shape and harden the recruits’ characteristics in training (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 89). Meeting all the specific requirements of military training entails physical, cognitive, and psychological components (Grissmer & Kirby, 1984, p. 14), or from another point of view physical, cognitive, ethical, and social components of competency (Toiskallio, 1998, p. 27). By mobilizing all personal resources in action, a recruit unconsciously starts his or her development.

Although the conscripts are in the military where they do not have control over their duties and schedules, they still value their time and expect to be given some meaningful learning experiences in return to their sacrifices (Barríos-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 61; Smith & Kendall, 1980, p. 132). They expect to receive professional training that is directly related to or involved with modern equipment and “action” (Zurher et al., 1979, pp. 98–99). Without



effective training, conscripts are not as willing to give their heart to the game. Even discharge is more likely to take place if the soldiers have an impression that they are not important contributors in the unit and their leaders do not recognize their value as they should (Perry et al., 1991, p. 130).

The sense of training is an essential part of creating commitment to service. For example, inconvenience and hardship are more acceptable when there is some kind of meaningfulness. Without meaning, the devoted efforts and the time spent are worth nothing, which makes the service feel even more like compulsive duty (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 265). On the other hand, the feeling of boredom, a result of poorly planned training experiences, affects the service members' attitude toward the whole military service and is associated with negative coping strategies, such as excessive drinking. Conversely, satisfaction with activities is in conjunction with good adjustment experiences (Fisher et al., 1983, p. 22). High standards and better skills are related to greater performance and sense of confidence, as well as lower levels of stress in the military (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, pp. 110–111, 114).

Overall, military training serves as a tool box for indoctrinating the recruits to service members who are affectively (emotionally and socially) and instrumentally (with tasks and duties) integrated to their squad, platoon, and unit. Well-trained, socialized, and adjusted service members possess the required skills, are able to cope with and control new situations and their own emotions, behave in conformity with norms, support their friends and group on and off duty, and value their service and country (cf. Dawson et al., 1994a, p. A–7; Gal, 1986, pp. 102, 111; Levine et al., 1996, p. 541). Generally speaking, realistic, demanding training under the conditions where the task would be performed is an answer to meeting increased training requirements and satisfying the recruits' expectations, because it provides the required skills, reduces boredom, and increases motivation (Horne, 1987, p. 446).

By engaging the recruits in constant social activities that inculcate them to the roles, rules, norms, and habits, and familiarize them with their peers, leaders and physical surroundings, the main anxiety can be reduced notably (Bourne, 1967, p. 190; Salo, 2004, pp. 87–90), and a promising base is laid for the military adjustment process. Although the BT period is demanding and stressful, the activities and training programs also offer a buffer against stress and support the conscripts' adjustment to the military. Actually, it is in the organization's interests to make the adjustment process easy enough to avoid unnecessary turnover and to keep a sufficient number of recruits in service (Johansson, 2004, p. 16; Pääsikunta, 2003). Adjustment is supported, for example, by motivating the recruit for successful service; presenting effective, functional coping strategies, developing appropriate personal behavior; directing interpersonal relations, role expectations, communication, and coordinated actions; offering sufficient information; promoting the assimilation of essential skills and practice; supporting the recruit's interpersonal skills and self-awareness; helping the recruit's learning process; and affording leader support (Fisher et al., 1983, p. 1; Hicks & Nogami, 1984, pp. 81, 99; Van Maanen, 1983, pp. 3, 7).

*Climate and Atmosphere in Units.* The unit lives in its own, insulated community (Hockey, 1986, p. 98) where group norms and habits, leadership, and organizational standards create a characteristic unit climate and atmosphere (Janowitz, 1971, p. 206). Schneider, Salvaggio,

and Subirats (2002, p. 222) define climate as the members' "shared perceptions of the policies, practices, and procedures that are rewarded, supported, and expected" concerning the military service. A positive climate can be perceived as meaningful for the adjustment process, because it forms a key link between an individual and the organization. Moreover, the unit climate has a particular function in affect/motivation and behavior, and it mediates individual responses to the organizational context (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989, p. 546).

Hicks and Nogami (1984, p. 82) note that positive changes in behavior happen more effectively in a positive atmosphere, with relevant information about causes and manifestations of behavior and in relationships with peers and superiors. Similarly, it has been found that satisfaction with one's training and military service along with the absence of problems during the military service are related to a positive unit climate (Allen & Bell, 1980, pp. 6, 8). With a positive climate, the recruits are likely to believe in the meaningfulness of task demands, perceive role clarity, and seek relationships among unit members (Hayden, 2000, p. 12) and commit themselves to the unit (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 47). At large, the unit climate moderates the relation between environmental stress and strain (Farley & Catano, 2006, p. 291), consequently helping the recruits' adjustment to the military.

*Conclusions about Organizational Adjustment Factors.* The basic reason for organizational socialization and personal adjustment is the difference between military and civilian cultures and the way of life (Johansson, 2004, p. 16). Consequently, the military organization tries to assimilate the person to its culture which leads to situations that require personal coping and adjustment. As Schein (1980, p. 241) has identified, the "process of undoing or unfreezing [old values] is often unpleasant and therefore requires either strong motivation to endure it or strong organizational forces to make the person endure it". In the military the "endurance" is granted by an exhaustive set of rules and norms, management and control, social pressure and support, leaders' advice and persuasion, and reprimands and punishments. Under such constant directing and surveillance by peers and leaders, the recruits learn to control even their emotions during stressful situations (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 3). The main functions of leaders' continuous control are detection and immediate correction or alteration of conscripts' perceptions and behavior. This way, any slip on the path of identity reconstruction can be corrected before any severe damages to the conscript's socialization. In essence, regimentation is for securing a tuning of conscripts' behavior and attitudes towards the military and rationally uniform conduct (cf. Weber, 1947, pp. 152–153).

Although the duration and intensity of actions during the first service days and weeks increase the recruit's experienced stress (Hockey, 1986, pp. 33–34), the learning pace makes it possible to acquire more knowledge and skills in a short time, which in turn alleviate stress. Due to the leaders' guidance and control, the recruits are relatively quickly aware of the rudiments of the military life by actual participation (Hollingshead, 1946, p. 441), and military regimentation becomes part of their normal life in service. As a result of organizational acculturation efforts and personal adjustment, the recruits are highly aware of what they are expected to do every minute, and they acquire necessary coping skills to response these particular situational demands (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 264).

The first days and weeks of BT include all vital elements for effective organizational socialization (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 110), and especially then the training and

other activities emphasize more indoctrination (i.e. “presenting culture” by Goffman, 1961, p. 317) than teaching soldiering. Although the indoctrination during the first days of service may cause a delay in learning combat-related skills, it improves the recruits’ acceptance and attitudes toward the military, and essentially, has long term positive effects on the military service that may carry the conscript further in later performance (Hervig, Vickers, & Bischoff, 1991, p. 14).

### **3.3 Social Adjustment Factors**

In the military, situational and environmental factors (i.e. the military culture, climate, regimentation, reinforcements, policy, and training programs) influence the interpersonal context and relations in a unit, which, in turn, affect the social circumstances (Fleming, Baum, & Singer, 1985, p. 328), and all this together determines the conscripts’ well-being and is seen in the results of the military adjustment process.

One of the premises in this research is that the social context of life is critical in the military adjustment process (Janowitz, 1971, p. 206), and especially for the development of an individual’s personality, motivation, and behavior (Andersen & Glassman, 1996, p. 262). However, interaction with other service members and leaders not only benefits the conscripts but is also a source of stress (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 91) when living at the constant presence of new people who should be your friends and dealing with leaders with whom communication is quite formal and one-sided. Besides the possible hardship due to the social life in the military, the social context reduces a feeling of anxiety by creating a sense of belonging and social support (Johns, 1984, p. 35).

In the military, conscripts’ welfare and personal protection are directly available in their own platoon (Janowitz, 1971, p. 207), and positive adjustment experiences substantially depend on peer support, leaders’ guidance, and facilitation of the community at large (Hamburg et al., 1974, p. 412). Essentially, the ability of persons to adjust to the military is not only a function of the conscript’s own resources or aspects of training programs, but also the social support (or lack of it) and leadership have an important effect on it (Lazarus et al., 1974, p. 258; Mechanic, 1974, p. 33). Thus, experiences with peers and the closest supervisors are the most conducive social circumstances to military adjustment and the socialization process.

#### **3.3.1 Leadership**

Social aspects are real concerns for recruits, and the main interests are related with having leaders who take good care of the recruits. For instance, Gal (1986, p. 97) notes that 91 % of the recruits selected this factor (“having commanders who would take good care of them”) as the most important expectation. No wonder that the recruits try to form a working relationship with the leaders after induction (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 4). If satisfactory relationships are established and experienced, also the stressful period will be shorter at the beginning of the service. Hence, supervisors are the key individuals in supporting organizational socialization in the military (Payne & Huffman, 2005, p. 159).

*Company Commander and Instructors.* The leaders' position, rank, status, privileges, duties, and rights are features that constitute the authority structure in the military (Hockey, 1986, p. 3). In a unit, the *company commander* is on the top of the authority structure, representing a father figure who is responsible for everything that happens under his or her command, including indoctrination, atmosphere and satisfaction in the unit, shared interests and commitment, and selections and promotions (e.g. Ingraham & Manning, 1980, p. 27). The company commander personally welcomes the recruits during the first days of service, and later, he or she interviews all recruits in the unit and assigns them to their duties. Consequently, the commander knows the recruits' expectations and goals, and the recruits are more familiar with the commander's character (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 8). Presumably, the company commander and his or her leadership style has a significant (indirect) effect on the conscripts' adjustment process and turnover rates (Golding et al., 2001, p. 2), and therefore, it has been suggested that the commander's emphasis on the military adjustment process can reduce the turnover during military service (GAO, 1998a, p. 4).

The *instructors*, together with the company commander, determine the nature of the organizational design that is experienced by the recruits. Organizational design refers to a superstructure under which the practices take place in the organization. It comprises the structure and processes that coordinate and control for example the socialization process, information and feedback flow, routine procedures, and all duties and jobs in a unit (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1991, pp. 502–503). Although the company commander is responsible for the initial training and supervision of the company, he or she does not create as much direct adjustment experiences as the immediate leaders (Salo, 2004, pp. 119–121). The instructors organize the socialization events and carry out the most demanding or important training. They manifest the service requirements, unit standards, allowed and sanctioned behaviors, and bureaucratic procedures in their platoons. They are responsible for creating first impressions of the service as well as integrating the recruits into the unit during the first days and weeks of it (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, pp. 8–9). After the first weeks' emphasis on indoctrination and fulfillment of socialization requirements, the instructors shift their focus on particular training procedures (Salo, 2004, p. 142).

However, everything is not in the hands of instructors, although they may think so. Even the organizational structure may interfere with the instructors' favorable intentions towards the conscripts' welfare. In a total institution, sometimes the implementation of order is more important than the sense of doing it, and the instructors' orders may be detached from the original purposes in the end of the chain of command. In this manner, the climate of impersonality and the size of management and bureaucracy easily distract the instructors from the needs of a recruit (Zurcher et al., 1979, p. 84).

*Squad Leaders.* The squad leader is the closest supervisor who painstakingly follows the recruits' plod with their service. He or she is also the most influential among the leaders for assuring recruits' integration to the squad and the unit (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, pp. 9–10) by providing the main linkage between the recruits and the goals and norms of the formal unit (more about the linking pin theory in Likert, 1961, pp. 113–115, 162–172). Janowitz and Little (1974, p. 102) outline the functions of the squad leaders to five categories: (a) managing a squad, (b) defining rules and procedures, (c) being a role model,

(d) teaching squad mates, and (e) providing emotional support. With these five functions the leaders have substantial power over the recruits' adjustment and training; they are able (if they want) to reform the recruits' self-concept and support their adjustment process by (a) improving their physical fitness, (b) giving support, information and guidance, and (c) planning a timetable, training and physical environment which help adjustment to the military life. Slightly differently, Popper, Amit, Gal, Mishkal-Sinai, and Lisak (2004, pp. 246–247) summarize the leaders' influence in the military by noting that an effective leader is able to make a change and development in (a) self-confidence, (b) proactive orientation (by motivating in actions, establishing goals, and crystallizing a vision), and (c) prosocial behavior (by easing communication and cooperation in a group).

In Finland, squad leaders are selected from the previous contingent for the last six months of their one-year service, and they have experienced the same procedures roughly six months earlier. They are almost as young, and sometimes younger, as their subordinates. These factors should help them to understand the difficulties of their subordinates. However, the situation is often the opposite. If an immature person who has no previous experience of being responsible for other people is put to the position of a squad leader, this person focuses only on how he or she is managing the situation, not on the welfare of the subordinates. There is also risk that the squad leader tries to distance him/herself from the squad by harsh control and requirements, just to show possession of leadership (Salo, 2004, pp. 82–83). Thus, young age, low rank, and being conscript as well – characteristics that do not allow a significant departure from the subordinates – may have also a negative impact on the recruits' adjustment experiences.

For the recruits' salvation, authoritarian domination is not anymore the main way how the leader influences the followers. Already Janowitz and Little (1974, p. 34) noted how organizational authority has shifted from authoritarian domination to utilizing manipulation, persuasion, and group consensus as methods for transferring activities and attitudes towards the goals and purposes of a unit. Similarly, Ingraham (1983, p. 30) emphasizes that these and similar methods (e.g. reasoning and cajoling) are even more relevant at the squad and platoon levels where leadership is, in essence, personal and face-to-face. Especially during the maintenance phase of socialization, squad leaders familiarize more with their subordinates and form a trusting relationship with them, and consequently, they do not anymore show their power unnecessarily, and the authority is notably less exerted after the duty hours (op. cit. p. 56), which together decrease the anxiety and stress among recruits.

*Quality of Leadership.* The quality of leaders and training is critical for motivating the conscripts to continue their military service (Perry et al., 1991, p. 130), for insulating them from stress, and for supporting their coping and adjustment (McBreen, 2002, p. 7). In addition to meaningful training, leaders who have a wide range of leadership, social and task-related skills can also afford effective education and acculturation to support the recruits' adjustment. In other words, the leaders' own motivation and ability to indoctrinate affect the recruits' ability to obtain cultural knowledge (Levine et al., 1996, p. 543). Once the recruits have successful coping experiences, it has positive, direct effects on their confidence in the leaders as well as on the confidence in other members and the group as a whole (Farley & Veitch, 2003, p. 360).

Generally, leaders and especially officers are appreciated in the military (Dunivin, 1994, p. 535). However, there are always some tactless leaders that can ruin the recruits' adjustment with negative leadership techniques (GAO, 1997, pp. 5–6). Careful selection of the most suitable people for conscript leaders (Gal, 1986, pp. 115–116), as well as formalized training programs (Luthans et al., 1982, p. 7) protect from such bad experiences.

*Adjustment Process and Leadership.* In practice, enculturation is conducted by keeping the recruits almost all the time with close connection to their squad leader. In Finland, daily connections with leaders are further supported by locating the squad leaders in the same barrack rooms with their subordinates. Then, the leader is in the right place when his or her instructions, support and guidance are needed most (Holz, 1986, p. 5; Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 265). This situation also provides more opportunities to get to know one another, to establish proper norms, as well as maintain order and safety (Ingraham, 1983, p. 56). With being close to the subordinates, the leader is able to show interest and involvement in group relations (Stouffer et al., 1949, pp. 384–387; Verdugo, 1998, p. 123). In addition, living and working together may foster interpersonal sensitivity and the feeling of group belongingness among all group members, which in turn are important for the maintenance of group harmony (Sandal et al., 1999, p. 401). Knowing the interpersonal relations and ability of recruits helps squad and platoon leaders to facilitate social support. Squad leaders also show solidarity between the recruits and themselves by sharing the same uncomfortable conditions in barracks and field exercises. Altogether, the same experiences and hardships bring them physically and socially closer and lower the differences between ranks (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 265), and at some point they are not so much two different parties but more part of the same reference group (Hockey, 1986, p. 56).

Leaders have several available options for supporting recruits' adjustment and altering their negative perceptions about the meaningfulness of their service. Methods that on one hand indoctrinate to organizational standards, patterns of behavior, and ingrained values (Gal, 1986, p. 115) may, at the same time, build trust and appreciation to leaders if correctly utilized. For example, leaders achieve many affective and instrumental goals of socialization by spending more time with the recruits, by a better structuring of training, identifying the recruits' deficiencies in skills, having knowledge to provide support, helping soldiers with their problems in the military and also in the civilian life, building unit image and pride, and using rewards, recognition, and promotions (Perry et al., 1991, pp. 130–131).

In spite of intense socialization, BT is a relatively rewarding period of service as the recruits' combatant skills are developed fast and personal problems receive more immediate attention from the superiors. During BT the leaders show more interest in their subordinates than during other periods of service. The leaders are also more concerned to fulfill institutional goals, which appears as a pursuit to train the recruits appropriately (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, pp. 264–265).

*Squad Leaders as Role Models.* Role modeling is an efficient way to shape and build soldiers in the military where it is typical to force subordinates to pay attention to and imitate their leaders (Hayden, 2000, pp. 10, 18). Therefore, the recruits' indoctrination and learning is assisted by leaders whose character and special techniques force the recruits to establish role expectations and behave willingly in accordance with the prevalent norms. During the

socialization process, leaders typically become role models and identification figures whose behavior and attitudes are followed and imitated (Gal, 1986, p. 110). The main advantage of role modeling is that it allows an immediate influence on the behavior of the subordinates. Therefore, a great deal of behavioral change in the socialization process is achieved through modeling (Luthans et al., 1982, p. 7). Fundamentally, leadership by example incorporates all the positive components that are linked to effective leadership behavior (e.g. Bass, 1985; Nissinen, 2001a; 2001b).

An effective role model shares information, demonstrates military competence, cares and respects the subordinates, and is committed to the group's activities, goals, and its members (Farley & Catano, 2006, p. 288; Gal, 1986, p. 110). Thus, a respected leader demonstrates exemplary behavior in all circumstances in his or her performance, military bearing and courtesy (Zook, 1996, p. 41). Competence is among the key components for gaining the respect of the subordinates and the supervisors as well. The leader's competence (i.e. knowledge, training skills, and experience) brings self-confidence and expertise that can be recognized in leader-subordinate relations and team members' satisfaction. Therefore the most capable conscripts are selected to serve as squad and platoon leaders (e.g. Gal, 1986, pp. 108, 115) and present "an image of soldierness par excellence" (Hockey, 1986, p. 31). On the other hand, a leader has to be also an informal leader who affects the aspirations, values, and aims of other team members in social behavior in order to serve as a genuine role model. Thus, role modeling is suitable only for leaders who are respectable, even admirable, and with whom the recruits can identify themselves (Hayden, 2000, p. 10). Otherwise the leader's model produces dysfunctional organizational behavior (Luthans et al., 1982, p. 7). Caring and emotional support reinforce trust in leaders (Winslow, 1999, p. 447), which further strengthens the relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates. Instrumental support can be provided, for example, by sharing information which is crucial for reducing uncertainty and anxiety, increasing the predictability of the future, and making sense of what is happening in a unit (Fisher, 1983, p. 1). Since leader support is necessary for successful adjustment, it is most effective when provided at all levels of the chain of command. However, instructors' time-consuming administrative tasks and planning of training programs do not allow them to focus on establishing significant relationships with individual conscripts (e.g. Adkins, 1974, p. 514; Salo, 2004, pp. 116–117), and too often the double burden of an authoritarian controller and empathic counselor/mentor is put on a young squad leader's shoulders.

The main psychosocial functions of a military leader who acts as a role model are close to effective counseling. Counseling provides the means of facing a recruit as a whole person with some resources, background, and problems. Counseling requires and improves social and coping skills (Hockey, 1986, p. 30), offers shared experiences between leaders and subordinates, promotes confidence in leaders, encourages recognition of problems and finding solutions for them, directs behavior and action to more creative and constructive activities (than, for instance, negative ways of coping with problems), and, indirectly, improves group performance (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 83).

*Leadership and Adjustment Outcomes.* Despite of leader support, regimentation and the leaders' attention towards the subordinates may lead to an increased anxiety, because discipline training and strict orders cause tension and something to cope with quickly. Still,

clear norms of relationships may also ease the play in the new culture (Halonen, 2007, pp. 148–149). Moreover, the leaders' personal attention and care of their troops increase the conscript's motivation and contentment with duty (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 269; Moore, 2002, p. 260). Thus, discipline training and leaders' immediate guidance can reinforce commitment to the leaders and the unit (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 98). Particularly, the informal and unofficial practices, where a leader looks after the welfare of group members on and off duty (Hockey, 1986, p. 132), are appreciated by subordinates, and not only create commitment to the leader but also bolster commitment to the military service in general (Payne & Huffman, 2005, p. 160).

Having a high-quality leader in the squad brings several positive outcomes to the group members' well-being and performance. Positive leadership makes it easier to cope with the daily requirements of training and education and, therefore, helps adjustment and decreases turnover (Allison, 1999, p. 22; GAO, 1998c, pp. 54–55). Especially well-trained, mature, emotionally stable and empathic squad leaders are beneficial for recruits' successful military adjustment (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 22). Positive leadership props up the morale and peer relations at the unit level (Thompson & Gignac, 2001, pp. 14–15), and, specifically, confidence in the platoon leader and company commander has a direct positive effect on the morale and togetherness of the group (Farley & Veitch, 2003, p. 360). As part of the same topic, Vandenberghe, Bentein, and Stinglhamber (2004, p. 59) found that commitment to the leader is significantly, directly, and negatively related to the intent to quit. The same is argued in HumRRO's (2004, pp. 303–304) research where the logic was that leaders' efforts on improving soldiers' satisfaction lead to increased commitment, which is seen in a stronger intention to continue the military career. On the other hand, defective leadership is more related to indicators of maladjustment problems, such as attrition, poor motivation and morale, and extended sick leaves (Anderson, 1974, p. 48; Thompson & Gignac, 2001, p. 18). Perhaps the main dimension of the leaders' effect is due to the quality and quantity of support they provide. Solomon, Mikulincer and Hobfoll (1986, pp. 1269, 1271) confirmed this by showing how soldiers suffered more loneliness and combat stress reaction if their officers were emotionally and instrumentally less supportive. Due to the wide impact of leader support on adjustment, the main advice for the leaders is that they should "always put the soldier first" (Farley & Veitch, 2003, p. 362).

### **3.3.2 Social Pressure and Peer Support**

Moskos (1985, p. xxvi) argues that the most salient factors in military behavioral research are social psychological rather than psychological by nature. Thus, conscripts' adjustment is best understood in the context of their small reference groups. Military groups are unique because they are made of heterogeneous people who due to a demanding situation, shared experience and time spent together consider themselves a group, but who normally during civilian life would not be friends at all (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 84). In conscript service, the fact that the recruits join a group together reduces many problems by provided social comparison, emotional support, and leaders' joint focus (Levine et al., 1996, pp. 540–541). More than ever, a group with a positive atmosphere and social support is priceless for maximizing successful adjustment and satisfaction and minimizing turnover during the most intense socialization processes (Perry et al., 1991, p. 115).



*First Group Experiences in Isolation.* Joining the military represents, for many, the first time when the person lives away from home and friends (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 269). The loss of direct relations with loved ones, combined with being in a new alien environment creates stress during the early days of service (Anderson, 1974, p. 37). During the first encounters with the military, the recruits present themselves as timid, afraid and alone, since they do not yet know the appropriate way to express themselves, and therefore they minimize talking and are careful with others, and even more with leaders (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 264). This stress is alleviated by quickly creating a supportive network among the conscripts (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 44).

To support the group formation and socialization process and reform the newcomers' identity, recruits are geographically and socially isolated from the rest of the society (e.g. friends and family) (Hayden, 2000, p. 5; Hockey, 1986, p. 28; Ingraham, 1983, p. 52). The basic idea of isolation lies in the assumption that only a decisive break from previous roles and obligations is effective for turning recruits' orientation towards the requirements of the military service (Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 78). Isolation from outside support is planned to ascertain the need of social support by other group members, and consequently to increase positive interpersonal relationships. Therefore the recruits are not granted leaves during the first weeks when major efforts are made to instill appropriate behavior and attitudes (Hockey, 1986, p. 27). In line with isolation, the physical environment and the structure of the barrack rooms have been constructed to support the control and management of the recruits and their social relationships with other recruits.

The whole existence of new recruits is bounded to their barracks and some few training locations (Hockey, 1986, p. 27) and "all aspects of life are conducted in the same place and under the same single authority" (Goffman 1961, pp. 313–314). The design of barrack rooms and corridors has been done to maximize the frequency of association among the platoon and unit members while creating boundaries against other units (Henderson, 1985, p. 21). It has been noted that closeness, passive contacts, and face-to-face interaction keep group meetings informal and continuous and reinforce group development at squad and platoon level. Specifically, by utilizing architectural planning, group members can be located in a way that increases their social activity and cooperation, eases getting contacts with others, enhances information flow, and allows a provision of immediate social support (Fleming et al., 1985, pp. 329–336; Salo, 2004, p. 121).

*Group Formation.* In the military group, people with diverse backgrounds and characteristics are put together and they are inculcated into a consistent mold (Janowitz, 1971, p. 207). Gal (1986, p. 112) calls this the "melting pot function" of conscript service. During the first days of service, the individual is integrated into his or her squad, acquainted with the closest leaders and peers, and familiarized with the main habits of the military (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 9). In addition to socialization, these procedures support the recruits' adjustment process by reducing the existing anxiety in social and authoritarian relations (Gal, 1986, p. 112), as well as start an effective social learning program.

Since the recruits' background and abilities are different, the same situation represents the main communality that they have. Therefore the uniting situational characteristics serve as a starting point for integrating the soldiers. To accelerate team formation and emphasize the

value of other group members' support, the recruits are reminded how everybody is "in the same boat" under the same demands and pressure (Hamburg et al., 1974, p. 421; Salo, 2004, p. 136; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p. 38) and how the group members should work as a team to avoid any unnecessary problems in this situation (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 44). Although individual behavior is taught and controlled, the group behavior sets the standard for the individual existence. For example, the recruits' personal appearance is melted to a collective existence by uniformed clothes, hairstyle, behavior, and movements as units. The individual is an invisible, integrated part of a collective (Elder, Gimbel, & Ivie, 1991, p. 217). Thus, the personal appearance of recruits is faded away to achieve impersonality and consistency (Hockey, 1986, p. 24) and withering the personal identity out of the way of a new social identity. To increase the importance of social adjustment, the most intimate aspects of life are controlled or performed in the presence of other recruits (Gal, 1986, p. 104; Hockey, 1986, p. 26; Hollingshead, 1946, p. 441; Ingraham, 1983, pp. 41–42). Consequently, recruits' common struggle for survival in this kind of situation provides the basis for relationships in a new community (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 269).

In more theoretical terms, group formation is a parallel process with organizational socialization and coincides with it (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 90). It is a continuous process and part of social integration, where an individual is gradually accepted and attached into the group and, in turn, where the individual commits himself to the group members and the group as a whole (Hogg, 1992, p. 78). Moreland et al. (2001, p. 90) value group socialization more than organizational socialization, since (a) people are frequently more committed to their primary group (e.g. a squad) than to a secondary group (i.e. a unit), (b) the group influences its members more directly and effectively than the organization, (c) the whole military life spins around the same primary group and its members, and (d) all the aspects of life are more under the control and influence of the group members than of organizational rules and events. In group socialization, the social experiences in the group demonstrate the value of friendship and group membership (Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 96). Cleverly, the situation where the conscripts are bound with their peers and where they have to adjust to be a functioning part of their group increases their efforts to communicate and confirm with others in the group, which in turn boosts the social integration of recruits and the effectiveness of the socialization process.

The phase of group formation is critical for the benefit of both the individual and the organization. A unit needs to incorporate its new members quickly into the military primary groups that form a reference for the recruits' attitudes and behavior; otherwise the recruits will create their own habits and standards (Winslow, 1999, p. 434). As a result of thorough melting and reformation (i.e. socialization), the squads and platoons constitute satisfying entities where the members receive attention and care from others and, still, effectively contribute to the organizational goals. Consequently, new informal primary groups and *esprit de corps* among the recruits are developed (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 98).

If the group formation and socialization fail, there are some negative outcomes to the organization. For example, Hervig et al. (1991, p. 4) found how "exposure to recruits with negative attitudes towards the service and poor morale was contagious," and the contact with such recruits created adjustment problems even among those members who did not perceive any problems before the exposure. Organizational socialization tries to eliminate this kind of

factors in group processes by creating same organizational norms for every group, which are enforced with leaders' control and the attitudes and behavior of peers. The reference group exerts social pressure by changing an individual's values and goals in congruence with the general group norms and standards that, consequently, influence the individual's behavior (Bourne, 1967, p. 187; Mechanic, 1974, p. 34). This process is a part of acculturation, in which the main goals are (attitudinal) consensus and (behavioral) conformity (cf. Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 87; Ward, 1999, p. 25).

*Social Aspects of Training and Socialization.* Social learning and the social cognitive theory incorporate the social environment, individual cognitive processes, and actual behavior (Bandura, 1986, pp. xii, 18–21). Basically military training contains highly organized execution of a social learning curriculum where a recruit's skills, knowledge, and aspirations are modified by continued exposure of social events and aspects of the environment. Constant group activities and the presence of peers and squad leaders create social pressure and shape the recruit's attributes. Hogg (1992, p. 1) describes the effects of social exposure in a primary group by arguing that ultimately the group determines our social identity and influence the whole idea of who we are (e.g. our language, attitudes, adopted cultural practices, and received education). Group methods are influential even in changing our inner construct (e.g. traits). Specifically, team building methods provide tools for encouraging identification with a situation and the people in it, for sharing group norms, and for promoting communication and cooperation in groups, which all together enforce socialization and learning in a unit. Due to the shared social experience in BT, conscripts share the same task and social knowledge, which in turn supports the functioning of groups (Levine et al., 1996, p. 546) and develops the (affinity group) identity of the person towards the military group (Gee, 2000, p. 105).

Social learning is enriched with “conditioning” (i.e. privileges, rewards, and reprimands), modeling through observation and imitation, and learning in practice. This way, the recruit soon finds out what is valued and what is expected of him or her in terms of learning behavior and performance in the military (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 61). Thus, the social aspects of conscript service tie the person into a squad and a unit and “function to maintain the fabric of interdependent behavior necessary for task accomplishment” (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 53). In the training curriculum and practice, social learning is advanced with team building, where the recruits develop a sense of mutual trust, respect, and responsibility for other group members and for joint performance (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 112). Overall, the social presence of others is carefully utilized to support learning and create identification with one's own group (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, pp. 38–43).

In training, not only a person is liable for performing in an adequate manner, but all behavior is evaluated also at squad level. Thus, the whole squad is responsible for avoiding mistakes and misbehavior and achieving goals. A peculiarity of the military regimentation is that a mistake in one instance can be held against a person in another case, whereas good behavior may lead to the next level of rights (Bourne, 1967, p. 192; Salo, 2004, pp. 100–101), and, if somebody has not learnt a required knowledge or skill and, as a result, behaves incorrectly, it is taken as a threat to group survival (Hockey, 1986, pp. 36–37). If a person makes a mistake, it is a disgrace to the whole group and their leaders, and they are all retrained or corrected in details which were unclear for one (Salo, 2004, pp. 85, 133). This

is planned to guarantee that recruits assimilate knowledge as fast and similarly as others to avoid embarrassing situations, and try to help each other and pull together while conducting duties to get the shared task done.

In conscript service where the recruits share the same fate, the social comparison theory and research (Festinger, 1954, pp. 118–120, 135–136) help explain how an initially unpleasant situation can turn out to be a powerful facilitator of education, inculcating personal opinions and abilities in the social context. Since everybody is at the same status ladder with identical daily activities and options, social comparison allows the recruits to evaluate their own emotional experiences and abilities in comparison to others and identify relative improvement in the balance of their own and others' resources (Taylor, Wayment, & Carrillo, 1996, p. 5). Briefly, social comparison increases motivation when the recruits notice that others are wrestling with the same issues, and there are chances for winning the battle and becoming a full member of the unit (as the “old members” have done). If a recruit is not incorporated to the social play in the unit, it has detrimental consequences to his or her adjustment process. For example, Siebold (1981, p. 8) stresses that isolation and alienation among service members will most likely lead to difficulties in service and even to premature separation. As discussed in this chapter, the directed and carefully controlled social integration through social learning during the socialization phases provides an answer for preventing alienation and social maladjustment in the military service.

*Solidarity and Bonding.* Constant and intense interpersonal relations, consensus of opinions, and conformity with group norms create and strengthen solidarity and bonds among group members. A sense of social solidarity among recruits is achieved in the socialization process already during BT (Elder et al., 1991, p. 217; Gal, 1986, p. 112; Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 79), and its effects are potentially durable. For example, Mouthaan, Euwema, and Weerts (2005, p. 112) found that these bonds are still strong even in the old age of veterans, showing how permeable the social experiences in primary groups are.

Social and leader support and strong bonds between group members bolster a sense of mastery, and thus help the military group functions and alleviate the experienced stress (Solomon et al., 1986, p. 1270). Accordingly, an integrated, tightly knit group is valued as the best support system in the case of a crisis. Especially, emotional and instrumental support buffers against stressful experiences in the military (Britt, 1999, p. 7; Milgram, Orenstein, & Zafriir, 1989, p. 186). On the other hand, a recruit who perceives others as a source of discomfort (e.g. due to hazing or bullying) is more likely to experience trouble in social adjustment and find withdrawal more attractive than group membership (Sawrey & Telford, 1971, pp. 43–44).

Strong cohesion among group members and the normative code form the basis for the conscripts' solidarity and social support (Hockey, 1986, p. 130). In a cohesive group the recruits are accepted by the group members and leaders and, in turn, the recruits are loyal and committed to the group (Fisher, 1983, p. 4). The sense of belonging to a cohesive unit appears as helping and reciprocal support that is shared among the members (McBreen, 2002, p. 7; Pearlin, 1985, p. 45). Eventually, the recruits start to rely on the support of others for information, encouragement, and friendship (Bourne, 1967, p. 195; Fisher, 1983, p. 15; Mechanic, 1974, pp. 34–35), which together keep up effective functions in a squad and a platoon.

Group cohesion comes up with strong attachment, identification, and pride in the unit, as well as commitment and trust in peers and immediate leaders, and a “one for all – all for one” spirit in a unit (Milgram et al., 1989, pp. 191, 195–196). Since cohesion has been noticed to have positive effects on group performance (op.cit. p. 195) and reducing experienced stress/strain (Britt, 1999, p. 7; Farley & Catano, 2006, p. 291; Farley & Veitch, 2003, p. 362; Kviz, 1978, pp. 224–225) there are several cohesion programs in the military. An example of this area the Marine Corps programs that exploit cohesion to improve the morale and reduce turnover (GAO, 1998c, p. 53).

*Negative Attitudes and Behavior Despite of Positive Social Adjustment.* There are several reasons why conscripts create negative attitudes toward their duty, despite successful group formation and tight bonds between the group members. One reason is that after socialization, the military organization shifts its focus from revision of the members’ attitudes and norms to competence-related training. Thus, there are fewer socialization efforts to keep up individual motivation and identification with the unit than during BT. A rupture in the socialization process is definitely introduced with less direct control and change in core activities, where the conscripts are allowed to adopt with a realistic view of the military organization, dictated by a fatalistic, cynical, and pessimistic form of soldiering among conscripts (Hockey, 1986, pp. 87, 123). The second possible reason lies in how a military unit generates crumbling socialization effects by assigning a conscript with a too simple task where the conscript experiences boredom due to lack of meaningful (advanced) training and activities (Ingraham, 1983, p. 42).

Third, a cohesive group may also create inappropriate norms against official military tasks (Winslow, 1999, p. 453) if the conscripts are allowed to alter the values and redefine the relationships and actions that are rewarded (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985, pp. 292, 311). Consequently, the values and aspirations of group members are conducive to negligence and dereliction of duty, and when they are rooted in the norms of a group with high solidarity, it is extremely difficult to revise this development (op.cit. p. 293). At the stage where the primary group is more important than the unit or the army, group bonding starts to undermine the legitimate authority and organizational effectiveness (Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 94; Winslow, 1999, p. 453). Then, peer pressure influences the behavior and attitudes more than organizational leadership, policy, and training (Wakenhut, 1979, p. 627). Some commonly used techniques perfected by group members to avoid official demands are (a) keeping out of sight, (b) saying and doing nothing if not asked to, (c) making current work looking more demanding or time-consuming to evade the next one, (d) never volunteering, and (e) getting sick by faked or self-induced illness (Hockey, 1986, pp. 88–90).

In general, a poorly conducted maintenance phase of socialization without any knowledge about the rules of social groups and interpersonal relations have several negative outcomes in individual motivation to service and identification with the military, as well as in lower performance rates and harmful norms at the group-level. While these can be seen as conscripts’ effective coping strategies targeted to lessen the environmental stress introduced by officials, the employment of these strategies imply also that the person or the group members are not fully integrated to the organizational goals in their socialization process.

*Social Support.* Since the other group members are influential in terms of attitudes and behavior of the individual and they are present practically all the time, the available social peer support and the providers' resources directly affect the success of the military adjustment process (Fisher, 1983, p. 15). Social support is defined as "the provision of positive psychological, emotional, and material resources to a person through interpersonal relationships" (Quick, Joplin, Nelson, Mangelsdorff, & Friendler, 1996, p. 281). It can be conceptualized as "the number and quality of friendships or caring relationships" for providing emotional and instrumental support (Fisher, 1983, p. 2), enhancing an individual's well-being, and facilitating coping in stressful situations (Pierce et al., 1990, p. 173).

The availability and effect of social support depend on the following determinants: (1) the social network, (2) the quality of supportive behavior, (3) personal traits for receiving support, and (4) the match between support and the social situation in a group (cf. Vaux, 1988). People tend to enlarge their supportive network to complement and reinforce their own resources for confronting stressful experiences (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 688). The basic meaning of a supportive network is that it allows an individual to extend his or her resources with those of the supporters to cope with more difficult adjustment problems (Hobfoll et al., 1990, p. 467). The main assumption of this approach is that a person with a strong social network has better chances for receiving support and also coping in a stressful event (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 686; Pearlin, 1985, p. 44; Pierce et al., 1990, p. 174).

Cohen and Hoberman (1983) have examined the nature and impact of supportive behavior with an Interpersonal Support Evaluation List. This instrument assesses four aspects of social support: (a) tangible support, such as material aid (e.g. proper shoes, better clothes, schooling supplies, radios and TVs in accommodation), (b) appraisal support referring to having someone to discuss problems with, (c) self-esteem support provided by a peer or a leader who thinks positively of the person, and (d) belonging support, which stands for having someone to do things with. It is generally assumed that specific stressors need particular supportive resources, and the interaction of these supportive relationships has a different impact on coping and adjustment in stressful situations.

Some researchers have emphasized that a supportive network and supportive behavior are not enough for effective support in a group. Cutrona (1990, p. 9) examined what kind of social support matches with particular stressors. She found that instrumental support and esteem support are the most effective in preventing the consequences of controllable stressors, whereas uncontrollable stressors are alleviated more effectively by utilizing emotional support expressed by caring and concern. Sandal et al. (1999, p. 400) present three situations where social support does not alleviate the experienced stress: (a) the interpersonal relationships are poor, (b) the relationships only increase stress (or are the source of it), or (c) the group practices do not value or consider the emotional needs of its members.

The own primary group is the best place to receive social support for several reasons. In the military, the intensity of interpersonal ties is outstanding, and stressful and even threatening situations cause a need to rely on the others' help (Moskos, 1988, p. 3). The group members are more responsive and helping to a person's stress since they are close to the stressors and understand the person's needs for coping and help, and also know that they may be in the same situation some day (e.g. Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 689; Pearlin, 1985, pp.

48–49). Due to similar experiences, the group members develop a shared understanding and empathy that promotes supportive actions (Milgram et al., 1989, p. 196). The knowledge about the functions and methods of social support can be taken into account in adjustment programs. For example, leaders and group members can in a positive sense monitor other members to assure that help is available at once when it is needed (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 115). The basis for supportive relations is sustained by creating an open atmosphere in the organization that values the members' welfare, promotes communication among privates and between ranks, and encourages helping.

*The Meaning of Social Support in the Adjustment Process.* The perceived availability of social support is associated with positive coping and personal adjustment (Fisher et al., 1983, p. 9; Legree, 2004, p. 16; Weiner, 1990, p. 22) and with the conscripts' ability to maintain a minimum level of psychological comfort (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 28). For example, positive social support in squads and platoons reduces homesickness, helps adjustment, strengthens commitment, and decreases attrition (op.cit. p. 84). House (1981, pp. 30–32) specifies the mechanisms of social support and divides them to three categories: (a) the main, direct effect on outcomes, (b) the main, direct effect on stressors, and (c) the moderating, buffering effect. The buffering effect refers to the situation where stress does not lead to negative outcomes if social support is provided, but does so without the social support (Fisher, 1983, p. 3; Pierce et al., 1990, p. 177).

First, the theory and research on social support demonstrates that social support has direct effects on outcomes. Specifically, social support is positively associated with adjustment outcomes (Fisher, 1983, p. 15; Quick et al., 1996, p. 281), such as satisfaction (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 689), commitment, and intention to stay in the duty (Fisher, 1983, p. 12; Fisher et al., 1983, p. 9), and the person's well-being in general (Solomon et al., 1986, p. 1270). Second, House's (1981, p. 31) expectation about the direct effect of social support on reducing perceived stress is also supported (Fisher, 1983, p. 15; Fisher et al., 1983, p. 9). Third, the buffering hypothesis is based on the premise that social support protects an individual from a stressful environment because emotional or instrumental support facilitates coping under a high level of stress (Britt, 1999, p. 8; Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 691; House, 1981, p. 32; Solomon et al., 1986, p. 1270). Therefore, in a highly stressful situation, such as during role taking in the socialization process, social support is exceptionally useful for mitigating the effect of "the reality shock" (Van Maanen, 1976, p. 90). Interestingly, stress is unrelated to negative outcomes when social support is available and related to, for instance, lower satisfaction and higher turnover without the presence of social support (Fisher, 1983, p. 6).

Despite the results presented above, not all research has found a significant buffering effect of social support (e.g. Fisher et al., 1983, p. 9), suggesting that both stress and social support have compound and multifaceted effects on an individual's well-being (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 685). The strong relation of group cohesion and received social support have led to an interpretation in research that it is group cohesion which protects against negative outcomes under stress (Milgram et al., 1989, p. 195). In this type of reasoning, for example Farley and Veitch (2003, pp. 353, 360–361) observed that both task (instrumental) and social (emotional) cohesion moderate the relation between stress and strain.

In spite of the different interpretations, the theory and research emphasize in concord how social support is a critical human element in the military adjustment process. The group members are perhaps the best source of social support by providing encouragement, conversations, help and advice, as well as information (Moreland et al., 2001, p. 90). The reference group forms a basis for reducing problems and performing coordinated actions (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 112). Perhaps this is why the Finnish conscripts experience the least amount of problems due to other conscripts, compared to other situational factors and military experiences (Hintala, 2004, pp. 22, 27). As a conclusion, the primary group and positive interpersonal relationships are indispensable for successful adjustment, because received acceptance and emotional support make the situation tolerable despite of a great amount of situational stress (Ingraham & Manning, 1980, p. 27; Solomon et al., 1986, pp. 1269–1270). Moreover, other squad members and the squad leader are character references for a conscript's attitudes and actions, and sometimes just following the peers' and leaders' behavioral example saves from much harm.

### **3.4 Summary of Situational and Organizational Adjustment Factors**

This chapter described how the socialization process and organizational practices affect the expectations, satisfaction, and motivation of recruits after induction, and their adjustment later on (Perry et al., 1991, p. 114). In military socialization, the recruits internalize the appropriate attitudes and values of the elder contingent and their leaders, acquire proper roles in the unit, adopt group norms and organizational regulations, and learn particular soldiering skills (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 3). Besides facilitating socialization, routine organizational practices operate like a well-planned correctional re-training program concentrating on intense barracks living, strict regimentation and structure, all-covering surveillance, and personalized attention to meet the requirements, minimize disobedience, reward exceptional organization-orientated behavior, and train basic soldier and combatant skills (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 97).

The military socialization has been a success if the recruit considers the group and organizational goals as worthwhile and in his or her long-term best interests (Ward, 1999, p. 2). More specifically, conscripts are integrated with the military culture and the essence of organizational norms when the conscripts use the same language patterns, perform in congruence with rules and norms, employ objects for the same meaning, tell stories about the group and organizational customs and traditions, honor their common accomplishments, acknowledge the gestures of others, heed organizational standards, and behave in a way the recruits believe is correct, expected, and appropriate in a unit (Van Maanen, 1983, pp. 7, 38). The outcome of the military socialization process is a condition where impersonal, obedient and reliable people willingly replicate standard, predictable, and collective actions in a traditional, normative way.

Organizational factors permeate the characteristics of the military unit and the traditional ways of action. Therefore, the recruits are able to influence their situational and organizational factors only to a limited extent and the rest depends in their ability to adjust to the given situation. One main part of the organizational factors (see Table 1) that require adjustment



## ORGANIZATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE MILITARY LIFE

### **Military culture, authoritarian relationships, and all-encompassing regimentation**

- a *total institution*
- *formal, collective, sequential, serial, and divestiture socialization methods*
- military culture with masculine, warrior ethos
- insulation from civilian life
- organizational design sets climate and atmosphere in the unit
  - o bureaucratic routines and procedures
  - o personnel policy
  - o authority structure
  - o coordination and control
  - o service requirements and unit standards
  - o allowed and sanctioned behavior
  - o quality and quantity of information and feedback
- organizational and group-related expectations and responsibilities
- highly structured programs and controlled time and space
- long, hectic days
- working and living in an authoritarian environment where the orders are meant to be followed and require formal communication with leaders (power distance)
- all-embracing rules and implicit norms that inculcate with military discipline, control, and obedience
- demanded compliance and conformity (only limited, acceptable behavior patterns are tolerated, and every move and even thought is guided)
- low status and little control
- lack of information (knowledge) and information load at the same time (sensory overload due to multiple guidelines, rules, and requirements combined with fast pace)
- constant surveillance and pervasive observation and evaluation by leaders

### **From personal to social identity**

- social standards for personal knowledge, skills and behavior
- new roles as a part of the military role modeling and role taking
- ignorance of previous characteristics and steered change of personal identity social identity obscures the personal identity
- the whole existence is predetermined as part of a group
- from self-determination to social control equal, shared experiences and identical, collective responses

### **Military training and performance**

- (high) performance standards
- formalized training programs
- planned learning experiences where no credit to previous knowledge and skills
- training aiming at disciplined, motivated, committed, physically and mentally fit fighters (demands for growth of the whole person in terms of cognitive, social, ethical, emotional, and physical development)
- selections for leadership and training programs (minimum requirements that need to be met if the person wants to keep at least some options available)
- privileges and punishments
- rewards, recognitions, and promotions

*Table 1.* Organizational Aspects of the Military Life

is related to the military training which goes along with the socialization process. Training imposes demands for learning duty-related skills, dealing with supervisors, adjusting to the reality of the organization, and developing a social identity in a squad and a unit (Schein, 1980, p. 240). Particularly, a recruit is confronted with multiple training-related challenges that create anxiety, such as increased information load, low task significance, lack of sleep, strict timetable, and increased physical demands (cf. Britt, 1999, p. 9). These organizational factors have an unforgettable impact in the beginning of service and they force the recruits to adjust to the system or drop out; these factors either make or break the recruits (Thompson & Gignac, 2001, p. 14). Indeed, these demands may be different from what is accustomed to in the civilian life and, therefore, difficult to cope with.

Another part of organizational stressors are social in origin. Thus, besides training-related factors, the social aspects of the military are of a great concern for the recruits (at least before service). Especially, recruits have concerns on how their supervisors will deal with them. Also social experiences, such as lack of privacy and forced interaction, impose interpersonal tension and personal stress (e.g. Gal, 1986, p. 98; Sandal et al., 1999, p. 399). Generally, the main stressors of social experiences in the military are derived from the specific nature of the situation; being isolated from family and friends, with constant presence of unknown people, and under multiple demands of authority.

Situational factors not only cause harm to the recruits' adjustment process, but being exposed to highly structured, predetermined daily experiences among closely knit group members brings some valuable benefits. For example, training-related stress is reduced with challenging, qualitative, and yet gradually demanding physical and duty-related training programs, and sufficient, adequate information and feedback. In spite of social pressure, the social conditions of the military are most valuable for reducing stress and easing the life in the military. Actually, thanks to the social pressure, a group effectively fosters positive incentives and group identification with service that, in the long run, alleviate the conscripts' adjustment. Peer and leader support are the main situational factors that together assure successful adjustment and help meeting other organizational demands (Fisher, 1983, pp. 12, 14). If the conscripts have confidence in their supervisors, and if the squad leaders provide leader support, the conscripts have great buffers against stressful experiences (Farley & Catano, 2006, pp. 289–290). With the leaders' care for and personal attention to their subordinates and a positive leadership climate, the organization can make a difference in the military adjustment process. Tables 2 and 3 summarize some of the situational aspects that were related to positive adjustment experiences in the above discussed literature.

**Leaders that support individual well-being and facilitate military adjustment**

(in ensuring that both emotional and instrumental objectives are reached) recognize the need of balance between taskwork and teamwork, and therefore

- manage the group, define rules and procedures
- plan a timetable, training, and physical environment
- motivate, set a vision and goals
- maintain order and safety
- establish proper norms
- establish role expectations
- direct behaviors and actions to creative and constructive activities
- teach and educate
- show interest and involvement
- are committed to group activities, goals, and its members
- recognize problems and find solutions for them
- share information
- make sense of what is happening
- give feedback and reinforcements
- strengthen self-efficacy
- demonstrate competence
- serve as role models
- devote attention to social and emotional satisfaction of group members
- foster group belongingness and organizational commitment
- create and support unit image and pride
- affect the aspirations, values, and aims of the members
- care and respect
- build trust and appreciation among group members
- ease interaction (communication and cooperation)
- provide support and guidance
- reduce uncertainty and anxiety
- prop up self-confidence and self-esteem

*Table 2.* Characteristics of Leader Behavior that Support Military Adjustment

The order of the sentences listed on Table 2 above conforms the scale from taskwork to teamwork. Actually, several dimensions could be recognized when these elements are placed on this scale. However, most of these dimensions are at least partly parallel, and they could be defined in the following five bipolar sets of optional continuums: first, instrumental vs. emotional, second, group vs. person, third, goal-orientation and taskwork vs. social orientation and teamwork, fourth, formal vs. informal relationships, and fifth, satisfaction about achieving something vs. satisfaction about being together. For example, research could consider these different ends of social life and their impact on leadership, social integration, achievement of goals, or personal satisfaction.

In addition to leadership, social group membership was brought up as a key factor in influencing adjustment experiences. Table 3 summarizes those details relevant in the adjustment process that were mentioned above when discussing literature.

**Social group membership determines the closest environment for adjustment to take place. In a group, the person faces and experiences**

- group formation process
- identical daily activities and options
- the same status and requirements
- shared experiences and time
- closeness, passive contacts, and face-to-face interaction
- constant presence of peers and intense interpersonal relations
- social comparison and learning
- shared tasks and social knowledge
- performance as a group
- normative codes
- group rewards and punishments
- isolation and alienation
- teasing, hazing, and bullying
- reference and social pressure for controlling attitudes and behavior
- attitudinal consensus and behavioral conformity
- social identity
- group discussions
- provided encouragement, conversations, help and advice (i.e. emotional and instrumental support)
- close friendship
- shared understanding and empathy
- sense of mutual respect, and responsibility
- commitment and trust in peers
- sense of solidarity, belonging, and identification with group members
- identification with and pride in the unit

*Table 3. Social Group Membership Influences Military Adjustment*

On the basis of the outlined framework, the situational and environmental factors of the military organization affect the success of the conscripts' adjustment process. In conscript service, the main practice in the units is training, which fills the daylight time. Specifically, it is expected that the quality of training, the provided training information and feedback, the quality of PT, and the quality of used equipment are all related to adjustment; the more the conscripts value their training experiences the better they adjust to the military service. In addition to training, regimentation is an aspect that encloses recruits in the military. Therefore, better perceived regimentation in the unit could be reflected by more positive adjustment responses. Unit climate and atmosphere form another dimension that is expected to associate with the conscript's adjustment perceptions in a way that a more positive unit climate is experienced by the conscripts who have better adjusted to the military than others. Altogether, training, regimentation, and unit climate are considered tools for assessing organizational adjustment factors in the conscript service.

Besides the organizational characteristics, this chapter took into account social adjustment factors (i.e. the interpersonal context and social relations in the units). The main conclusion is that the specific social circumstances determine the conscripts' well-being and the result of the military adjustment process. The social aspects were divided to two main dimensions:

peers and leaders. The conscript leaders and instructors are the closest authorities during the conscript service and therefore the good relations with the squad and platoon leader and the instructor can promote the conscript's adjustment process in the military. On the other hand, the majority of their time conscripts spent with their peers in the squad and platoon, and both the duty and off-duty experiences are affected by the other conscripts. Consequently, the quality of relations in the squad was consistently related to the conscript's military adjustment which is corroborated by previous studies as well.

## 4 PERSONAL FACTORS INFLUENCING ADJUSTMENT AND ATTRITION

The military has gathered biodata factors that are related to the successful adjustment of recruits, such as personality or temperament, attitudes towards the military, expectations and intentions, cognitive ability, physical fitness, past behavior (i.e. deviance), social/family relations, social status, and schooling (e.g. HumRRO, 2004, p. 150). Laurence and Waters (1993, p. 41) amusingly address such biodata as standing for background and behavioral elements (“B”), interest measures (“I”), other items (“O”), demographics (“D”), attitudes and accomplishments (“A”), temperaments (“T”), and anything else that is suitable (“A”). The main asset of biodata is that they measure a wide array of personal attributes and motivation and not only cognitive abilities and education level, as earlier studies did (e.g. in the 1980s) for a prediction of personal adjustment, turnover, or performance (Trent, 1993, p. 93). In all, the categories and elements mentioned above are independently related with military performance, and in different combinations have a complex effect on the adjustment process.

As far as possible, the present research was designed to address all the major categories of variables that are influential in predicting adjustment success at the individual service member level, in addition to the organizational level factors that were discussed in the previous chapter. In this chapter, predictive models of adjustment and turnover (i.e. attrition) are constructed with several factors: (a) personality characteristics and attitudes (i.e. emotional stability, sociability, acceptance of authority, affective commitment, achievement motivation, and expectations), (b) physical fitness, (c) behavioral and socio-economic background variables, (d) demographic items, (e) cognitive ability measures, and (f) educational background items. Next, it will be discussed how these factors have been utilized in previous studies and in their adjustment and attrition (i.e. turnover) models.

### 4.1 Personality Characteristics

Recruits, although having psychological resources allowing adaptive and effective behavior, may be unfitted to the military organization due to their personality characteristics (i.e. values, attitudes, intentions, and behavioral orientations) that contradict the situational and organizational requirements. This section is about such personality and affective attributes of conscripts’ values, expectations, and attitudes (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 58) and their relations to military adjustment.

From a broad point of view, personality refers to the “traits, needs, motives, goals, attitudes, interests, determining tendencies, and generalized dispositions of a personal-social character” and hence it differs from cognitive ability or performance factors (Milgram, 1991, p. 559). Thus, personality is not a clear entity but rather a person’s unique organization of dynamic behavioral tendencies, motives, values, and attitudes (Sawrey & Telford, 1971, pp. 271–273, 316). Personality is argued to affect the adjustment process (HumRRO, 2004, p. 153) due to its effect on the coping styles (Hewitt & Flett, 1996, pp. 410). In such an approach (i.e. a mediating model), personality affects the employed coping styles, which, in turn,

determine adjustment success or failure. Alternatively, personality and coping styles could be perceived to independently contribute to maladjustment (i.e. an additive model), or personality characteristics to interact with certain coping styles to produce maladjustment (an interactive model) (op.cit. p. 411). Regardless of the employed theoretical model, personality is argued to affect the adjustment process. This is supported by prior results in the literature. For example, personality characteristics, such as low self-esteem, a high frustration level, problems with authority, and high aggression, are often found among disadvantaged soldiers who are likely to drop out from the service (Dovrat, 1995, p. 6). Similarly, the more problems a recruit has with morale, self-discipline, self-esteem, pride, and commitment, the slighter is his or her likelihood to stay in service (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 8; Hayden, 2000, p. 8; Moore, 2002, pp. 267, 269, 274).

Personality is commonly assessed with five separate trait domains (Digman, 1990, pp. 418–428): (1) the extraversion – introversion dimension connects socially outgoing individuals with reserved ones; (2) neuroticism – emotional stability confronts people with anxiety, worries, and negative affect with calm, stable, and relaxed people; (3) openness to experience characterizes inquisitive people who need and seek out new experiences, whereas the end of the continuum prefers familiar activities and situations; (4) agreeableness – antagonism contrasts trust, altruism, and conformity with cynical, skeptical, and antagonistic attitudes and behavior; and (5) conscientiousness-unreliability distinguishes systematic, purposeful, and achievement-oriented behavior from disorganized, unreliable people with low ambitious (Barrick & Mount, 1996, pp. 261–262; Chan, 2004, p. 304; Costa & McCrae, 1992, pp. 5–6; McCormack & Mellor, 2002, p. 194; Vickers, 1991, p. 6).

Inference on these personality traits can be made on the basis of a person's behavior or testing his or her responses to particular attitudes and intentions. In this research, the “big five” trait domains are not directly measured, although some scales related to personality characteristics are used. Specifically, in this research the conscripts assessed how their personality matched with some situational demands, such as stress vs. their emotional stability; social pressures vs. their sociability and social adjustment; regimentation vs. their readiness to accept authority; and training demands vs. their achievement motivation. Particularly, these are measures that link the situational and organizational adjustment factors (cf. the previous chapter) to the personal adjustment resources. In other words, such measures as quality training, PT, climate and atmosphere, platoon and squad leaders, and peer cohesion concern the current state of organizational factors and stressors, whereas the measures drawn from this chapter take into account the personal abilities to confront the organizational reality (i.e. military training, regimentation, leadership, and social peer relationships).

In this research, some of the main adjustment-related scales have been adapted from previous studies (e.g. Parkkola, 1999, pp. 151–152, 164–172 – emotional stability, sociability, and stressful life events) and from official military questionnaires (e.g. acceptance of authority, achievement motivation, cohesion). In the following, the main measures utilized for this research are described together with prior research and results. This is done to simplify the text and make it easier to follow the line of previous results – previous measures – current measures. In other words, the main measures of personal adjustment predictors are based on previous literature on adjustment and attrition, and they are utilized in the following manner.

In previous literature, personality traits have been linked with adjustment and attrition. For example, HumRRO's (2004, p. 53) report indicates how moral characteristics are especially useful for predicting later turnover. On the other hand, Zook (1996, p. 40) has noted the value of the Effort and Leadership dimensions for understanding job performance in the military. In the Finnish military, the *Aptitude test 2* (i.e. *P2-test*) assesses the general personality characteristics of the person, such as his or her emotional stability, sociability and leadership characteristics, more than merely the cognitive capacity of the recruits. The test contains two parts: a personality test, which especially assesses emotional stability and hardiness, and a leadership inventory. Both subtests have had adequate reliability ( $\alpha = .88$ , on average), and they have been related to later assessed leadership abilities (Kulomäki & Nyman, 2004, pp. 11, 20; Nyman, 2007, pp. 36–37, 58, 65, 85). Since personality characteristics have been positively related to adjustment and negatively to attrition, this research utilizes the general score of the personality test to predict adjustment, turnover, and performance in conscript service.

Generally, the theory and research on coping and adjustment indicate that social adjustment and sociability have an influence on successful adjustment experiences (Stouffer et al., 1949, p. 133). For instance, Sandal et al. (1999, pp. 382, 398) suggest that instrumental, socially sensitive people are more capable of using coping strategies adaptively, and hence adjusting more easily to demanding situations. Also, a social, cooperative person gets along with others and is a good team player (White, Nord, Mael, & Young, 1993, p. 105). Similarly, relational competence promotes appropriate social behavior in social situations (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 690). In the present research, *Sociability* is a 6-item-scale that contrasts socially outgoing and adaptive recruits with reserved ones (cf. extraversion – introversion). It contains such items as *I have adjusted to dormitory accommodation, I can adjust to being around people I do not know, Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing, and It is easy for me to make new friends* that reflect both attitude and aptitude to social adjustment and integration with peers (e.g. Dovrat, 1995, p. 43; Shaw et al., 1983, p. 23).

Not only social aspects of personality are seen important in the military adjustment process. For example, Parkkola (1999, pp. 56, 62) noted that depressed and emotionally unstable conscripts had a higher risk of turnover. Similarly, Zook (1996, p. 52) concludes that effective fighters are more emotionally stable, dominant, and socially mature. Klein, Hawes-Dawson, and Martin (1991, p. 33) found that remarks of mental health problems are strongly related to maladjustment and attrition, and for instance thoughts about committing suicide were noted five times more often in dropouts than in those who completed their military obligation (Benbenishty et al., 1993, p. 166). Larson, Booth-Kewley, and Ryan (2002, p. 771) used a “depression / anxiety” factor which accounted for the variance (11.6 %) in predicting attrition more than any other risk factor. Furthermore, they conclude that the best predictors of maladjustment are of a psychological and behavioral nature, not demographic or medical (op.cit. p. 775). Similarly, Zook (1996, p. 49) stresses that *Emotional Stability* was the best predictor of one-year turnover within the set of predictor scales in her study. In addition to adjustment, emotional stability is in relation to a positive affect and good performance under stress (White et al., 1993, p. 105). Also, Vickers and Conway (1983, p. 13) note that recruits who have an ability to manage emotional reactions succeed better in BT. Overall, mental health problems prevent adaptation to the military (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 8).



Parkkola (1999, pp. 55–63; Parkkola, Tuominen, & Piha, 1997, pp. 373–374) employed the subscale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Depression Scale (MMPI) (e.g. Davis & Widseth, 1977, p. 995) and showed that information about the extent of conscripts' psychological distress was useful for identifying people who were in risk of attrition in military service. In this research, items which were the most effective predictors of attrition in Parkkola's (1999, pp. 62, 75; Parkkola et al., 1997, p. 374) Finnish sample were utilized for assessing emotional stability prior and during military service. Specifically, the *Emotional Stability* scale implies items that measure conscripts' anxiety, depressiveness, and negative affect (cf. Chan, 2004; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Davis & Widseth, 1977), such as *I often feel depressed, I have had suicidal thoughts, I have often had feelings that life is not worth living, I am often anxious and tense, and If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently*. This scale gives the conscript's own estimation of his or her mental health, which is studied in line with cognitive and personality ability tests and stressful life change variables.

Soldiers inclined to acceptance of authority and the military regime, are more likely to adjust and complete their military service (Antel et al., 1987, p. 3). In this research, *Acceptance of Authority* includes such items as *It is easy for me to obey given orders, I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded, Discipline during the training situations is too strict, and It annoys me that as a conscript I have to compromise over my personal comfort*. This scale quantifies how a conscript respects authority, values discipline, and obeys military rules and regulations (cf. agreeableness) or, in the other end, opposes and questions authority and other norms, beliefs, and values (Zook, 1996, p. 40).

In general, *Achievement Motivation* refers to readiness and motivation to cognitive coping (e.g. Shaw et al., 1983, p. 23). Achievement motivation is in negative relation with avoidance, passive expectancies, and palliative reactions, whereas good motivation is associated with both social and leadership factors (Sandal et al., 1999, p. 394). In this research, achievement motivation contrasts learning and achievement-motivated behavior with an uninterested orientation (cf. conscientiousness) and comprises such items as *I want to learn things that are taught thoroughly and I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding*.

According to the theory and research on adjustment and maladjustment, stress is related to maladjustment, and when stress overcomes the conscript's ability to cope with the military service, dropping out is one extensively used option for dealing with the stressful situation. For example, Vickers (1991, pp. 4–8) argues and demonstrates that some people are more stress resistant than others (also Vickers, Hervig, & Bischoff, 1991, p. 2). Later, it has been shown how stress resistant recruits have a lower likelihood to turnover than stress reactive recruits (Vickers et al., 1993, pp. 14, 26).

Rahe (e.g. Holmes & Rahe, 1967, pp. 214, 216; Rahe, McKean, & Arthur, 1967, p. 357) examined more than 40 stressful life events and their relative weights for causing somatic and psychological problems by utilizing the Social Readjustment Rating Questionnaire. Parkkola (1999, pp. 92–94; Parkkola et al., 1997, p. 374) further studied the life changes and their impact on military attrition, and showed that conscripts are sensitive in stressful life events, such as having no money or substantial loans, sleeping disorders, quarrels at home, a disease, an injury, or a relationship that ended (Parkkola, 1999, pp. 52, 64, 75). Adopted from

Parkkola's (1999) research, six items of *Stressful Life Events* measured whether conscripts had such experiences in the year prior to service or during their service. Altogether, the MMPI subscale (i.e. *Emotional Stability*) and *Stressful Life Changes* complement one another in distinguishing recruits with a higher failure risk in the military (Parkkola et al., 1997, pp. 376–377), and combined with the personality test (i.e. Aptitude test 2), this battery of measures creates a comprehensive tool for assessing the adjustment-related characteristics of soldiers.

## 4.2 Commitment to Military Service

*Commitment.* In organizational socialization, the military creates identification and commitment that binds the recruits with a unit and its members (Heffner & Rentsch, 2001, p. 473; Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 72; Moskos, 1981, p. 5). Commitment (to the group) is indicated by “acceptance of the individual’s needs and values, positive affective ties to the individual, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the individual and to fulfill his or her expectations, and desire to gain or retain the individual as a group member” (Moreland & Levine, 1982, p. 149). Commitment to a group rises when the recruit prefers his or her group membership more than other available options. On the other hand, the group is committed to a person, when the group members value the fact that the person contributes to the functions of the group.

Commitment is in strong relation to perceived stress, as committed recruits report lower stress levels than uncommitted service members (Harris et al., 2005, p. 7), and more broadly, commitment is related to the whole adjustment process – indirectly: affective commitment is one of the strongest predictors of experienced stress which in turn determines the attrition in the military, as well as directly: affective commitment affects attrition cognitions in service (HumRRO, 2004, pp. 111, 119, 300). Moskos (1990, pp. 5–6) proposes that latent patriotism underlies all commitment and motives in the military. This argument links the primary socialization process, where a person is culturally induced with values, attitudes, and commitments, with the organizational socialization, where the person-environment fit of values determines the success of adjustment in the military. Similarly, Antel et al. (1987, p. 16) argue that the more the soldiers prefer the military life based on their “tastes”, the lower will be the amount of turnover. Stouffer and his colleagues (1949, pp. 86–87) measured commitment and satisfaction to the military to assess adjustment success. Sümer (2004a, pp. 2–6) integrates similar predictors, but interestingly conceptualizes them to distal, mediating, and proximal factors of military turnover and ascertains that personal and organizational adjustment factors (as distant factors) affect turnover intentions (i.e. proximal factors) through commitment, job satisfaction, and quality of life perceptions (i.e. mediating factors).

According to Meyer and Allen's (1997) conceptualization there are three separate components of commitment: affective, normative, and continuance. Affective commitment denotes to the person's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization while continuance commitment implies an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Normative commitment refers to conscripts' belief or feeling of obligation that they ought to remain in the organization (op.cit. p. 93). Low commitment to the unit

and to military service can be demonstrated in an active way when a conscript struggles against his or her service by avoiding it (e.g. seeking medical exemptions from training, or even dropping out of the system—attrition) (Stouffer et al., 1949, pp. 88–89), or in a passive way when a conscript shows little initiative or desire of learning during training (Dovrat, 1995, p. 5). In other studies, commitment is related particularly with turnover (i.e. attrition) (Karttunen, Puruskainen, Rinne, & Tahvanainen, 2001, p. 27). For example, Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000, p. 480) prove in their meta-analysis that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are the primary antecedents of turnover (besides quitting intention, which is the best predictor of turnover). This has been further examined in a study which proves that low commitment predicts the intent to quit ( $r = .71$ ), and how commitment is indirectly related to actual separation via these intentions (Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004, p. 57).

The present research argues that personal and organizational factors influence satisfaction and commitment that, in turn, determine adjustment success and intentions to quit from service. Two factors are used to measure conscripts' affective and normative commitment to the military. The *Affective Commitment* scale assesses conscripts' positive affect and feelings about their service and the military in general, consisting of such items as *The military service is useless and unnecessary*, *I am not interested in military service*, and *I am highly motivated to complete my military service*. The *Normative Commitment* measure tests how much conscription is thought to be a normative duty that should be performed. It comprises such items as *All men should carry out the military service as a part of total defense* and *The military service is every male citizen's duty*.

### 4.3 Prior Information and Expectations about Service

In thinking about the military service, future conscripts are likely to consider how well they will adjust to being away from their current environment; how well they will meet the probable physical demands of military service; whether they will fit in socially; and whether they will adjust to the expected orders, regimentation, and personal deprivations (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, pp. 40–41, 97). Overall, there are four broad categories of factors that are in play after the first encounter with the military: unmet expectations, military-family concerns, military-related attitudes (e.g. satisfaction and commitment), and person-environment fit (Sümer, 2004b, pp. 1–4).

During anticipatory socialization (i.e. the investigation phase), conscripts are exposed to contacts with prior or current members of the military (Levine et al., 1996, p. 542). In the conscription military, almost every man has some of the following military-civilian environment relations: a father, a brother, relatives, or friends that have served or, conversely, selected an alternative for service. They all affect the prospective recruit by their behavior, attitudes, and stories about challenges in their own service (Dovrat, 1995, p. 55). Particularly family and friends are utilized as a source of information (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 27; Pancer et al., 2000, p. 53) and support (Thompson & Gignac, 2001, p. 9), since information received from family or friends is esteemed as accurate (Barrios-Choplin et al.,

1999, p. 27) and captivating, although it may be counterproductive to adjustment as well (Gal, 1986, p. 100). Consequently, the person develops an attitude towards service prior to entry into the military and by doing so he or she has begun the socialization process.

Especially the *attitudes of significant others* shape conscripts' attitudes towards or against the military (Hayden, 2000, p. 4). The actual influence of family values and attitudes were discerned in Faris' (1981, pp. 551, 557) study where he noted that military offspring are twice more likely to enlist to the military service, reflecting a greater familiarity with regimentation and a stronger attachment to the values congruent with a military institution. Janowitz and Little (1974, p. 71) summarize that negative attitudes toward military forces are founded on personal factors (such as influence of friends and family) rather than military or ideological aspects. Similarly, values which sustain negative attitudes toward military service can also be passed on by friends and relatives (Faris, 1981, pp. 557–558). In addition to shaping conscripts' attitudes, significant others affect their adjustment and the likelihood of attrition (Shaw et al., 1983, p. 32). Of interest is that conscripts experiencing higher levels of stress are more likely to indicate discouragement from family and friends, and consequently service members with greater levels of stress are more likely to drop out of service compared to their peers (Harris et al., 2005, pp. 6, 9).

Since significant others are able to shape recruits' attitudes toward the military and in that way influence their orientation in service, the following questions were asked for the research: *My friends / girlfriend have a positive attitude towards military service, My parents have a positive attitude towards the military service, My father has completed the military service and his rank is the following, and I received most of the information about conscription from the following (e.g. media, school, parents, or friends).*

In addition to general attitudes, there is a particular piece of information that is also related to the adjustment process. Having *accurate and complete information* prior to induction is related to having positive expectations and adjustment in the military (Shaw et al., 1983, p. 5), whereas inadequate information is apt to cause dissatisfaction (Fisher et al., 1985, pp. 10–11). The prospective group member is supposed to gather as much information as possible required for an adequate, realistic picture of the future group membership (Brown, 2000, p. 27). Since not everyone gathers information actively, it is important for the supporting adjustment process that the military organization distributes enough pre-transfer information (Fisher et al., 1985, p. 10). To support this, the military provides booklets prior to service, preparing the recruits for military adjustment with some practical suggestions and useful coping strategies (Gal, 1986, pp. 98–99).

*Expectations* have a great role in socialization and adjustment problems (Fisher et al., 1983, p. 20; Van de Ven & Van Gelooven, 2006, p. 2). For example, those who have positive, realistic expectations are more likely to adjust by utilizing different effective coping strategies (Buddin, 1984, p. 19; Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 13–14). Fisher et al. (1985, p. 8) have compared the impact of realistic and unrealistic expectancies and discerned that realistic expectations do not protect more against adjustment problems compared to unrealistic, positive expectations. Therefore, they suggest that a positive self-fulfilling prophecy (i.e. positive and truthful prior information) should be provided prior to transfers or new experiences (op.cit. pp. 9, 12).

However, positive expectations and attitudes do not guarantee excellent adaptation; those who hope and expect to experience and attain high ends may have more difficulties to face the reality in the organization (Pancer et al., 2000, p. 39). In fact, too rosy and unrealistic information brings harm to the adjustment process due to a “rebound” effect in conscripts’ commitment once the reality is experienced (Brown, 2000, p. 27). Edgar, Riley, Brown, Diamond, & Lovell (2005, pp. 5–8) report that incongruence in *person–environment fit* and a breakdown in psychological contract may lead to negative affect and moreover to anti-citizenship behavior, such as AWOL, violence, or drink-related offences. Therefore, they suggest that both service members and their leaders should inform each other in terms of their expectations and obligations to promote congruence of fit and fulfillment of expectations. For example, Van de Ven and Van Gelooven (2006, pp. 3–4, 8) suggest that a better *person–environment fit* leads to an increase of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay in the military, which all together reduce military attrition.

Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 52) discuss how met expectations may moderate the extent to which organizational experiences are related to affective commitment. The blame for having *unmet expectations* is often put on the military organization which is not fulfilling its “obligations” (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 14). This only lowers the attitudes towards the military. For example, a realistic job preview is suggested to increase accuracy and realism of information, and consequently, to cause more met expectations in the organization (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, pp. 15–16). Also Laurence, Naughton, and Harris (1996, pp. 12–13) have noted how realistic, situation-specific scenarios are valuable in preventing unmet expectations and easing the adjustment process in the military. A conscript’s realistic expectations may be related to his or her aptitude, because those who have a good ability to plan and have more experience can evaluate their future and possibilities more accurately (Antel et al., 1987, pp. 10–12). Similarly, individuals with more complex information about the future organization experience less stress and adjust better than people with simpler knowledge (Pancer et al., 2000, pp. 42, 51–52, 54).

Based on prior information, some potential conscripts may contemplate the benefits that are gained (or opportunities that can be lost) and the experiences (positive or negative) that the military service offers. For example, some conscripts desire to get additional education or training in the military. Usually, such desire makes the adjustment more tolerable, increases positive expectations, and is an indicator of a recruit who has better planning skills (Antel et al., 1987, p. 10). Therefore, a recruit’s positive expectations and requests for *special training and a longer service period*, and whether they are met, strongly affect the conscript’s attrition and adjustment to the military (Hosek et al., 1989, pp. 393–394, 396, 399–400). Generally people are less likely to leave the military if they want to learn on the duty and expect more education (Antel et al., 1987, pp. 13, 32, 43). For example, Hosek, et al. (1989, p. 400) found that attrition was about a third lower for those who requested more education. Conversely, those who seek the minimum service period have a higher risk of maladjustment (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, pp. 11, 21). The intention to get more education and training is typically related to other characteristics of recruits; those who would like to achieve something during their conscript service have also better motivation, and perseverance to achieve their goals (Hosek et al., 1989, p. 397). Since the recruit’s expectations and requests for the training program and service period are strongly related to adjustment and attrition in the military (Catanzaro & Mearns, 1999, p. 75; Thompson & Gignac, 2001, p. 8), recruits’ orientation

to a requested duration of service provides a useful tool for previewing people who have a higher risk of maladjustment or attrition (e.g. Hicks & Nogami, 1984).

In the present research, it was asked whether the conscripts wanted to receive one of the following service options (a) six-month service, no matter what, (b) six months in a certain duty, (c) 9 or 12 months as a private, (d) 12 months and a squad leader, or (e) 12 months and a platoon leader. To assess whether the recruits had enough information or how their expectations were met, the following items were included in the questionnaires: *I have received enough information in advance about military service, I am stepping into military service with positive expectations, I was admitted to the same brigade (unit) that I had wished for in advance, and After basic training I have received the training I wished for.*

## **4.4 Personal Background Predictors of Adjustment and Attrition**

### **4.4.1 Demographic Items**

*Age.* The demographic variable most consistently related to adjustment is age. It is a commonly used predictor for adjustment and retention (or attrition), although the relation between age and adjustment is weak. Some researchers have found that older than 20-year-old recruits and service members adjust generally less well to the military service and are more likely to drop out than younger ones (Buddin, 1984, p. 21; 1988, p. 35; Elis, 1999, p. 32; Etcho, 1996, pp. 43, 52; Grissmer & Kirby, 1985, pp. 30, 35; McBride, 1993, p. 173; Perry et al., 1991, p. 113; Smith & Kendall, 1980, pp. 103–104) while some others (e.g. Antel et al., 1987, p. 32; Grissmer & Kirby, 1988, p. 56) have observed notably lower attrition rates for 18-year-old enlistees than other service members.

These findings contradict the results about the negative relation between age (i.e. maturation) and undesirable behavior (e.g. crimes) (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985, p. 26), although the maturation hypothesis matches with comparisons between 17 and 18 or 19-year-olds, since 17-year-old recruits have the highest risk for attrition, whereas only one or two years older men have the lowest turnover rates (e.g. Albiso & Buscher, 1985, p. 86; Elster & Flyer, 1982, pp. II–38–39; Flyer & Elster, 1983, p. 67; Smith & Kendall, 1980, pp. 59, 103–104). In all, maturation is only one minor aspect involved with undesirable behavior, which stands out in maladjustment, behavioral problems, and turnover in the military.

Perhaps the most important factor related to age is the timing of military service, since the years immediately following high school represent a crossroad in the lives of youth (Kearl & Nelson, 1992, p. 255). Elder et al. (1991, p. 217) argue that recruitment into the military shortly after graduation from high school (or elsewhere) gives an opportunity for delaying the entry into adulthood without fulltime commitments to work and family while getting ahead in life and experiencing personal growth in a school-like organized institution. In older ages (21 and above), the recruits have already more obligations in the civilian world, and delayed entry offers less value return. In some cases, the gap between the finishing of school and recruitment is a sign of maladjustment to the society, indicating avoidance

behavior (Laurence et al., 1996, p. 6). In this research age was recoded in the following way: 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23–26, and 26–29.

*Race and Gender.* Race and gender have been used as predictors of maladjustment. Although females have higher turnover rates than males in general (Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, pp. 762, 768; Elis, 1999, p. 27; Etcho, 1996, p. 43; GAO, 1998c, p. 31; Grissmer & Kirby, 1984, p. 34; Grissmer & Kirby 1985, pp. 30, 45; HumRRO, 2004, pp. 57, 69; Moore, 2002, p. 266; Perry et al., 1991, p. 113; Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. 24), it is more important to understand the causes of attrition or turnover because they are different for males than females (Grissmer & Kirby, 1988, pp. 25–26; Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 263; HumRRO, 2004, p. 41). For instance, females are more likely to separate for medical or mental health reasons while men are more likely to receive unsuitability discharges due to discipline problems (Etcho, 1996, p. 13; GAO, 1998c, pp. 29, 31–32; HumRRO, 2004, p. 41; Klein et al., 1991, p. 20; Manning & Ingraham, 1981, pp. 261, 263; Talcott et al., 1999, pp. 269–274).

The reason for females' higher probability for turnover may lie in the fact that females have more likely occurrences of marriage, childbearing and family responsibilities during their service (Grissmer & Kirby, 1988, pp. 39–40), and females have more challenges than men in encountering the military training standards (Grissmer & Kirby, 1984, p. 14; Grissmer & Kirby, 1988, p. 54), which is indicated by adaptation problems with the physical requirements (Klein et al., 1991, p. 26) and higher likelihood of medical discharge (Talcott et al., 1999, pp. 269–274). Particularly, female recruits are not as well prepared as men to live in the hypermasculine military culture that includes objectification, denigration, and social rejection of women (Rosen et al., 2003, pp. 326, 337). However, there are several issues that backup the service of females; for example, females tend to have more resources (i.e. education and better scores) than males that help adjustment to a new environment (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 263). Women also benefit from very close ties with each other and they are in general more adept than men in social support, which is valuable during the stressful adjustment process (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 691).

In many studies, race (often combined with gender) has been a useful variable for predicting attrition (Buddin, 1984, p. 27; Elis, 1999, pp. 29, 33; Etcho, 1996, pp. 13, 43, 49; Moore, 2002, pp. 266, 271; Perry et al., 1991, p. 113). Especially, Whites receive a greater proportion of discharges than minorities (Elis 1999, p. 29; Fitz & McDaniel, 1988, pp. 13, 28, 36, 49; Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. 24; Smith & Kendall, 1980, pp. 63, 107), whereas Blacks have significantly lower odds for turnover than others (Grissmer & Kirby, 1984, p. 34; HumRRO, 2004, pp. 69, 111). In this research, race was not included as a variable because all the conscripts were Caucasian (i.e. White). Gender effects were examined, although there were only 34 female conscripts (1.7 % of the sample).

*Marital Status.* Moore (2002, p. 272) found marital status to be an important demographic variable in explaining who will complete their turn of duty in the military, with married personnel less prone to turnover. In a similar vein, people with dependents had less attrition in a delayed entry program (Kearl & Nelson, 1992, p. 259) and in the training of reservists (Albiso & Buscher, 1985, pp. 78–80). Contrary to these findings, Putka and Strickland (2004, p. 24) noticed that married soldiers were more likely to drop out than single soldiers,

and likewise Grissmer and Kirby (1985, p. 30) and Smith and Kendall (1980, p. 83) noted that married soldiers with dependents had higher risk to attrition than others. Generally, there are mixed findings about the relation between maladjustment and marital obligations. At this stage, the conclusion is drawn from HumRRO's (2004, p. 61) finding that marital status and having dependents is related to a particular type of turnover due to pregnancy or parenthood, which are unrelated to other types of attrition. In the present research, the respondents' spousal commitment was examined by an item where the conscripts were asked to report whether they were single, dating, engaged, or married upon entry into the military.

#### **4.4.2 Physical Health and Fitness**

Being in good physical condition and exercising prior and during the conscript service help the recruits meet both mental and physical stress during BT (Allison, 1999, p. 25; Gebicke, 1999, p. 4; Hayden, 2000, p. 8; Horne, 1995, pp. 128–130) and thus have a reduced risk to be separated from the service (Allison, 1999, p. 25; Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, p. 760; HumRRO, 2004, p. 57; Parkkola, 1999, p. 96). On the other hand, having physical health problems, which lead to a medical waiver before the service, increases the risk of early separation (HumRRO, 2004, p. 110; Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. 24). Although physical health facilitates adjustment, it is not as crucial a factor as one's mental state or emotional stability for predicting attrition (Benbenishty et al., 1993, p. 166). Yet some individual indicators of physical health are good predictors of attrition (Karttunen et al., 2001, pp. 25–26). For instance, extremely heavy individuals (HumRRO, 2004, p. 61) or those who have asthma have a high attrition risk (Fischl & Blackwell, 2000, p. 20; Larson et al., 2002, p. 771; Peitso, 2002, p. 17). In terms of the Finnish sample, the main concern could be the declined physical fitness of the male population that may affect particularly the number of discharges due to medical reasons (Päaesikunta, 2001a, pp. 1, 5–6; Sahi & Korpela, 2002, pp. 4–8).

Actually, physical fitness may have a primary effect on adjustment and attrition indirectly through other factors. Specifically, the pre-service physical condition affects directly an individual's confidence of succeeding in the military and his or her experienced stress, which have a direct relation to attrition (HumRRO, 2004, pp. 110–111, 119, 301). In the present research, a conscript's physical health was measured by a scale composed of the items: *My health corresponds to the demands of the military service* and *I can manage the physical performance of the military service*. Besides physical self-efficacy, actual physical fitness was assessed based the results of a 12-minute running test at three points of time during service. This piece of information was collected from military files and manually transferred to the data.

#### **4.4.3 Behavioral Background History**

The common cause model states that the best predictor of current or future behavior is past behavior (Edwards, McBride, Waters, & Laurence, 1993, p. 217; HumRRO, 2004, p. 71; Laurence & Waters, 1993, p. 42; Zook, 1996, p. 42). Since “new experiences are



constructed in part on the basis of old ones” (Andersen & Glassman, 1996, p. 262), there is a common understanding that a recruit’s behavioral life history is in relation to military adjustment. Basically, this is the logic for using notations of personal achievements: activities at school, hobbies or at work, or the past relationship with family, teachers, and supervisors as a predictor of military adjustment.

The general axiom is supported by research. For instance, those who have more adjustment problems during their military service have also more indications of social, behavioral, and occupational problems, such as criminal behavior, alcohol or drug abuse, and unemployment before service (Benbenishty et al., 1993; Dawson et al., 1994b, 1994; Dovrat, 1995; Manning & Ingraham, 1981; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985). Thus, it has been demonstrated that past behavioral patterns and cognitive and social coping styles follow the person to the new environment, which in turn forms new behavior (Shaw et al., 1983, p. 32). In a sad case, a forceful past ruins also the future, as suggested by findings where past withdrawals predict current turnover (HumRRO, 2004, p. 83).

*Work History, Socio-Economic Situation and Family Support.* The work history of recruits has a bearing on adjustment (Buddin, 1984, p. v). Moving from one job to another due to poor or unacceptable performance suggests that the person is less likely to adjust successfully to the military life (Anderson, 1974, p. 15; Dovrat, 1995, p. 6). Similarly, there have been more *unemployment* and failures at work among those who drop out than among stayers (Buddin, 1984, p. 17; Dovrat, 1995, p. 6; HumRRO, 2004, p. 57). On the other hand, recruits without any job experiences are more likely to be discharged from the military service than those who have worked prior the service (Antel et al., 1987, p. 35; Buddin, 1984, pp. 28, 50–51). For this research, the recruits indicated whether they (a) had been at work before the conscript service, (b) had been fired from work, (c) had a job after the conscript service, and (d) the number of jobs they had had.

The beginning of the service means a sudden break with civilian contacts, which brings tension into the new environment if substitute emotional support is not provided by peers and leaders (Anderson, 1974, p. 36; Heyns, 1958, p. 128). Especially recruits who have competing commitments due to a family or a spouse have to find a solution for their problems. Otherwise there will be a conflict between the family and military duties, which affects the adjustment (Nogami & Horne, 1988, p. 3; Perry et al., 1991, p. 115), or as Janowitz and Little (1974, p. 122) express it: “Every soldier has other roles which can potentially weaken his ability to perform his military obligations.” On the other hand, support by significant others helps soldiers to fulfill their training obligation (Ramsberger, Legree, & Strickland, 2004, pp. 31, 35).

*Problems at home and with the spouse* do not facilitate the conscript’s life while they are in a demanding situation themselves (Dovrat, 1995, p. 55). One of the worst scenarios is that the spouse breaks up during the conscript service. That is why the spouse or girl/boyfriend is invited to an event in the brigade or battalion on the second week of service (Panssariprikaati, 2000, pp. 1–2; Pääesikunta, 2003). In that event, the military personnel (i.e. a social welfare officer and a chaplain) try to give the spouses the idea that the recruit needs their help and support, although the recruit may be physically and emotionally apart from them. Thus, also significant others are in a need of adjustment and support in it. When significant others

cope well with their own stress and express satisfaction with the recruit, there is a good foundation for the recruit's adjustment and retention in the military (Lakhani, 1995, pp. 125–126; McClure & Broughton, 1998, p. 5).

Especially, significant others need advice of how to deal with the recruit who would like to drop out or has some kind of problems during the service. It is suggested that parents and spouses should not overburden the recruit with their own problems. If significant others support and encourage the person to complete the service and tell him or her how they are proud of his or her service, the motivation to serve can be better and the adjustment process may be easier (Allison, 1999, p. 29), which in turn assists the recruit in dealing with being away from home (Gal, 1986, p. 110).

It has been suggested that *homesickness* and soldiers' reluctance to leave home may underlie the attrition condition and stress and therefore have also an indirect effect on attrition (HumRRO, 2004, p. 301). To mitigate homesickness, the recruits are allowed to call home and friends during off-duty periods. Friends and family members may also come to visit the recruit in the evenings after the first week. Units where connections by letters, telephones and visits are taken into account most likely suffer less early separations (Allison, 1999, p. 27), and soldiers who are satisfied with the possibilities to communicate with home are more likely to report higher morale (Segal, 2004, p. 13). Of course, connections to the civilian life may bring some problems to the military service; friends' and family members' unfavorable attitudes toward the conscript service produces problems for military adjustment and may give an impulse for the decision to drop out (Perry et al., 1991, p. 129). Thus, the family and significant others have an effect on the recruit's attitudes and commitment also during service (Segal, 2004, p. 14).

There are also factors that decrease recruits' attempts to contact the civilian world. The recruits are kept so busy in training that they have no time to think about anything else than things that are related to their duty, and after duty other group members give the important support which is not available from the civilian world (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 44). In reality, for some recruits, the military service provides an opportunity to be apart from unpleasant civilian demands and "represents a time-out from education, work, and family" (Elder, Gimbel, & Ivie 1991, p. 217).

Personal *economic situation* has been rated as a problematic adjustment-related factor by Finnish conscripts (Hintala, 2004, p. 22; Karttunen et al., 2001, p. 25). Because quite many 20-year-old men and women struggle with lack of money, the socio-economic situation may have an effect on how well the person is able to focus on solving his or her problems in the new environment without dealing with civilian financial troubles at the same time. Generally, the economic situation has been seen to be related to adjustment. For example, drop-outs have had more indicators of social and behavioral problems (Benbenishty et al., 1993, p. 165), such as poverty, broken families, and unemployment (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 81; Johansson, 2004, p. 3; Karttunen et al., 2001, pp. 23–24; Parkkola, 1999, pp. 75, 79), or an unsupportive home environment and frequent family moves (Antel et al., 1987, p. 32; cf. Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985, p. 261). On the other hand, Buddin (1984, p. 39) showed that the socio-economic background had only a weak direct relation to adjustment, and later, Benbenishty et al. (1993, p. 163) did not find any relation between the recommendation to discharge and the soldier's or his family's background.

In terms of background, the way and content of how a conscript's values and attitudes are formed may have much more consequences in the military service than the socio-economic base that was provided by his or her family. This may be a valid conclusion particularly in the conscription military, whereas in the volunteer-based military the situation may be different. For example in the U.S., family income affects the probability of enlistment since high-income families have better opportunities to support higher education, and therefore the economic background has an indirect influence on adjustment in the career military system (Hosek et al., 1989, p. 394). However, it is a different issue to examine the impact of the parents' socio-economic situation than the person's own economic situation. The main implication is that the parents' economic situation has a practically insignificant impact on the military adjustment process, whereas personal economic problems (e.g. lack of money) cause troubles to adjustment during Finnish conscript service (Hintala, 2004, pp. 29, 33).

Drawing from the previous results, background variables considered relevant for understanding the adjustment process are the personal economic situation, family support and background, habitation, and work history. More specifically, the socio-economic situation was assessed by using the following items: the existence of personal loans was used for assessing the conscript's current financial situation; the conscripts also answered about their habitation, the distance between their home town and the unit, and the number of inhabitants in their home town. A broken family was indicated if a recruit's father or mother had died or the parents were divorced or if a conscript had lived in many places (i.e. more than 8 addresses) (utilized also in Parkkola, 1999, p. 166). The family situation and support at home was asked with such questions as *I have not been getting along with my parents*, *During the last year I have had quarrels at home*, *...quarrels with my girlfriend / boyfriend or with my wife / husband*, or *...a relationship that ended* (op.cit. p. 168). In addition, the following items were used: *The military service has had a negative impact on my civil relationships* and *My situation in civilian life has deteriorated during my time in the army*, measuring the conscript's conception of what kind of effect the military has had on his or her civilian life.

*Drug and Alcohol Use.* Manning and Ingraham (1981, p. 261) noted that recruits who had failed in their drug and alcohol rehabilitation accounted for about one fourth (27.4 %) of all the discharges. In the study of Klein et al. (1991, p. 33), drug / alcohol abuse counted also for a quarter (26 %) of their discharge cases. Correspondingly, Benbenishty et al. (1993, p. 166) found that those who were discharged had more often signs of alcohol or drug abuse, running away from home, or aggressive and violent behavior in their past. Talcott and his colleagues (1999, pp. 269–274) point out that alcohol intake is particularly related to legal discharge during BT compared to other types of discharges. The situation is particularly challenging in Finland, where alcohol and drug abuse increased dramatically from 1980 to 2004 among conscripts (Hintala, 2004, p. 33) and in the population in general (STAKES, 2007, p. 1). For example, Niemelä et al. (2006, p. 145) found that in Finland 85.0 % reported drunkenness within the previous 6 months and 10.4 % reported being frequently drunk once a week or more often. Consequently, Peitso (2002, p. 17) discerned an increase in attrition due to alcohol or drug abuse. Similarly, Parkkola (1999, pp. 90–91) noted that drinking alcohol extensively was predictive of attrition, and alcohol addiction was the main reason for attrition in 10 % of attrition cases. However, the relation was nonlinear in his data. In the present research, the conscripts indicated the number of times they consumed

alcohol in a month, their attitude towards drugs, and if they would allow drug tests in service.

*Smoking.* Both the frequency of drunkenness and illicit drug use are parallel to smoking frequency (Niemelä et al., 2006, p. 145), and in addition of extensive use of alcohol or drugs, also smoking (and the number of packs of smoked cigarettes) is associated with attrition (Quester, 1999, p. 24) and a smoker has a risk of quitting in the military (Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, pp. 760–761, 768; HumRRO, 2004, p. 57, 62; Talcott et al., 1999, pp. 269–274). Particularly the basic training period, when there are less chances for smoking, makes some recruits believe that they are not able to face the situation (Bachman, Freedman-Doan, O'Malley, Johnston, & Segal, 1999, p. 677). The relation between smoking and adjustment was not understood when the data for this research were collected. Therefore, there is no information about conscripts' smoking habits.

*Criminal Record.* Wilson and Herrnstein (1985, p. 311) point out that the cause for criminality lies in personal traits, family socialization, and school experiences that account for most crime rate variations. In the military, a criminal record is a strong predictor of recruits' maladjustment and attrition (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 260; Parkkola, 1999, pp. 53, 92). However, it should be noted how criminal behavior and future behavior are related to each other; all those with a criminal record are not going to act like criminals, but almost all chronic adult criminals have some kind of evidence of criminal behavior in the past (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985, p. 144).

Moral waivers are given to people who have been allowed to enter despite some past record of social or behavioral problems. The past is quite a good predictor of attrition also in this case, because there is a positive relationship with moral waivers and unsuitability attrition (Bohn & Schmitz, 1996, pp. 6–7; Hawes 1990, pp. 23, 44, 57), as well as with a criminal record and attrition (e.g. Bohn & Schmitz, 1996, p. 6). Also discipline problems during service are more frequent with those who have been discharged (Benbenishty et al., 1993, p. 166; Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 260).

In general, people who have maladjustment problems during their service are characterized by disciplinary problems in the past and present. Actually, it is possible that there is a common underlying factor where criminal behavior, maladjustment at school, and adjustment problems in the military are related (Allen & Bell, 1980, p. 13). For example, Klein et al. (1991, p. 28) noticed how four of their 10 attrition factors clustered together (i.e. alcohol, drugs, and minor and major criminal offenses). Similarly, Benbenishty et al. (1993, p. 166) found a strong association between the discharge recommendation and problems of misconduct in later life. Also there, violent behavior toward others, alcohol or drug abuse, and running away from home were more frequent among soldiers who were discharged. Talcott and his colleagues (1999, pp. 269–274) conclude that rebelliousness and a nonconforming approach toward the military is a notably ineffective coping strategy during BT. In the present research, the deviance of the recruit was assessed by the civilian criminal record (reports of offences and detentions) as well as the record of offences and reprimands during conscript service, which were incorporated from military and civilian files in the data to predict attrition and adjustment.

#### **4.4.4 Cognitive Ability**

Cognitive ability refers to “an individual’s capacity, accuracy, and speed of processing information” (Chan, 2004, p. 305). Ability tests have traditionally been used as tools for estimating, besides the recruit’s quality, the likelihood of adjustment to service and attrition (e.g. Benbenishty et al., 1993, p. 166; Borack, 1994, p. 193; Hawes, 1990, p. 19; Larson et al., 2002, p. 774). Especially, low mental ability or low intelligence increase the probability of maladjustment (Allison, 1999, p. 14; Blandin & Morris, 1982, p. 649; Bohn & Schmitz, 1996, p. 5; Buddin, 1984, p. vi; 1988, pp. 35, 43; Dovrat, 1995, p. 5; Elis, 1999, p. 29; Etcho, 1996, pp. 43, 52; Fischl & Blackwell, 2000, p. 17; GAO, 1998c, p. 50; Golding et al., 2001, pp. 12, 15; Hawes, 1990, pp. 20, 57; Hicks & Nogami, 1984, pp. 25, 57, 60) and even criminal actions (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985, pp. 284–285). Likewise, higher aptitude scores indicate a completion of military obligation (Antel et al., 1987, p. 31; Elis, 1999, p. 29; Hawes, 1990, p. 19; Osato & Sherry, 1993, p. 59).

Although aptitude is associated with attrition, the relation has later been found to be indirect with only a small direct effect (HumRRO, 2004, pp. 61, 110). More specifically, this association between aptitude and attrition could be explained by the fact that soldiers with a high aptitude are confident and experience few turnover cognitions, which in turn causes a low risk of attrition (op.cit. p. 112). Grissmer and Kirby (1984, p. 14) provide another reasoning by arguing that recruits with higher aptitude make typically better enlistment decisions and are more ready to meet cognitive, psychological, and physical training demands, which in turn reduce their attrition rates comparing to lower aptitude recruits (the same logic also in Laurence et al., 1996, p. 5). Contrary to the above mentioned studies, Benbenishty et al. (1993, p. 166) discerned no significant relations between the factors of cognitive ability, medical and mental fitness, and attrition.

Personal ability, or aptitude, is usually measured in terms of a military entrance examination score, such as the Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT) (Buddin, 1984, 1988; Horne, 1987; Lane, 2006) or in terms of grade point average in civilian schooling. These screening measures are not only good for predicting failure in the adjustment process but they are also reliable estimates for success in the military service. For instance, Osato and Sherry (1993, p. 59) observed a clear relation between IQ and soldiers’ achievement potential. Similarly, Nyman (2007, pp. 26, 34–35, 89) reports that the results of the Finnish Aptitude test 1, which tests the person’s cognitive aptitude (i.e. verbal, numeric, and nonverbal abilities), predict success in military leadership courses. Hence, soldiers with high aptitude are more likely capable of dealing with stressful situations and acquiring the skills and knowledge required in military assignments (Antel et al., 1987, pp. 13, 32; Horne, 1987, pp. 444, 454; Laurence et al., 1996, p. 5). In addition, a soldier’s cognitive aptitude predicts successful military adjustment in terms of the person’s capacity for leadership and training, and his or her technical performance in the service (Grissmer & Kirby, 1985, p. 7; Kulomäki & Nyman, 2004, p. 20; Zook, 1996, pp. 37, 55, 58).

In Finland, each recruit goes through a screening (i.e. Aptitude test 1) where his or her intelligence is tested (Nyman, 2007, pp. 34–35). This measure was also utilized for the present research. In the questionnaire of the present research, the recruits also indicated their grade point average (GPA) at the end of comprehensive school. Together, the GPA (from 4

to 10) and the Aptitude test 1 results (from 1 to 9) were employed for an approximation of cognitive abilities of the person.

#### **4.4.5 Educational Background**

*Education.* Since the seminal finding by Flyer (1959, pp. 4, 15) that the education level is the best single variable for predicting unsuitable discharges, the education level has been used together with personal aptitude measures reflecting the service members' "quality" as the most explanatory predictor of military adjustment (GAO, 1994, p. 12; 1998a, p. 3; 1998b, p. 3; Klein et al., 1991, p. 5; Laurence, 1993, pp. 2–4; Plag & Goffman, 1966, pp. 729, 733; Stephan, Carroll, & Brown, 1972, p. 1; Trent, 1993, pp. 82–83). Hence, it is not surprising that research findings indicate a strong relationship between conscripts' education level and cognitive abilities and their behavior and performance in the military (Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, p. 761; Buddin, 1984, p. 22; Buddin, 1988, p. 13; Etcho, 1996, p. 1; Shaw et al., 1983, p. 23).

In military adjustment research, education is typically measured by receipt of a high school diploma (Buddin, 1984, 1988; Shaw et al., 1983; Stouffer et al., 1949). Having a low level of education (usually defined as less than high school education) is a significant predictor of military attrition, and recruits with a high school diploma adjust more easily to the military (Allison, 1999, p. 13; Blandin & Morris, 1982, p. 648; Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, p. 765; Buddin, 1984, pp. 21, 24–25, 30, 50; Dovrat, 1995, p. 5; Elis, 1999, p. 6; Etcho, 1996, pp. 36, 43, 46, 52; Fischl & Blackwell, 2000, pp. viii, 14; Golding et al., 2001, pp. 12, 15; Hawes, 1990, p. 18; Hosek et al., 1989, p. 390; HumRRO, 2004, p. 57; Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 267; Manigart & Prenskey, 1982, p. 99; McBride, 1993, p. 204; Moore, 2002, p. 259; Price & Sang-Wook, 1993, p. 137; Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. 24; Quester, 1999, p. 10). Generally, the attrition rates of non-high school graduates are at least 10 % higher than those of high school graduates and in some cases even twice as high, depending on the official reasons for attrition (Edwards et al., 1993, p. 216; Elster & Flyer, 1982, pp. II–24, II–41; Flyer & Elster, 1983, p. 21; HumRRO, 2004, p. 59; Moskos, 1981, pp. 10–11; Sinaiko, 1990, p. 245; Zook, 1996, pp. 49–50). From another point of view, Laurence et al. (1996, p. 4) recorded that high school graduates had a roughly 80 % chance to complete their three years of service, while non-high school soldiers had only around 60 % odds for completion.

Due to the predictive power of the levels of education, it is typically used for selecting personnel for the service in volunteer-based systems, as was already suggested in Flyer's report (1959, p. 15). However, since most inductees in volunteer-based armies already have a high school diploma, the education level is no longer a good predictor of attrition (GAO, 1998a, p. 2; 1998b, p. 2; 1998c, pp. 8, 50; Moore, 2002, pp. 259, 271–272). In some conscription-based military systems, the education level is used at least for two reasons: to understand adjustment problems (and attrition) and to select people to various tasks (Dovrat, 1995). In the conscript military (e.g. in Israel or Finland) where there is still variance in the previous education levels of soldiers, school achievements can be regarded as a valid record of prior adjustment to a disciplined and structured environment, and therefore the education level

still has its value as a military adjustment predictor, and has been subsequently utilized in this research.

*Time in Education.* The time spent in education is at least as important a predictor of adjustment and attrition as the education level, since the attrition risk is reduced when people's "seat-time" increases (Grissmer & Kirby, 1984, p. 14; Hawes, 1990, p. 57; Laurence, 1993, p. 10; Moore, 2002, p. 266; Smith & Kendall, 1980, p. 66), especially among men (Fischl & Blackwell, 2000, p. 20). For instance Hawes (1990, pp. 37–38) argues that "seat-time" in prior schooling, indicating the amount of social interaction is the reason why high school diploma graduates have a decreased attrition risk.

Presumably, experiences at school, such as social interaction, with self-discipline, and in learning new things, have some kind of adjustment-helping influence. Therefore, even a short period of education beyond the comprehensive school secure from future adjustment problems. This was indicated in the findings of Edward et al. (1993, p. 216) where recruits with alternative credentials had better prospects to complete their service than other non-high school graduates. Hawes (1990, p. 4) and Zook (1996, p. 48) noticed that low aptitude high school graduates were less likely to attrit than high aptitude personnel who did not finish high school, which indicates that the seat-time moderates the relation between cognitive abilities and attrition.

*Schooling.* School achievements and previous adjustment to the education system constitute a valid record of prior adjustment to a disciplined and structured environment, such as the military (Anderson, 1974, p. 14; Nelson, 1971, pp. 98–99; Stouffer et al., 1949, pp. 100–102). For instance, a conscript who had low grades at school (Dale, 1989, pp. 4–5) or more school expulsions (Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, p. 765; HumRRO, 2004, pp. 62, 71; Vickers & Conway, 1983, p. 19) or thoughts of quitting the school (HumRRO, 2004, p. 57) also has a higher than average risk of attrition. Thus a person's schooling history is an essential factor for the appraisal of personal adaptability. But in this case the academic ability and educational achievements are not as fundamental as the way how they indicate "an individual's ability to adapt to his environment and finish what he has started" (Stephen, Carroll, & Brown, 1972, p. 5).

Success at school denotes a person's ability for acceptance of authority and rules (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985, p. 285), perseverance and getting along with peers (Smith & Kendall, 1980, p. 122) as well as maturity, adjustment, tolerance of adversity, determination, and ability to work persistently for long-range goals – personal characteristics which are also needed for adequate adjustment in the military life (Laurence, 1993, p. 9; Laurence et al., 1996, p. 4). Therefore, of interest for the military adjustment process is the way how school experiences socialize future recruits for some essential aspects of the military environment (e.g. teamwork, conformity of rules, and self-control). Conversely, signs of problematic schooling experiences (truancy, discipline, learning, or social problems) are related to problems during the military service (Benbenishty et al., 1993, pp. 165–167; Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, p. 765; HumRRO, 2004, pp. 57, 62; Vickers & Conway, 1983, p. 2) and attrition (Karttunen et al., 2001, p. 23). Likewise, a person who has problems with adaptation to the society has more likely difficulties to adjust to the military life as well (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 1; Shaw et al., 1983, p. 41).

For the data of the present research, education and time in education were determined by the highest level of civilian education completed by the day of starting service, and the educational categories were represented by four groups: (a) non-high school diploma graduates, (b) non-high school diploma graduates who had studied after comprehensive education, (c) high school diploma graduates, and (d) college graduates. For this research, schooling problems were measured with three questions: *I have had to repeat a year at comprehensive school*, *I had learning problems at comprehensive school*, and *I have attended remedial teaching and special groups*. As mentioned above, also the grade point average at comprehensive school was also inquired about.

As a conclusion, the following Table 4 features a summary of the personal factors that were identified to be related to adjustment process and attrition in previous studies. Together, personal factors (chapter 4 and Table 4) and the main components of situational and organizational factors (chapter 3 and tables 1, 2, and 3) determine the success of military adjustment process and its main outcomes which are explicated in the next section.



### Personal Adjustment Variables

1. **Demographic items** such as age, gender, and race.
2. **Aptitude variables** about personal action competence such as cognitive, social, leadership, and physical abilities (e.g. based on the results of aptitude tests).
3. **Background Variables**
  - a) **Work history and experiences at work** (e.g. unemployment, relationships with supervisors, had been fired from a job, and working options after service).
  - b) **Personal economic situation** (e.g. having little or no money, number of loans, sharing of living costs at home, occupation of parents).
  - c) **Social relationships with parents, spouses and significant others** that could involve such issues as frequent family moves, family values, family relationships, unsupportive family environment, broken family, running away from home, habitation at home, alone or with girlfriend or wife, social hobbies, number of friends, values and attitudes of friends, expected impact of service on civil relationships, marital status, quarrels with girlfriend or wife).
  - d) **Education experiences** including such items as grade point average at school, education level, time in education, adjustment to schooling, social adjustment, experienced hazing at school, relationships with teachers, learning troubles, and future schooling options.
  - e) **Behavioral background and particularly bad habits and deviant behavior** such as criminal behavior, aggressive or violent behavior, alcohol or drug abuse, attitude toward drugs, smoking, deviation from the society, defensive coping styles, the number of stressful life events and incidents.
4. **Mental health and physical fitness** comprising emotional stability, mental health problems and indicators of them (e.g. sleeping disorders), physical sickness (e.g. disease or injury), frequency of exercising, and overall physical health.
5. **Personality characteristics and personal attitudes** such as sociability, acceptance of authority, achievement motivation, affective commitment, and intent to stay; alternatively, this could be measured by “the big five” personality domains or measuring the person's self-esteem, self-discipline, pride, frustration, aggression, and morale
6. **Perceptions about service** which refers to the extent the above mentioned personal variables link with the experiences in service (i.e. person-environment fit); for example, prior expectations and intentions, requests for a special training program, desires for duty and service period, met expectations, and the extent of accurate and complete information measure prior and current perceptions about military service

*Table 4.* Personal Adjustment Variables

## 5 ADJUSTMENT CRITERIA

The previous chapters emphasized how situational factors and personal resources together determine the outcomes of the adjustment process in the military. These factors affect adjustment and attrition directly (the common-cause model) and indirectly (the intervening-variable model). This chapter explores the typical effects and consequences of military adjustment observed in previous literature. They include indicators of maladjustment, such as attrition, deviant behavior, medical problems, and avoidance of service, as well as phenomena that are supported by adjustment, such as perceived individual and group performance, performance ratings, commitment to the military service, career intentions, refresher training intentions, and experienced personal growth.

By adjustment and effective coping, conscripts can manage the demands of the military situation and are capable of behaving and working as a part of their group and organization. However, a recruit is not able to challenge the system although he or she would like to. The military machinery is so well prepared for every possible misbehavior or emotional expression that a recruit just has to bend to the rules and cope with them. Not everyone is able to cope with new demands which exceed his or her mental stamina and patience. As learning the new military culture is hard and challenging, avoidance of the situation by dropping out (i.e. attriting) or withdrawing from direct participation of training are unfortunate but common ways of coping (Bourne, 1967, p. 189; Van Maanen, 1983, p. 36). These individuals are represented in maladjustment statistics. Although the notion of attrition was mentioned several times above, the notion was more a criterion of adjustment than being in the focus itself. As attrition is regarded in this research as the most visible and bothersome consequence of maladjustment, and due to its substantial effects at the individual, group, and organizational level, the next part of the text is devoted to a discussion of its reasons and outcomes.

### 5.1 Indicators of Maladjustment

#### 5.1.1 Attrition

*Definitions.* Attrition can be defined simply as a failure of an individual to complete his or her assigned training or turn of duty as scheduled (e.g. GAO, 1998c, p. 16; Laurence, 1993, p. 3; Laurence et al., 1996, p. 1). Some definitions also emphasize conscripts' failure to meet minimum behavioral or performance standards (Allison, 1999, p. 2; Blandin & Morris, 1982, p. 645; Etcho 1996, p. 12). Specifically, attrition refers to the process of "the reduction in the number of personnel of a specified category through separation" (Siebold, 1981, p. 2). Basically military attrition depends on how conscripts' "skills and interests interact with service goals and objectives" (Buddin, 1988, p. 12), and their ability to cope with the specific stressful elements of military training (Vickers et al., 1993, p. 11).

Attrition is a commonly used criterion of adjustment since it is the most explicit behavioral index of reactions to stress in the military, although stress is not the only cause of attrition (Vickers et al., 1993, pp. 4–5). In this research, attrition means the loss of a conscript before

his or her planned period of service (Fischl & Blackwell, 2000, pp. vii, 1; GAO, 1997, p. 38; Greenston et al., 1997, p. 2; Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 1), and it is perceived as one of the main indicators of a failure of the adjustment process. The amount of attrition is defined as the number of individuals of a specified category or organization who interrupt the service. Usually the amount of attrition is expressed in terms of a given time period as the rate of attrition. The percentage of attrition is the number of personnel of a specified category or organization who drop out, divided by the population of the organization, also often expressed in terms of a given time period (Siebold, 1981, p. 2).

*Trends in Attrition.* Attrition rates between different military systems are not directly comparable, although the causes of the attrition may be similar. Variance in attrition rates exists due to various rules and policies in the organizations. For example, in volunteer-based military service, attrition is much higher than in a conscription army, due to a longer service period and different standards. Remembering this, it is interesting to discover attrition tendencies during the last decades. In the U.S. services, the first term percentage of attrition has remained at roughly 30 %, ranging from 25 to 40 % during the last decades despite the increased quality of enlistees (GAO, 1994, pp. 2–3; 1998b, p. 1; 1998c, p. 22; 2000, p. 5; Gebicke, 1999, p. 1; HumRRO, 2004, p. 51; Laurence, 1993, p. 3; Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. iv). However, the timing of attrition has changed toward the early months of service. Specifically in the early 1990's, fewer recruits (i.e. 11 – 14 % of enlistees) left the services during the first six months (GAO, 1997, p. 1; 1998c, p. 23), whereas later only the second month attrition rates account for 12.4 % of all attrition (HumRRO, 2004, p. 51). Still, the rate of first month attrition has been low (only 1.4 – 2.3 %) (Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. 18).

This kind of timing and concentration of turnover on the first months of service indicates a strong relation between adjustment and attrition. The demands of the military organization are profound during the first days and weeks of military training (Smith et al., 1955, p. 9) when situational stressors are likewise highest (Bourne, 1967, p. 189; Vickers et al., 1993, p. 5). Therefore, especially mental health adjustment problems are more likely to come out in the attrition statistics in the early phases of service (Klein et al., 1991, p. 33). Conversely, the longer a recruit is in the service, the less likely he or she will drop out due to adjustment problems (op.cit. p. 29).

In Finland, the percentage of overall attrition due to mental and physical health reasons was 8.2 to 11.4 during 2001–2006 (Kelho, 2007), and a considerable amount of turnover occurred during the first two weeks of service (i.e. ½ of all cases based on the report of Pääsikunta, 2001a, p. 1; and 2/3 of all attrition in Parkkola, 1999, pp. 13, 50, 89). Hence, the majority of attrition occurred at a slightly different moment of service in an enlisted military service (e.g. in the U.S. in the second months; Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. 21) than in the conscript service in Finland (during the first weeks of service). Especially in Finland, attrition seems to be one of the most visible acute behavioral stress reactions (Parkkola, 1999) and directly related to maladjustment (Peitso, 2002, p. 18).

*The Initiator of Separation.* Both the recruits and the military organization influence attrition (Hosek et al., 1989, p. 392). The decision of attrition is made by considering the recruit's behavior, the judgments of instructors, and applications of administrative guidelines (Vickers

et al., 1993, p. 26). From the organizational point of view, attrition is an alternative way of managing effectively service members who display behavioral or health problems (Golding et al., 2001, p. 6). However, in attrition one party or both are amply disappointed at the military adjustment process and want the separation to occur (Antel et al., 1987, p. 9). Officially, the military organization establishes the conditions under which a conscript is allowed to do so (Allen & Bell, 1980, p. 2), and especially when the organization is the initiator of separation, attrition takes place although there still could be chances for coping from the conscript's point of view (Siebold, 1981, p. 5). In a military organization (and particularly in Finland), the commanding officer or a medical doctor starts the separation process (Buddin, 1988, p. 13; Pääesikunta, 2006), and the attrition committee makes the decision of whether the person meets the criteria for attrition.

Although conscripts cannot officially resign their job (Allen & Bell, 1980, p. 2; Buddin, 1984, p. 11; Moskos, 1977, p. 42), they have a great opportunity to influence the attrition decision in practice (Hosek et al., 1989, p. 392), and they may even utilize separation codes as means of legitimating their separation (GAO, 1998c, p. 50; Golding et al., 2001, p. 7). For example, in a volunteer army, an enlistee can contemplate the net value of enlistment and compare other options to the selected career (Antel et al., 1987, pp. 10–11). Thus, although the official attrition decision depends on the supervisors' judgments and is made by a formal institutional commission (i.e. involuntary attrition), particularly the BT attrition could be initiated by the recruit's own wish to leave (i.e. voluntary attrition) (Golding et al., 2001, p. 6; HumRRO, 2004, p. 83).

In Finland, there are also some escape routes that are formally established and commonly used by recruits. Registering for civil service allows a conscript to leave the organization immediately (during the same day) without any demonstrated explanation (although he or she is required to give either a religious or ethical reason for the separation) (Parkkola, 1999, p. 12). The main advantage for the conscripts using this attrition option is that it is the easiest and fastest way for them to leave the military unit and be transferred home. In the end, this selection of service includes an obligation of serving in a civil service center. However, this service does not start right away; it takes place within two years from the separation, allowing the conscript time to recover from the adjustment experiences in the military.

On the other hand, for volunteer-serving women there is a special run-away option which allows separation during the first 45 days without further obligations. This option has been utilized especially due to physical adjustment problems in service (Johansson, 2004, p. 3). If an individual is not willing to sign for long term civil service but is still inclined to avoid the current service, he or she may manifest enough problems, such as personal (i.e. financial or family related) or work related (performance) difficulties to get an official discharge from the unit (Allen & Bell, 1980, pp. 2–3; Buddin, 1984, p. 11). In this option, the person is normally obliged to continue service one or two years later. Despite the above discussion, it should be born in mind that not all attrition is due to factors that either the individual or the military organization is able to control. For example, sudden personal health problems or family-related difficulties may surface without warning and cause early separation (Golding, et al., 2001, p. 6; Zook, 1996, p. 48).

*Adjustment and Attrition Policies.* Attrition rates are influenced also by explicit or implicit attrition programs and administrative policies (Grissmer & Kirby, 1984, p. 43; Laurence et al., 1996, p. 1). Attrition programs influence already before the military service, containing information distribution and initial screening. Hence, one purpose of screening is to decrease the attrition rates during service by identifying and discharging unacceptable, socially and emotionally immature people who will most likely fail to cope with the organized and discipline military life (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 21; Klein et al., 1991, p. 34). In attrition-related research projects, the interest in accurate attrition predictions is grounded on the need of the military organizations to find tools for careful screening (Allison, 1999, p. 21). Despite of screening, about 10 % of the Finnish male population and roughly 30 % of U.S. enlistees fail to adjust to military life, as detailed above.

The military organization has some useful techniques for motivating recruits to stay in service. Gilroy, Phillips, and Blair (1990, p. 338) sum up the options in three groups: (a) recruiter management comprising incentives for enlistment (which is effective in a volunteer-based military system), (b) pecuniary aspects, such as pay and educational benefits (e.g. for motivating recruits to advanced and leadership training), and (c) non-pecuniary factors, such as length of service obligation options, perceived usefulness of military training later in civilian life, and attitudes toward the military among the young population. One form of action not mentioned in the list are the negative consequences associated with behavior and performance that cause discharge (Gebicke, 1999, p. 8). Altogether, different techniques are available, and all of them require leaders' interest in improving the conditions for successful adjustment and performance in a unit (cf. Fischl & Blackwell, 2000, p. 20).

There are some programs that are specifically directed at dealing with people who are in high risk of separation (i.e. due to low ability or lack of commitment and motivation). The programs are particularly directed for defining proper ways of action in the adjustment process, providing acceptable runaway options for low performers and for those with adjustment problems, describing methods for dealing with attrition cases, and instilling the desired attitudes and values among those who are preferred for service (Siebold, 1981, p. 3). Specific, counter-attrition programs emphasize counseling, peer and leader support, and other services that enable the conscript that is in attrition risk to remain as a productive service member (Klein et al., 1991, p. 1). One example of counter-attrition plans is the Adapting Basic Training program ("sopeuttava peruskoulutuskausi") in Finland. Such programs are especially targeted at supporting physical fitness and, consequently, reducing attrition due to physical reasons (cf. op.cit. p. 2). Larson et al. (2002, p. 770) give another example of BT programs (i.e. "Personal Applied Skills Streaming") where the curriculum is targeted at alleviating recruits' problems in discipline, motivation, anger management, and self-esteem.

Despite principles and guidelines, there is substantial variation in attrition practices within a service or even at different bases, which indicates diverse attrition problems, interpretations, and policy enforcements among managers (Buddin, 1988, pp. vii–viii, 56; GAO, 1998c, pp. 3, 39). In addition to attrition policies, also variation in training and performance procedures and standards in units produce disparity in the overall attrition rates (Grissmer & Kirby, 1988, pp. 23, 59). Commanders make discharge decisions utilizing also their own assumptions and experiences (Siebold, 1981, p. 7). Even though there are official guidelines

or goals for reducing attrition, the unit commander and the instructors may experience the unit practice quite differently; for them “weeding out the bad apples” (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 268) and “creaming” (Grissmer & Kirby, 1988, p. 59) the best for further training appear to be quite tempting options for improving the quality of the troops. As described by Allison (1999, p. 29), “there is a delicate balance between who should leave the service and who should be saved through effective leadership.”

*Holding Back Attrition Rates.* Buddin (1984, p. 46) argues that early attrition rates are directly related with the perceived ease to separate. He supports this statement by showing that there is a significant difference in the attrition rates between those who think that early separation is impossible and privates who consider it as easy (i.e. over 7 percentage points). Thus, it could be stated that the withdrawal perceptions are also influenced by experiences of administrative policies in a unit. Particularly, policies that allow attrition for those who desire it only encourage others to consider separation (Gebicke, 1999, p. 8). GAO’s report (1998c, p. 56) focuses on attrition policies, and one conclusion is that enlistees are too easily allowed to separate from service, and shutting some runaway doors would decrease volunteer discharges (op.cit. p. 8). HumRRO’s attrition research (2004, p. 111) proves that the perceived ease of withdrawal has an influence on the attrition rates, although the relation is indirect through soldiers’ attrition cognitions.

Actually, the U.S. services have applied a more stringent policy against attrition by forbidding voluntarily separation based on performance problems, restricting discharges due to “miscellaneous” reasons, and tightening the criteria of overall attrition (GAO, 1998c, pp. 8, 51–52; Golding et. al., 2001, p. 5). The main question is whether restrictions of BT attrition will lower the overall attrition in the long run. Golding et al. (2001, p. 3) assume that sailors would find an official reason for their separation anyway, and, therefore, there should not be any major changes in overall fleet attrition. However, Quester (1999, p. 5) demonstrate how keeping BT attrition low does not raise the overall fleet attrition later. This result supports the earlier finding about attrition reduction in the Army due to more stringent attrition guidelines (GAO, 1998c, p. 42). In Finland, no attrition policy-related research exists, and therefore no results can be presented here. However, in this light the ease how recruits are currently allowed to turn their service to civil service in Finland is questionable, unless there is a particular intention to increase the popularity of the civil service at the expense of military conscript service.

*Reasons for Attrition.* The main question in this part is why some recruits fail to adjust to the military when successful adjustment is normal for most men. For every drop-out there is an official cause which legitimates the occurrence and may explain the reasons behind the official attrition decision. However, it may not be the only or not even the real cause for discharge (Siebold, 1981, p. 4). One large group of predictors contains *mental health problems and inability to adjust* (Johansson, 2004, pp. 3–5). Manning and Ingraham (1981, pp. 257, 261) summarize that dropouts had lack of social and emotional adaptability (45 % of cases) and will, skill, and ability to learn and perform. Basically, they were mentally, physically, cognitively, and/or socially inept. Slightly differently (due to the use of different measures), Cannon-Bowers, Salas, Tannenbaum, and Mathieu (1995, p. 159) demonstrate that recruits’ expectations, self-efficacy, commitment and pre-training motivation are four significant attrition predictors. White et al. (1993, p. 115) state that poor adjustment, lack of

effort, and lack of discipline are the main reasons for discharges. Later, it has been discerned how moral character-related maladjustment still causes almost half of all attrition cases (46 %) (HumRRO, 2004, p. 41). As a conclusion, previous studies suggest that roughly half of attrition is due to poor emotional, behavioral, or social adjustment.

As Vickers et al. (1993, p. 5) mention, “stress is only one influence on attrition” in which they refer to adjustment-related emotionally stressful predictors. Thus, there are also other independent factors that predict attrition. One clear group of attrition reasons (apart from stress) lies in *physical health problems* due to injuries or illness (Fischl & Blackwell, 2000, p. 1). In a study of Klein et al. (1991, p. 1) this category accounted for 20 % of all attrition. Basically, the category of “failure to meet minimum physical requirements” represents an important individual reason for attrition (Ramsberger et al., 2004, p. 14).

Another group of factors distinct from stress and physical problems are *training and performance-related predictors* (HumRRO, 2004, p. 39). Whereas stress-related maladjustment problems take mainly place during the socialization phase and early moments of military service, training and performance-related predictors explain attrition especially during a later training period (i.e. the maintenance phase of the socialization process) (cf. Vickers et al., 1993, p. 5). In stress-related discharges and in medical problems, a recruit and his or her resources are in focus, whereas training and performance-related attrition represents institutional and duty-related demands that are required to be met (Buddin, 1988, pp. vi, 20). For example, GAO’s report (2000, p. 14) indicated that 31 % of attrition is due to performance problems. However, many of these are related also to lack of commitment and poor motivation (Hayden, 2000, p. 1). Thus, a recruit still has a meaningful influence on his or her situation or, for example, learning in training. Therefore, attrition reasons, such as moral character adjustment problems and performance difficulties, are often combined together, and are called “Failure to Meet Minimum Behavioral and Performance Criteria” or “Entry Level Performance and Character / Trainee Discharge Program” (HumRRO, 2004, pp. 39, 41). Antel et al. (1987, p. 23) crystallize the situation by saying that early separation denotes either discontent with the military life or unsatisfactory training performance. From a recruit’s point of view, this means that either military life experiences (under regimentation, social pressure, and authoritarian relationships) or learning experiences (referring to training quality, challenges, and personal development) create intolerable frustration that is expressed in attitudes, behavior, and finally as a separation. Of interest is that drop-outs are more likely than their peers and leaders to identify external causes for their attrition (such as medical problems, family relations, and injuries) (Ramsberger et al., 2004, p. 13). Similarly, drop-outs perceive more positively their effort, personal discipline, physical fitness, and overall effectiveness compared to how their peers and leaders evaluate them (op.cit. p. 7).

*Consequences of Attrition.* No matter who (either the military organization or the person) is the origin of the attrition decision, it is still a loss situation for everyone; it is characterized as a failure for the recruit to adjust and for the military organization to assimilate the person (Fischl & Blackwell, 2000, p. 1). For the military, attrition is costly, as the organization has invested time and effort for selecting, receiving and educating the person. Especially in volunteer-based military forces attrition costs are substantial and counted in millions due to lost investments on recruiting, training, lodging, and salaries (HumRRO, 2004, p. 297; GAO, 1997, pp. 7–8; Laurence, 1993, p. 3)

There are also other than financial problems due to attrition. First of all, one separating recruit disrupts the training and disturbs several people in the chain of command (Zook, 1996, p. 38). It sounds quite frustrating “to spend 90 % of my time with 10 % of my men” (Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 268). Second, attrition has harmful effects on the remaining conscripts by upsetting the social patterns in the group and decreasing the soldiers’ morale, commitment and cohesion in their unit (Albiso & Buscher, 1985, p. 18; Etcho, 1996, p. 56). In particular, if the discharged person can legitimate his or her separation to the other group members and they support the drop-out, there are serious upshots in the group, such as negative attitudes, disintegration, and ineffectiveness (Wesbrook, 1980, p. 258). Therefore, it is not unusual that once a recruit quits, also some of his or her mates decide to drop out. Third, attrition further hampers recruiting pressures (Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. iv) and lowers force readiness (Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, p. 760; Grissmer & Kirby, 1985, p. 1; Hayden, 2000, p. 1; Hosek et al., 1989, p. 389; Laurence, 1993, p. 3). It is of interest to examine the group of people who drop out already before the obligation has even started (e.g. selecting civilian service prior service in Finland or attriting from the delayed entry program in U.S. services). For example, Lane (2006, pp. 8–9) emphasizes that delayed entry program drop-outs have higher cognitive ability than service members in general, which means that such attrition reduces the potential quality of the forces. On the basis of the above, it is no wonder why services (at least in the U.S.) agree on the value of reducing attrition (GAO, 1997, p. 6).

There are some consequences for the individual due to the attrition decision (Laurence, 1993, p. 3). Compulsory conscript service is a duty by law and the vast majority of the male population completes it adequately, for example in Israel and Finland (Benbenishty et al., 1993, p. 160; Parkkola, 1999, p. 12). Since the main personal factors that determine attrition are psychosocial by nature (Booth-Kewley et al., 2002, p. 765), and discharged soldiers depart from others because of their attitudes and commitment (Cannon-Bowers et al., 1995, p. 159; Fitz & McDaniel, 1988, p. 1), a failure to fulfill the six to twelve months of military service indicates that the person’s mental or physical capacity is markedly lower than the others’, or the recruit has different values that distinguish him or her from other people in the society. Consequently, being marked by attrition can cause reduced employment opportunities or promotions (Laurence, 1993, p. 3). This failure may cause changes later in the person’s lifestyle, identity structure, and personal outlook (Siebold, 1981, p. 4).

An implicit assumption behind the above mentioned effects of attrition is that all early discharges are bad and the attrition rate should be as small as possible (Laurence et al., 1996, p. 3). However, in spite of any efforts, there will always be attrition, and some of it is even desirable (Klein et al., 1991, p. 1). From the organizational point of view, a beneficial attrition occurs when an ill-motivated, low-performing recruit is discharged (HumRRO, 2004, p. 1) as early as possible while the training investments are low (Siebold, 1981, p. 3) and the person has not yet infected others. From that perspective, excessive decrease of attrition rates only shifts the underlying problems to other areas of service, such as training and discipline problems in a unit. Hence, attrition is perceived as a flexible quality enhancing system that assesses and defines a correct level of performance, required acceptance of discipline, and appropriate attitudes while discharging maladaptive, unproductive, and unsuitable people (Hosek et al., 1989, pp. 389–390). In fact, early attrition may save training costs and lighten



the organizational burden by removing “perpetual trouble makers” back to the civilian world (Laurence et al., 1996, p. 12).

From an individual point of view, attrition could be reasoned as one way of adjusting to the unfavorable situation. Then it is used as a (last) coping strategy in the adjustment process. However, attrition can be regarded differently among conscripts than among volunteers. In Finland, where men have the obligation to serve as part of conscription, the attrition decision may feel as a relief in a stressful situation, whereas among volunteers it may be deemed as a punishment (Laurence, 1993, p. 3), and even in the same organization one drop-out may feel disappointment while another take pleasure in it.

While attrition increases organizational harm and cost, it further helps the selection of the service members and clarifies the training situation. Although it labels the dropout, attrition gives him or her a sudden break from stress. Thus, both the reasons and consequences of attrition are several at multiple levels (i.e. the service member, the unit, and manpower) (Siebold, 1981, p. 4). Perhaps therefore, attrition has received broad and continuous attention among policymakers in the military.

### **5.1.2 Attitudinal and Behavioral Indicators of Maladjustment**

While actual attrition indicates one extreme in the continuum from maladjustment to successful adjustment, the next level, and not as serious adjustment problem, is found among those who have had intentions to quit from service. Therefore in addition to recruits that end their service with discharge, even a larger number of recruits have had thoughts of seeking attrition during their service. For example, in the study of Klein et al. (1991, p. 35), even 42 % of the people wanted to be discharged before the end of their obligation. These intentions are directly related to the actual turnover (Van de Ven & Van Gelooven, 2006, p. 8). For example, Price and Sang-Wook (1993, p. 125) demonstrate that the intention to leave explains 25 % of the attrition cases ( $r = .50$ ). As strong a relation (i.e.  $r = .47$ ) was observed in Vandenberghe, Bentein, and Stinglhamber’s study (2004, p. 58). Similarly, pre-training intention to leave (i.e. attrition cognitions) was the best predictor of BT attrition (HumRRO, 2004, pp. 111, 300). The same finding was made in a civilian research which showed that the intention to leave explains most actual turnover in an organization (Griffeth et al., 2000; p. 480), as well as in the military, where the intent to leave has been a consistent predictor of attrition in several cohorts (Putka & Strickland, 2004, p. 33).

In the present research, along with attrition rates, recruits’ intentions to stay or leave were utilized as an outcome of adjustment process and a predictor of attrition. Conscripts’ intentions were assessed on the basis of two items: *I have considered applying to civilian service* and *I have considered dropping out of service*. These items formed a scale (*Intent to Stay*), which indicates how likely a conscript is either to remain or leave the military service (e.g. Moore, 2002, pp. 258, 265). This importance of intentions is saliently supported by the HumRRO’s (2004) study where the *Intent to Stay* -scale was the best predictor of actual attrition.

In previous studies, indicators of *medical problems* have also been used to represent coping and adjustment problems (Sandal et al., 1999, p. 384). Conscripts' visits to a medic or a doctor without any physical reasons indicate a dysfunctional reaction in the effort of coping with the anxiety of the military service (Anderson, 1974, pp. 50–51). For those who are not willing to separate but do not effectively cope with military practices, medical problems represent an “escape route” that temporarily alleviates situational stress in the military (Allison, 1999, p. 24).

*Low affective commitment* produces an underlying cause for voluntary absence (Meyer & Allen, 1997, pp. 27–28). Thus, conscripts with low commitment are not willing to participate in training, and are implicitly protesting against their adjustment situation in the military and alleviating their bad feelings about the service by visiting the doctor. Sawrey and Telford (1971, pp. 57–58) describe this form of coping strategy, which they call “Adjustment by ailment”. They use this notion to refer to the use of sickness as a defense mechanism due to various reasons: illness is a socially acceptable excuse for avoiding service, and it provides relief from regimentation without blame and punishments, as well as attention, care, and peer support from others.

The findings of Mathieu and Kohler (1990, pp. 218–220) suggest that average group-level absence predicts an individual absence beyond other factors, such as commitment, satisfaction, or demographic items. Thus, the company's absence culture and policy, and especially group norms mediate how contextual and situational factors influence an individual's behavior (e.g. adjustment by ailment) (op.cit. p. 220). Pearlin (1993, p. 304) reasons that absence due to *malingering* and other techniques for remedying a stressful situation is learned from the reference group (i.e. from other squad and platoon members). Therefore, the social context of the defensive coping efforts should be taken into account when studying such adjustment reactions. Examining the same issue, Shalit (1982, p. 19) found that the greater the uniformity of the coping appraisal in a group, the less medical discharges (i.e. less illness) there were among the group members. Furthermore, he argues that the similarity of perceptions, rather than actual perceptions in the group, influences how soldiers seek exemptions due to medical reasons (op.cit. p. 25). Therefore, if an individual utilizes only negative coping strategies (e.g. malingering), his or her peers most likely condemn it, and, consequently, the group exerts social pressure upon the individual. This was discerned in the research of Hockey (1986, p. 130) when he noted how other group members had a negative attitude towards soldiers who habitually avoided their work.

In the present research, voluntarily absence perceptions were examined with a scale that comprised two items: *I have applied for exemptions from field exercise even though I was not ill* and *I have applied for exemptions from the medical officer or doctor, because I could not care less about participating in the military service*. In addition, the actual medical records of conscripts were gathered with the permission of the Defence Staff of the Finnish Defence Forces. This information included the number of times the conscripts visited a doctor, the number of days they did not participate in training, and the official category of exemptions. One of the main categories utilized in this research is “Exemptions from march, combat, and physical training (i.e. “vapautus marssi-, taistelu- ja liikuntakoulutuksesta”) which refers to a minor physical illness, which is a mild exemption and most often granted. Particularly, this category might be used by conscripts as a voluntarily absence to avoid adjustment problems in their

service. Other categories of illness refer to more serious physical sickness, and therefore, they should not be as much related to emotional or social adjustment problems as this one.

*Punishments* are socialization efforts to assimilate a person to the normal flow of organizational life and to point out what kind of maladjustment behavior is totally unacceptable. By using punishments the military organization expresses disapproval for a conscript's slip from the right behavioral code by showing that the conscript has done something disgraceful and dishonorable (Artema, 1993, pp. 33–35). Military punishments indicate that a conscript has serious maladjustment problems, and specifically problems with adjusting to the military regulations, traditions, and requirements of self-control (Stouffer et al., 1949, p. 82; Zook, 1996, p. 39). In the section of criminal record, the main associations of personal factors, delinquency, and adjustment were summed up, but they are not repeated here. On the permission of the Finnish Defence Forces, the conscripts' past criminal record as well as reprimands and punishments during their service due to AWOLs or other behavioral expressions were incorporated to the data.

## 5.2 Positive Aspects of Military Adjustment

The military service may serve to reduce conscripts' alienation and anomia as a result of social support, and the leaders' personalized attention to their problems. Going and surviving through adverse conditions by successful coping create a sense of accomplishment that supports the conscripts' self-esteem, self-confidence, interpersonal relationships, sense of well-being, and further adjustment in the military and in civilian situations (Dawson et al., 1994a, pp. A–13; 213–214; Hicks & Nogami, 1984, pp. 97–98). Especially involvement with a group, and identification and a sense of belonging with a unit relate positively to a successful adjustment process (Dawson et al., 1994a, pp. 106–107, 213–215). Therefore all adjustment-related factors are not considered negative from the conscript's point of view. Actually, most conscripts adjust adequately to the military regime, and many of them do it highly successfully.

*Expected and Perceived Military Adjustment.* Generally speaking, people assess how their personal coping skills match the demands of the military environment, and the likelihood of positive or negative outcomes of coping (cf. Bandura, 1986, pp. 337, 396, 405, 444). Conscripts use this appraisal to determine the meaningfulness of coping efforts. For example, Sandel and his colleagues (1999, p. 385) deduce that knowledge about the end of the situation has a powerful effect on psychological stress reactions in the military. Vickers and Conway (1983, p. 15) explain how low expectations of success in the military produce a minimal effort by recruits in BT, which may lead to mediocre performance. Thus, pre-service attitudes and expectations about personal adjustment and turnover are predictive in actual military records (e.g. in overall attrition) (HumRRO, 2004, p. 57). Therefore, it is not surprising that positive expectations and attitudes toward military service are valued as important variables for predicting adjustment and avoiding attrition (Dawson et al., 1994a, pp. 7–8). For instance, Shaw et al. (1983, p. 35) conclude that self-rated adjustment was best predicted by the expected adjustment in their research. On the other hand, negative expectations will lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy for some recruits (Vickers & Conway, 1983, p. 15).

In the present research, the *Military Adjustment* index is the main dependent variable for measuring conscripts' adjustment ability and success. *Military Adjustment* indicates expected adjustment prior to the entry, and perceived (self-rated) adjustment during conscript service (e.g. Shaw et al., 1983, p. 23). It contains such items as *I will adjust to the military service*, *I will adjust to military discipline*, *I will adjust to rush and a strict timetable*, and *I can cope with the mental pressure of conscript training*. Contrary to the actual attrition, which shows only those who have serious maladjustment problems, the whole variation of expected and perceived adjustment can be examined with *the Military Adjustment* index.

*Personal Growth and Development.* Basic training forms a common experience which unites (almost) all Finnish men and at the same time separates adolescents without military experience from men who have already "grown up" by doing their duty. The Finnish Defence Forces recruit almost every male in each annual population. Thus, conscript service represents a turning point in a conscript's life; it is an event that transits him or her from past adolescence to future experiences in adulthood (Gade, Lakhani, & Kimmel, 1991, p. 251; Halonen, 2007, p. 143). That event is remembered through the rest of one's life.

Elder et al. (1991, pp. 217–218) outline that the potential impact of military service depends on (a) the conscript's background history and experiences, (b) timing of the service (e.g. shortly after schooling or at a later age), (c) service experiences (e.g. positive experiences in special training), and (d) personal consequences of the military service. Kearl and Nelson (1992, p. 263) call the latter factor skill transferability and argue that it is also related to attrition in service. Potentially, military experiences provide a new start for those who are already marginalized in a society, and it is one of the last chances to grab on the "normal" flow of life (Gade et al., 1991, p. 251; Janowitz, 1971, p. 167).

Specifically, personal outcomes of the military service are any positive or negative relevant consequences to a recruit as a result of the social and personal learning experiences during service. Examples of positive personal level outcomes include a sense of ability to finish something successfully on one's own, increased self-discipline, resilience, and self-esteem. Instances of negative personal outcomes include hazing experiences, emotional instability, antisocial behavior, depressive learning experiences, and negative lifestyle changes (HumRRO, 2004, pp. 84–85; Thompson & Gignac, 2001, p. 19). Gade et al. (1991, p. 257) conducted a research on service members' personal growth in service, and found that the most valuable aspect of the military was the experienced self-growth during service. Elder, Gimbel, and Ivie (1991, p. 227) reported that those who perceived having personal growth (i.e. an advantage of life and a source of life skills), viewed also their service as a turning point in their life.

In this research, it was assumed that the military service offers conditions for self-development where a conscript may acquire new coping skills and experiences, enhanced personal and social development, interpersonal skills with peers and supervisors, and personal qualities in special training (Gade et al., 1991, pp. 251–252). Specifically, the *Personal Growth* scale consists of eight items, such as *Due to military service I can take other people into consideration as well*, *My mental stamina has improved considerably during the military service*, *In the army I have learned to take responsibility for myself and others*, *The army has taught me self-control*, and *The army has a significant educational purpose*. Basically, this scale mirrors the success of social learning and adjustment in the military.

*Personal and Group Performance.* In addition to personal growth, conscripts learn particular knowledge and skills for performance in their duty. It was assumed that the “Will-Do” component of performance (e.g. effort, discipline, and adjustment) support the successful “Can-Do” component (which is seen in actual performance) (White et al., 1993, p. 101). For this research, the conscripts assessed their personal and group performance, on the basis of which two scales were formed, including such items as *The squad that I belong to would do well in real combat* and *The platoon that I belong to would do well in real combat* (the two-item *Expected Group Performance* scale) and *On the basis of my training I could do my duty during a war* and *In all circumstances, I master the weapons and equipment needed for my duty* (the six-item *Expected Personal Performance* measure). In addition to performance perceptions, the data were extended with the conscripts’ overall military *Performance Ratings* that were evaluated by their instructors (two items). *Rank* is a function as well as the outcome of personal performance (Horne, 1987, p. 450). It indicates a conscript’s successful adjustment in the military, capacity for bearing with military experiences, and learning motivation among conscripts (Stouffer et al., 1949, p. 82). As in previous studies (e.g. Zook, 1996, p. 21), also in this research rank was treated as one outcome measure of adjustment.

### 5.3 Conclusions of the Criteria

Adjustment and attrition are not simple matters. Causality exists at individual, organizational, and manpower policy levels (cf. Dawson et al., 1994b; Hicks & Nogami, 1984; Hosek et al., 1989; Perry et al., 1991; Siebold, 1981). For example at the individual level, conscripts with certain characteristics, such as low aptitude, inability to respond well to authority, and physical weakness, may have a substantially more difficult time in adjusting to the requirements of military service and be more prone towards maladjustment. Likewise at the organizational level, military units may have excessive turnover, a poor climate, mediocre leadership, less meaningful training, and other conditions that promote problems with which newcomers find it difficult to cope. Similarly at the manpower policy level, the rules and procedures may be tight or loose, and thus the same unacceptable behavior may result in remedial training, punishment, or separation from service, depending on the policy in force in the organization at the time, the number and rate of other individuals separated from service during the same period, and a shortage or surplus of personnel.

All these factors come into play by either supporting or impeding daily coping, and, accordingly, the ability of conscripts to cope with the requirements of everyday life influences the extent to which they adjust to the military life. This, in turn, affects the problems of retention and performance during the conscript service (Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 1). If a conscript does not adjust to the military service, there are different kinds of manifestations of maladjustment: difficulties to obey, poor duty performance, lack of motivation, interpersonal problems, home-sickness, and physical and mental problems (Allen & Bell, 1980, pp. 2–3; Allison, 1999, p. 24; Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 90; Manning & Ingraham, 1981, p. 261; Larson et al., 2002, p. 770.). Such adjustment problems quickly bring others, such as attrition, intentions to leave, “adjustment by ailment,” and discipline problems (e.g. Buddin, 1988, p. 12; Dawson et al., 1994a, p. 217) (Table 5).

### **Adjustment Criteria**

Instances of **negative personal outcomes** include

- attrition (i.e. turnover, discharges, withdrawal, early separation)
- absence without leave
- deviant behavior, discipline problems, and punishments
- drink- or drug-related offences
- antisocial behavior (anti-citizenship behavior)
- malingering and “adjustment by ailment”
- intentions to leave
- low commitment and lack of motivation
- emotional instability
- physical health problems
- interpersonal problems (such as experienced hazing)
- depressive learning experiences
- difficulties to obey
- poor duty performance
- homesickness
- negative lifestyle changes
- deteriorated economic situation due to lack of income
- lost of a friend or a girlfriend

### **Positive adjustment experiences and outcomes**

- ability to conform with military norms, values, and regimentation
- increased knowledge, improved skills, and control
- working for the benefit of the group (prosocial performance)
- highly rated personal performance (in terms achieving goals)
- physical development
- earned trust and appreciation of others (e.g. formal and informal influence)
- satisfaction and happiness of being part of the group and the unit
- commitment to organizational goals
- training motivation
- job satisfaction
- low anxiety and stress
- intent to stay
- refresher training intentions
- career intentions
- personal growth and development
- increased self-discipline
- stamina and resilience
- self-esteem
- self-efficacy
- ability to finish something successfully on one's own

*Table 5.* Adjustment Criteria

In the present research, different aspects of adjustment are considered based on both subjective measures and the “functional definition” of adjustment (such as the number of attrition and maladjustment incidents in military records) (Dovrat, 1995, p. 16). The main assumption about adjustment criteria is that a conscript who has adjustment problems

separates or intends to separate from the military, malingers or intends to do so, has more medical and discipline problems, and expects and experiences more difficulties to adjust than those who cope with military practices satisfactorily and adjust to the military. An accurate prediction of adjustment criteria requires information about the organizational situation (i.e. situational and organizational adjustment factors – chapter 3) as well as individual conscript characteristics (i.e. personal adjustment factors – chapter 4). The following chapter 6 illustrates how this study was designed and carried out, how the factors were developed, and how their reliability and validity was tested. Finally, the results section, chapter 7, features those analyses that were conducted to demonstrate whether these (situational and personal) factors separately and together predict the conscripts' adjustment process in the military.

## 6 METHOD

### 6.1 Research Questions on Military Adjustment

The purpose of this research was to create a follow-up study that could identify the main adjustment factors in the military, the change in the personal adjustment over time, and the impact of military adjustment on the relevant outcomes. To fulfill this objective, both personal and situational factors and their influence on the military adjustment process were explored on the basis of previous studies as detailed in the above sections. The thorough discussion of the diverse findings of those studies was needed due to the broad, multi-disciplinary nature of the adjustment process and its factors. Particularly, the above sections served in making the distinction between the salient variables and measures and marginally adjustment-related items. Consequently, previous studies formed the basis for the structuring of the appropriate research questions, measures, and design for the quantitative analysis.

Since the military adjustment process merges with the organizational socialization process, the logical frame for scheduling the follow-up study turned out to be the main phases of the conscript service period. Specifically, the investigation and encounter phases at the beginning of service, the basic training period with the main socialization objectives, and the advanced training period as a maintenance phase of organizational membership form three distinct occasions where different adjustment resources are required. Particularly, the three stages (i.e. just before service, the BT period, and the end of service) employ different situational and organizational inputs (as information and requirements), and therefore the person needs to utilize varying personal coping resources for meeting both the external and internal requirements and expectations during the particular stage.

By combining the above mentioned phases of the conscript service and socialization process and the details of adjustment factors, the research focus was put on the explanation of adjustment expectations, basic training adjustment experiences, adjustment experiences at the end of service, and the main reasons for early separation (as an extreme indicator of maladjustment). Correspondingly, the research questions were outlined for examining military adjustment to these diverse phases of military service. Specifically, this research has been conducted to answer the following research questions:

1. What predicts military adjustment expectations?
  - a. How do personal background and characteristics explain conscripts' expectations about their adjustment and military experiences?
  - b. What are the main variables that predict adjustment expectations?
  - c. To which extent are adjustment expectations related to self-perceived adjustment, attitudes, and performance in service?
2. What predicts military adjustment during the basic training period?
  - a. How are personal background and characteristics associated with basic training adjustment experiences?
  - b. What are the main variables that predict adjustment to basic training?
  - c. What differentiates perceived maladjustment and successful adjustment?
  - d. To which extent are basic training adjustment perceptions related to self-perceived adjustment and other criteria at the end of service?



3. What predicts military adjustment at the end of service?
  - a. How are personal background and characteristics associated with military adjustment at the end of service?
  - b. What predicts adjustment perceptions at the end of service?
  - c. What differentiates maladjustment from successful adjustment at the end of service?
  - d. How is conscripts' adjustment related to positive and negative outcomes at the end of service?
4. What explains attrition (i.e. early separation) from service?
  - a. What are the main categories of attrition?
  - b. How do attrition categories differ from one another in terms of predictors?
  - c. What predicts adjustment-related attrition from service?
  - d. What are the strongest predictors of attrition?

## 6.2 Sample and Background Information about the Finnish Conscript Service

The sample of the research was composed of the conscripts inducted to the Armored Brigade in Hattula in Finland as the first contingent starting in January 2001 or the second starting in July 2001. One month before the induction, the sample consisted of 2,047 conscripts (the first contingent  $n = 1,063$  and the second one  $n = 984$ ). The conscripts were mainly from the province of Häme in south-western Finland. The cities of Tampere, Valkeakoski, Lahti, Hyvinkää, Riihimäki, Forssa, and Hämeenlinna are located in this area. In the selected contingents, 10 conscripts originally belonged to earlier contingents, but they were separated as E class attrition before fulfilling their service obligation, and now they were completing their military obligation by returning to service with the 2001 contingents. Because of their different circumstances, the prior service conscripts were not included in the sample of the 2,047 new conscripts, which was about 6.8 % of the annual male cohort in Finland in 2001.

The modal age in the sample was 20 years (52 %) with 88 % of the participants between 19 and 20 years of age, and 2.5 % 18 year olds, 4.5 % 21 year olds, and 5 % 21–29 year olds. The majority (42.5 %) of the recruits had graduated with a high school diploma after completing 12 years at school. Almost as many (39.5 %) had studied from 9 to 11 years, while only 16 % had only a comprehensive school background, whereas just 2 % were college graduates. In this sample, all the recruits were Caucasian and only 34 (1.7 %) were female soldiers performing voluntary service. Among those 1,792 conscripts who completed their service, 53 % of them were still privates, 33 % were lance corporals or corporals, 7 % were sergeants, and another 7 % of the conscripts were promoted to a platoon leader or an equal position. The length of service depended on the type and amount of training received, and for 35 % of the conscripts it was six months, for 13 % it was nine months, and 52 % of the conscripts served the twelve month period. The large percentage serving the longest period is explained by the mainstream of specialized and technical tasks in the Armored Brigade.

For those who are not familiar with the Finnish conscript service system, the following description provides a short overview about induction, service period, and training in the Finnish military. In this case, the logic and rules of alternative services, exemptions, and discharges are particularly relevant in order to understand the situation where military adjustment and attrition occur. Every Finnish male citizen is liable by law for compulsory military service. Military training consists mainly of conscript training and refresher courses for reservists. The conscript service lasts 180 days for most rank and file soldiers and 270 or 362 days for specialized highly technical rank-and-file duties and conscript leaders. The first 8 weeks of the service involve basic training, and the remaining of the time covers additional individual training and unit training. Over 80 % of a given male cohort completes the military service (Parkkola, 1999, p. 13; Parkkola, 2007, pp. 2, 27; Parkkola, Multimäki, & Sourander, 2002, p. 33).

The conscript service is preceded by a call-up, which is organized annually for the 18-year-old men. Each potential service member is sent a questionnaire, a call-up notification, and a detailed information booklet. Medical examinations for those liable for the military service are conducted at the health centers of municipalities. Based on the medical report and questionnaire, it is decided when the conscript must report for duty or whether he will be granted a deferment. The time and location of reporting for duty are determined primarily by the needs of the Defence Forces, the health of the conscript, and the conscript's native language (Finnish or Swedish). Also the conscript's own wishes, educational background, hobbies, and social situation are taken into account as much as possible. Postponement of military service can be granted for up to three years in peacetime due to personal economic considerations, professional studies, or other pressing personal reasons. Neglecting the call-up without a legitimate cause is a punishable offence under the Finnish Conscription Act (for more information, see CDDS, 2003).

An exemption from military service is permitted only if a person (a) has an expatriate dual citizenship, (b) is a Jehovah's Witness, (c) has a serious health reason, or (d) has an approved registration for the alternative civil service (op.cit.). In practice, only 3–5 % of the male population is exempted from the service in the call-ups. During the conscript service, a person who is not fit for the military service may be exempted from peacetime duty (C class exemption), or also from wartime duty (D class exemption). The most common exemption is for a certain period of time (E class, for one or two years), after which the conscript has to serve in the military. The E class exemption can be issued for a physical reason (e.g. due to a bone fracture) or a mental reason (e.g. due to adjustment problems). Regardless of the received E class exemption, the person is still obliged to serve a 6 to 12 month period in the military afterwards (Parkkola, 2007, pp. 12–16). Figure 3 depicts the flow of the conscript training.

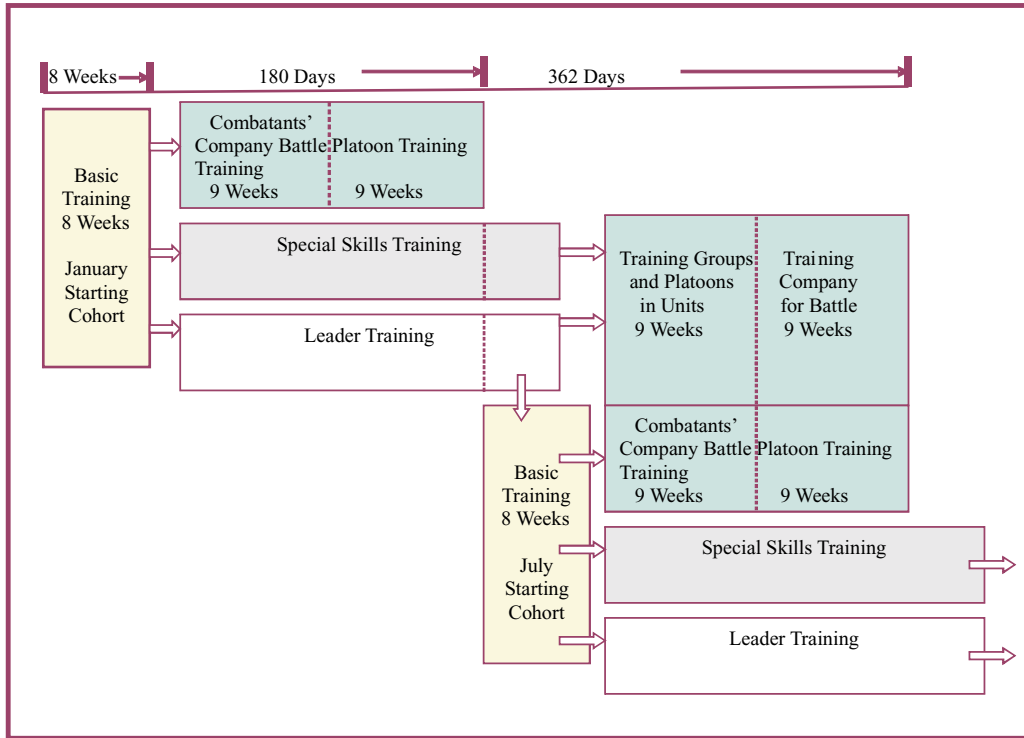


Figure 3. Periods of Conscript Training

As seen in the figure, new conscripts are inducted twice a year, in January and in July. Generally, this happens in the year when the male reaches the age of 19 or 20 (IDDS, 2002; CDDS, 2003). During BT (i.e. the first 8 weeks of the military service), the company commander decides, with some input from the conscript and the instructors, the conscript's future military job according to his skills and suitability, whether the conscript will receive any specialized technical training or leadership courses, and, finally, the duration of service. After BT, the majority of conscripts receive additional individual training and then unit training, where they are trained to operate effectively as individuals as well as team members. The whole training aims at creating combat-efficient functioning units. Most combat soldiers are transferred to the military reserve after their initial six-month training. These reserve units form the bulk of the military personnel for the Finnish Defence Forces in the event of a crisis or war. Those who are selected to become leaders or chosen for specialized technical training continue serving with the next contingent of conscripts and in the units they eventually compose. The reservists are called back after 5 to 7 years for a one-week task-based refresher course and exercise in the same unit they were originally trained for (IDDS, 2002). This same training procedure applies to voluntary female conscripts.

### 6.3 Questionnaire Design

As the main adjustment factors featured in previous studies were already introduced above, they are not repeated here. This section thus portrays the details how it was verified that international adjustment research and their models apply to national military context in terms of overall, theoretical adjustment factors and their relevance in practice. Thus, the main part of the questionnaire design was determined based on the prior studies and their results, and the last confirmation for the design was drawn from qualitative data showing how officers and conscript view the main adjustment factors in conscript service. Particularly, this kind of procedure refers to *mixed methods research* including at least one quantitative and qualitative method that are not inherently linked to a particular inquiry paradigm or philosophy (Caracelli & Greene, 1993, p. 195; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989, p. 256).

Since this research could be labeled as a part of the mixed methods research, the following concisely details the specific differences between and similarities with this study approach. Mixed methods research is defined as “the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). From the point of view of Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska, and Creswell (2005, p. 224), the mixed method research “involve the collection, analysis, and integration of quantitative and qualitative data in a single or multiphase study”. However, this present research did not combine the *results* of quantitative and qualitative data together, but instead rather pretested whether qualitative data supported the theory about military adjustment factors in order to prepare measures for the actual quantitative data collection. On the other hand, this kind of approach could be considered mixed methods research on the basis of its particular purpose (i.e. *development*) as pointed out by the Greene’s and her colleagues’ (1989, p. 259) conceptualization of research purposes. The other optional purposes for mixed method research designs are triangulation, complementarity, initiation, and expansion. In order to differentiate between these designs and that of the current study, the main characteristics of the research designs are briefly explained.

*Triangulation* means the investigation of the same phenomenon with multiple methods for scaling, reliability, and convergent validation or for a more complete understanding and explanation of the subject (Jick, 1979, p. 603). It seeks convergence, corroboration, and correspondence of results (Caracelli & Greene, 1993, p. 196) for strengthening their validity (Greene et al., 1989, pp. 258–259). Through *complementarity*, different methods measure overlapping factors of a phenomenon, where, for example a qualitative method elaborates, enhances, illustrates, and clarifies the results gained by quantitative analysis (or vice versa) (Caracelli & Greene, 1993, p. 196; Greene et al., 1989, p. 266). The purpose of *initiation* is to enrich an understanding by uncovering of inconsistencies and contradictions or finding new approaches through an inventive utilization and combination of methods (Greene et al., 1989, p. 268; Jick, 1979, pp. 603, 608). In an *expansion* research design, different methods are used for the investigation of study components in order to extend the breadth or range of inquiry (Caracelli & Greene, 1993, p. 196; Hanson et al., 2005, p. 226). Finally, the *development* design (such as this research) makes use of the results of one method for developing the application of the other method and increasing the validity of the research

construct (Greene et al., 1989, pp. 259–260). Thus, the developmental use of different methods directs instrumentation, sampling, and administration decisions (Caracelli & Greene, 1993, p. 203) and answers the question: what kind of sample and data would be of use in the second part of the study (Sandelowski, 2000, pp. 251–252).

The logic and motive behind the employment of qualitative data were the following. For supporting the generalization of the research, the review of previous studies was composed based on versatile, multinational adjustment studies. Then, the data from interviews and texts were employed in order to be sure that the framework was applicable in the Finnish military context and uncovering whether there were variables that were unknown in previous studies (due to a unique variance that might be neglected by single methods) (Hanson et al., 2005, p. 229; Jick, 1979, p. 603). In other words, the comparison between theory and qualitative results helped to identify possible distinctions between perceived reality (i.e. participants' perspectives and meanings) and theory-driven adjustment factors and, moreover, whether there was a need for supplementary variables in the questionnaires (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, pp. 18–19).

The next part describes how the details in the review of previous studies were verified with practical knowledge of the Finnish military personnel and conscripts in order to form quantitative tools that test and measure aspects that have a direct relation to “real life” (i.e. conscripts' adjustment process and experiences). Thus, the interviews did not try to answer the research questions although some useful notes and suggestions were revealed by the respondents. The purpose of collecting qualitative data was to enrich the views already portrayed in previous studies and corroborate whether the variables and measures cover the whole range of adjustment phenomenon. Besides this section, the other parts of this research relied on the paradigm of positivism and the empirical indicators of objective reality (Sale & Brazil, 2004, p. 353) emphasizing quantitative prediction and explanation of the phenomenon. In this sense, the following qualitative approach may provide a fresh look enriching other parts of the research.

In terms of the number of interviewees, only eight officers were interviewed. Four of them were responsible for the basic training in their units and they were either warrant officers or young officers. In addition, two company commanders and two battalion commanders who received recruits and were in charge of the conscript training were interviewed. Thus, the selection focused on the key persons who had a decisive influence on conscripts' life due to their planning and guidance at the different hierarchical levels of the military organization. These people were selected for interviews due to their knowledge and personal experience about the problems and needs of the recruit, as well as their ability to interpret different aspects of the military adjustment process (the same procedure also in Dawson et al., 1994b, pp. 75–76).

Overall, the interviews supported the theoretical personal and organizational factors that were drawn from the multinational research partly in other contexts. The detailed excerpts below are from the structured interviews and the responses are categorized based on the theory and research on adjustment. Furthermore, all the topics and details of the instructors' answers will be displayed in the following depiction of findings and nothing is excluded from the report. However, one factor or variable is mentioned only in each category although it

could have been repeated by many instructors. Thus, the number of answers is not the main point on the next pages.

In the interviews, the instructors and commanders received the questions a week prior to the meeting and they were asked to write their preliminary answers on the sent forms. In a 40 minute to one hour meeting the author and the instructor discussed the responses and their meaning for the adjustment process. In the first question the author asked: *What are the factors that require adjustment from the conscript?* Eight instructors provided the following military adjustment factors or items:

- (a) *Mental and physical strain* in a new social and cultural environment;
- (b) Adjustment to *regimentation and authority* (e.g. “strict rules and regulations,” “early reveilles,” “lack of own time and space,” “pace and rush in daily schedules,” “occasionally lack of rest,” “deadlines,” “acceptance and obedience of orders,” “inability to refuse to obey an order,” “habits and new behavioral patterns,” and “restrictions of freedom”);
- (c) Social *peer relationships* (“social pressure and others’ constant presence in the squads,” “new acquaintances,” “taking also others’ needs into account,” “working as a team instead of individually”);
- (d) *Training* that causes strain due to required learning (“learning new things,” “learning things that are not interesting or personally valued,” and “military clothes and equipment”); and
- (e) *Civilian-related factors* (such as “lack of contacts to the civilian world” and “economic problems due to low subsistence”).

Interestingly, the main difference between these categories and the factors that were described in chapter 3 of the situational and institutional adjustment factors was that the instructors did not mention the quality of [their] leadership, but instead emphasized how the recruits are able to follow orders and adjust to the pace and rush (that is created or at least influenced by the instructors’ leadership). The same kind of tendency to put the responsibility to adjust on the conscript’s shoulders can be seen in the category of training-related items. There the instructors look at what kind of adjustment activity the training causes on the conscript (e.g. need for learning) without considering that the quality of training itself may be one independent adjustment factor. Generally, the instructors stress the idea of whether the recruits adjust to their orders and military regimentation, their training, and some other factors that they have found to be relevant to assess maladjustment due to mental and physical problems, social pressure, and problems in civilian matters.

The acquiring of adjustment factors continued with the question: *What makes adjustment easier?* Based on the instructors’ responses the following categories of factors help people to adjust to the military:

- 1) Pre-training conditions (i.e. background experiences, personal attitudes, and information about the service):
  - (a) *previous experiences* at school, home, work, and in a group (e.g. “disciplined and appropriate education at home and at school,” “safe family experiences,” “group experiences in a hockey team or as a Scout,” and “working experiences (grown-up, with sense of responsibility, adjusted to timetables and waking up early)”);

- (b) *positive attitudes* towards the military (e.g. “positive approach to military experiences”);
  - (c) adequate *preliminary information* (e.g. “early information in advance; also for girlfriends”);
- 2) Personal readiness for the military adjustment process due to emotional stability, physical health, sociability, and acceptance of authority and regimentation:
    - (a) good *physical health* and *emotional stability* (e.g. “physical exercising before the service,” “good physical and mental health,” and “a well-balanced recruit”);
    - (b) *sociability* (e.g. “taking other people into account,” “getting acquainted soon in the squads,” and “working more as a team member (instead of constant emphasis on oneself);”
    - (c) *acceptance of authority* and understanding of regimentation (“obedience out of habit,” “fully-realized discipline (learning the ropes fast – finding the personal place and position in an organization)”);
  - 3) Situational and institutional factors supporting adjustment:
    - (a) positive *social experiences* (e.g. “everyone in the same boat,” “doing things together,” “helping others (and slower learners),” and “cohesion in the squads”);
    - (b) *leadership* of good quality (e.g. “the main thing: the squad leaders’ proper behavior and attitudes,” “facing the recruits as individuals (noting everyone’s skills and abilities),” “fair, proper, and impartial treatment of the recruits,” “meeting the recruits personally,” “a squad leader for every team (support and guidance),” “patience of the military personnel while they train the recruits,” and “instructors’ support and positive attitudes”);
    - (c) constructive *training* program (e.g. “easy start of the service (physically and mentally) and then gradually more demanding training,” “less rush in the beginning (e.g. enough time for dining),” “rising and developing demands and standards,” “training things that help the adjustment process,” “focus on essential matters,” and “encouraging training”);
  - 4) *Civilian conditions* during the service (i.e. peaceful civilian front) (e.g. “no disturbing civilian problems” and “no problems in the civilian world (with money, work, study or personal relationships)).

In addition, there were three references that did not fit the above categories, although they were mentioned in the literature review: “utilization of *professional helpers* (chaplain, welfare officer, and doctors);” “*screening of conscripts* with intentions to quit,” and *personal bearing* with the start of service (i.e. “if the person survives the first week then it eases up”). These items refer to how to avoid or treat maladjustment and especially attrition in the military.

As noticed, the first question about adjustment did not bring out a comprehensive picture about adjustment factors, perhaps due to its too abstract formulation. The second question about the factors that ease personal military adjustment conveyed more diverse responses. One officer prioritized the main three factors that ease the adjustment process by saying that a positive attitude toward the military service is the most important factor that helps personal adjustment, and right after that comes “good morale in the squad” and “support of the own squad leader.” In general, this statement summarizes and underscores the two main dimensions of adjustment factors that were most often mentioned by the instructors:

individual (attitudes) and situational factors (social and leadership experiences). This dichotomy was also suggested by many researchers in the literature review. Altogether, the instructors' responses correspond to the literature review, indicating that the instructors had an understanding of the main determinants of recruits' adjustment, at least once all the responses were put together.

The last question about adjustment was opposite to the previous one: *What are the things that complicate the adjustment process?* The instructors mainly used "an economical strategy" for responding to this question by stating that the adjustment process is complicated by the same factors that were asked in the second question (about easing factors), but only putting them into a negative form. However, the instructors' answers can be categorized as follows:

- 1) Pre-training conditions (i.e. background experiences, personal attitudes, and information about the service):
  - (a) *previous experiences* at school, home, and work (e.g. "broken family background," "ineptitude of previous education," and "lack of work experience");
  - (b) "*negative attitudes*" towards the military;
  - (c) "*poor motivation*";
  - (d) *inaccurate expectations* (e.g. "inaccurate impressions and expectations of conscripts (i.e. negative stereotypes of the military)," "too positive or negative expectations");
- 2) Personal incapacity for the military adjustment process:
  - (a) poor *physical health* and *emotional stability* (e.g. "poor physical health," "nervousness");
  - (b) lack of *sociability* (e.g. "lack of social adjustment," "individual-centered mind");
- 3) Situational and institutional factors hindering adjustment:
  - (a) negative *social experiences* ("peers if the relations are not satisfying");
  - (b) poor *leaders* (e.g. "arrogance of leaders," "inexperienced and immature squad leaders," "instructors' and conscript leaders' ignorance and short-sighted behavior," "shortage of personnel and supervision");
  - (c) rush in *training* ("too many learning topics in a short time period," "pace of learning");
- 4) Problems in *civilian life* ("financial and interpersonal civilian problems").
- 5) Besides these details, one instructor mentioned "cultural differences between the military and the civilian organizations" that cause problems to recruits and difficulties in the adjustment process.

Compared to the second question, this one revealed some new factors. Instead of preliminary information, the instructors mentioned the importance of accurate expectations. On the other hand, acceptance of authority and regimentation was not mentioned at all (perhaps due to the fact that they were already emphasized in the conversation about the previous questions). Finally, some instructors mentioned the quality of leadership in the second and third questions (which was not done in the first question). Theoretically, the remark on the cultural differences between the military and civilian environment summarizes the whole importance of taking the situational and institutional factors into account in the adjustment process, as was discussed in the literature review.



In addition to the interviews, the candidates of the armored reserve officer course 218 (i.e. conscripts that were trained for being platoon leaders in their cohort) wrote “adjustment stories” where they detailed things that may help in conscripts’ military adjustment. Since these excellent conscripts (i.e. the best 5 % of the conscripts) had experienced their own adjustment process just six months ago and seen a wide range of adjustment experiences among their peers, their responses were initially considered important, giving a detailed conscript viewpoint to the issue. The following adjustment categories were derived from their texts (which were more like lists of variables than coherent stories):

- 1) Pre-training conditions (i.e. background experiences, personal attitudes, and information about the service):
  - (a) *previous experiences* at home, work, and in groups (“good family education,” “good family relations,” “previous close social experiences (in teams, clubs, or the Scouts),” “background (used to working hard, supportive family, education),” “previous (good) experiences of how to act in a group”);
  - (b) *positive attitudes* towards the military and *commitment* (“positive attitudes,” “sense of duty,” “interest in the branch or the military,” “interest in a military career,” “national obligation”);
  - (c) *achievement motivation* (“self-motivation,” “showing to yourself what you are able to endure and achieve,” “willingness to learn,” “desire to achieve and a competitive spirit,” “achievement motivation (for leadership training),” “willingness to receive leadership education,” “ambition”);
  - (d) *accurate expectations* and *expectations of others* (“has thought through what is expecting and waiting for in the service,” “expectations of relatives”);
- 2) Personal readiness for the military adjustment process:
  - (a) good *physical health* and *emotional stability* (“tolerance and patience,” “mature and able to take the responsibility for one’s own life,” “stable, normal and physically healthy, independent (mature),” “good condition,” “sporty”);
  - (b) *sociability* (“easy-going person,” “friendly appearance,” “getting along with others,” “being social in the group,” “easy to make friends,” “social adjustment”);
  - (c) *acceptance of authority* (“ability to obey authority,” “adjustment to discipline and regimentation helps to avoid burdening other with more problems”);
- 3) Situational and institutional factors supporting adjustment:
  - (a) positive *social experiences* (“help and encouragement of other squad members,” “good characters in the squads,” “the meaning [i.e. importance] of military friends / peers,” “support of others,” “sharing experiences with friends,” “good friends in the military,” “good spirit in the squad”);
  - (b) *leadership* of good quality (“a calm, humane squad leader,” “squad leaders who look after their recruits,” “fairness of the instructors,” “the quality of the instructors’ leadership”);
  - (c) *training* (“interesting training”);
- 4) *Civilian conditions* during the service (“civilian matters are in order,” “single (without family requirements),” “the support of significant others,” “friends, girlfriend, and parents who support,” “clear plans after the service,” “financial security”).

The adjustment factors that were mentioned in the conscript leaders’ texts were in concordance with the instructors’ responses and the previous literature. However, there were some notable

differences between the conscripts' and the instructors' responses. First of all, the conscripts brought up the importance of civilian support provided by friends, parents, and girlfriends. They also mentioned that relatives may have some expectations about the military service that may either motivate or cause stress. One conscript discerned how it helps to be single without social requirements in civilian life while serving in the military. In general, the civil conditions received more attention by the conscripts than by the instructors. The second main difference was the emphasis on personal attitudes, commitment, and achievement motivation. Although this was mentioned by the instructors, the conscripts raised this as the main determinant of successful adjustment (especially positive attitudes). However, the perceptions about achievement motivation may be biased due to the selective sample. In other words, among conscript platoon leaders the achievement motivation may explain their perseverance in the adjustment process much more, compared to rank and file soldiers. Still, desire and willingness to learn and achieve something was not mentioned at all in the instructors' interviews, whereas it was one of the cornerstones in the platoon leaders' texts. The third area of differences was that the conscripts did not emphasize the details of regimentation or the importance of training programs in the adjustment process, as was done by the instructors. Contrary to these differences, the main similarity was found in the prioritization: "attitude is the most important, the [military] friends come second, and leaders are the third."

The final and most radical difference between the conscript leaders' and instructors' responses was not presented above. In terms of adjustment theory, the instructors detailed some general adjustment factors, whereas the conscript platoon leaders took both adjustment factors and practical cognitive and social coping strategies into account. Actually, the remarks of coping strategies covered more than half of all the responses of the conscripts. Next, the coping strategies offered by the conscripts are explored. Specifically, they are divided to two main categories: active problem-focused actions and passive problem-accepting actions (i.e. emotion-focused coping). Problem-focused action means that the conscript tries to solve a stressful situation by fulfilling it, changing it, or finding solutions for controlling it. The conscript platoon leaders suggested the following ways of cognitive and social coping:

- (a) *seek information* ("a priori information about the military service");
- (b) *obey orders* ("do things that are ordered and expected");
- (c) *learn something that helps dealing with a problem* ("willingness to learn," "ability to learn new things," "learning of military habits," "do not take failures or mistakes too seriously but learn from them");
- (d) *seek flexible and inventive response options* ("initiative / self-help" and "independence and initiative");
- (e) *seek friendship with peers* ("learning the names and faces as soon as possible (easier to deal with people and become friends with peers)," "helping peers (in the same boat)," "hanging with the own group → esprit de corps");
- (f) *seek social support from others by talking with them* ("vent stress by talking with peers");
- (g) *create a good relationship with the immediate leader* ("close connections with the squad leader who listens, supports and guides the recruits"); and
- (h) *establish goals and objectives* ("goal-orientation").

Since the situation in the military is in many ways uncontrollable for an individual conscript, also the following cognitive and behavioral actions were seen functional for reducing stress in the military, although they do not directly change the objective situation:

- (a) *think positively and look at the bright side of life* (“trying to find positive aspects of things,” “openness to new things and experiences,” “coping with field exercises with positive thinking,” “being happy after every passed day”);
- (b) *do not worry about the situation*, which goes together with the first rule but emphasizes more the approach to negative experiences (“take things easy,” “no unnecessary worries,” “do not take things too seriously,” “not allowing small things to trouble,” “do not complain about trivial things”);
- (c) *see the humorous aspects of the situation* (“good sense of humor,” “humor helps your life (and releases stress),” “keeping a twinkle in one’s eye”);
- (d) *control yourself* (“self-discipline,” “ability to handle critique,” “tolerance of negative feedback,” “tolerance to pace and mental strain,” “not getting anxious,” “keeping one’s nerves”)
- (e) *bear with the discomfort* (“ability to endure stress,” “trying to be adaptive,” “take a day and week at a time,” “do not count days,” “don’t give up”)
- (f) *accept the reality* (“acceptance of facts,” “accepting the necessity to adjust,” “acceptance of the obligation of the military service and being proud of it,”
- (g) *find a reason for things* (“understanding the need of authority,” “try to understand the goal or meaning of unpleasant demanding training,” “it helps if you know why something is done,” “understanding the training goals and instructors’ actions,” “try to motivate yourself for the training”);
- (h) *exercise and adjust physically* (“vent stress by exercising,” “a healthy lifestyle,” “not unnecessary physical strain in the beginning”); and
- (i) *have a vacation* when really needed (“having leaves”).

In general, there were more references to passive than active ways of coping, perhaps due to conscripts’ low control of external demands and daily activities (see e.g. the coping strategies in Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 22; Farley & Veitch, 2003, p. 357; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 151; Shaw et al., 1983, p. 19). Of interest is that also in volunteer-based military the passive coping strategies are more often mentioned than active ones. For example, Legree (2004, p. 16) points out that the four most often expressed categories for the question about what enables soldiers to overcome the challenges presented by Army training were: perseverance, support of and concern for family, faith, and fellow soldiers. Similarly, Ramsberger and his colleagues (2004, pp. 27, 31) note that perseverance is the most often mentioned variable by soldiers that would help to their successful completion of training, and fortitude as the main category of contributing variables.

Methodologically, the interviews and adjustment stories were not the focus of this research as mentioned above. In fact, the main reason for conducting such qualitative inquiries was to verify that the practical knowledge goes together with theoretical reasoning, and thus validate the items and measures drawn for this research. In other words, the use of the qualitative method helped to explicate the understanding of how theory and practice are linked together in terms of military adjustment factors. Thus the review of previous studies was carried out to be able to describe adjustment factors in a way applicable to almost any organizational adjustment context in different European countries, as well as at least in

Israel and the United States. Moreover, the interview responses and conscripts' stories were collected to ensure that in the particular Finnish military conscript service context, there were no major factors that would deviate from the factors suggested by the previous studies set in different countries, which, in fact, was the case. Consequently, the review of previous studies serves as an adequate basis for determining the measures for the research.

In addition to the previous studies and interviews, the content of individual questionnaire items and the structure of measures were influenced by some practical issues. First of all, the results of the official military questionnaire that is regularly filled out by every conscript at the end of service were available for this research courtesy of the officials at the Department of Behavioural Sciences of the National Defence University. Having access to the data was invaluable and beneficial, but at the same time restricted the options available in terms of questionnaire design in order to avoid asking the same questions twice in a row. The official survey assesses especially situational and institutional factors that are related to military adjustment, such as the quality of training, leadership, and social relationships in the group. In spite of this, there was need for an adjustment questionnaire that would consider the main personal and situational adjustment factors that are not covered in the official survey. Therefore, a separate questionnaire was created to complement the annual data collection. The second major influence on determining the measures and the Finnish phrases for the questionnaire items came from Parkkola's attrition study (1999). Especially, the scales of *Emotional Stability* and *Stressful Life Events* were adapted from his measurements in order to relate the results of this research to the prior scientific debate on military adjustment and attrition. The third guideline was adopted from the researchers of the Department of Behavioural Sciences. In addition to their personal advice, this research took into account the content of their questionnaires on motivation and attrition.

Finally, the composition of self-contained, optically scannable questionnaires were formed and tested to determine the final survey instruments which would effectively gauge the conscripts' adjustment and attrition-related demographic, medical and psychosocial histories, as well as their perceptions and experiences about situational and organizational factors during the military service. Most of the questionnaire items were about opinions and attitudes and were responded to by using a 5-point Likert scale varying from a strongly negative answer to a strongly positive one (scored from 1 to 5) or vice versa. The questions were worded affirmatively and negatively, and the scale items were separated from each other to prevent response sets and to reduce multicollinearity of items and scales.

## **6.4 Questionnaire Administration**

The resulting instruments, in the Finnish language, were administered at three points in time. At the first point in time, or time 1, the baseline data were collected by a questionnaire to the conscripts administered by the author immediately upon their entering the service, when they had no direct experience about the military life and service. Of the initial sample, fifteen recruits did not arrive on time, were deserters for a while, and then dropped out immediately after their induction. Unfortunately, the author had no chance to meet them before their discharge. Nine recruits arrived on time but did not want to participate in the research. In addition, there were 20 recruits whose responses were so illogical or incomplete

that they were not included in the data. Because the author met all the inductees personally and apparently successfully persuaded them to participate in the research, the response rate was surprisingly good. Altogether, 44 recruits were missed from the first survey. Thus, 2,003 people and 97.9 % of the sample indicated their adjustment expectations. The author had also the permission of the Finnish Defence Staff and the Staff of the Armored Brigade to collect information about the relevant civilian and military records, and therefore there was some background information for the whole sample in the data. The first questionnaire is presented in Appendix 1 (located after the References section).

Table 6

*Number of Questionnaires and Size of Samples*

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**The baseline situation for the questionnaires**

**Questionnaire (Q) 1: Sample 2,047**

No shows: 15

Unwilling to participate: 9

Illogical or incomplete answers: 20

**Q1: 2,003 respondents (97,9% of the sample)**

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**During the basic training period (before Q2)**

Discharged: 158

Transferred to another brigade: 7

**Q2 sample: 1,838**

Unwilling to participate: 4

Illogical or incomplete answers: 3

**Q2: 1,831 respondents (89,4% of the original sample)**

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**The sample at the end of service**

Discharged at the end of BT period: 12

Discharged during the advanced training period: 41

Transferred to another brigade: 27

**Q3 sample: 1,751**

No answers: 82

Illogical or incomplete answers: 9

**Q3: 1,660 respondents (81,1% of the original sample)**

No answers to Q4: 126

**Q4: 1,534 respondents (74,9% of the conscripts provided complete responses from Q1 to Q4)**

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The second questionnaire was administered near the end of BT, at time 2. By the seventh week of service, 158 recruits had been discharged and seven were transferred to another brigade according to their request. Thus 1,838 recruits were still available from the starting sample. Each company had a survey which was administered by the author. Although one hour was reserved for the questionnaire in the units' service schedules, the fulfillment of the survey took 35 minutes at maximum. With the exception of a few items, the second

questionnaire was very similar to the first one, enabling a continuity of measures, which means that changes in perceptions could be analyzed over time. Most of the personal information acquired at time 1 baseline data collection with the first questionnaire was not requested again since that information was already available. On the other hand, some questionnaire items were added to address topics about which the service members now had sufficient information and experience to respond to. The added items covered aspects that were discussed in the chapter about situational and institutional factors and which were mentioned by the instructors and conscript leaders. Specifically, the recruits responded about three main situational components: social, leader, and organizational aspects, such as group cohesion, hazing, leadership, group performance, training quality, and unit climate. There were four people who did not want to continue as part of the research sample and three recruits whose responses were incomplete. Of the original sample (2,047 inductees), 89.4 % (i.e. 1,831 recruits) contributed successfully also to the second questionnaire, the items of which are presented in Appendix 2.

Just after the second data collection, 12 recruits dropped out of service during the last two weeks of their BT. In addition, 41 recruits were discharged during the advanced and unit training periods, and 27 conscripts were transferred elsewhere. Consequently, there were 1,751 respondents accessible from the starting sample for time 3 data collection, which was carried out near the end of the military service (at time 3) with two surveys. The third questionnaire was a 105-item instrument. It included most of the questions and measures used in the prior questionnaires in order to assess changes in the attitudes and opinions of the conscripts over the three points in time – at the start of conscript service, at the end of BT, and about two weeks before the end of conscript service. As mentioned above, also the official 112-item military questionnaire was utilized in this research by the permission of the military authorities. This questionnaire addressed perceptions about national defense, career intentions, quality of training, confidence in the squad and platoon leaders, confidence in the instructors, and leadership development. The last two questionnaires are presented in Appendix 3 and 4.

At the end of conscript service, the situation was unfavorable to any carefully organized data collection because the conscripts had their last field exercises as well as preparations for the demobilization almost at the same time. Basically, there were no days during the last three weeks of service, except the last day, when everyone was in their unit at the same time with others. The conscripts were in different locations due to their special duties, field exercises, or the last leaves. Therefore, it was difficult to organize two different surveys for everyone. As a solution to this problem, the conscript platoon leaders were trained by the author to administer the last two surveys. The conscript leaders were selected as research assistants because they were pre-selected people having the best abilities among the cohort, they knew their unit members personally, and they were aware of where, why and when each conscript was in the unit and what was the most suitable moment for the surveys. All these factors were assumed to help data collection in this kind of a situation.

The questionnaires were asked to be held separately during the last three weeks of service, not on Mondays or Fridays, not during off-duty, and not just after or before a leave or a field exercise. Although the platoon leaders were advised to organize several opportunities for everyone to participate in the surveys, 82 conscripts were missed from both of them, 9

respondents turned in an incomplete form, and in addition 126 conscripts were away from the fourth survey, whereas there were 19 conscripts who participated in the fourth survey despite their absence from the third one. Altogether, there were 1,660 responses in the data from the first to the third questionnaires, which is 81.1 % of the whole sample. Besides that there were 1,534 conscripts who had an intact line from the first to the last questionnaire (i.e. 74.9 % of the sample).

After each survey, the questionnaires were examined manually to find missing, illogical or faulty answers. After the manual control the imperfect answers were revised if possible by finding the respondents from 15 units. After these examinations and corrections, the forms were electronically read and the data were transferred to the SPSS-program. Next every variable was inspected to find missing or faulty answers (for instance zero or number 6 in a 5-point Likert scale) that were not discerned in the manual check. If there was an imperfect line in the SPSS-matrix the answers were verified from the person's form. If the answer was imperfect also in the form, the answer was left blank. As mentioned above, a small number of records were excluded due to the conscripts' totally incomplete forms (i.e. more than one third of responses were missing or not understandable due to their illogicality). Before the data aggregation, some item responses were reverse coded so that higher item and scale scores reflected more positive responses. Also, many individual background items, not part of the scales or factor analyses, were incorporated to the questionnaires. These items gathered information mainly about the conscripts' demographic, behavioral, socio-economic, and educational background.

## **6.5 Measures and Scale Structure**

The validity and reliability of the measures reflecting the main constructs of interest were verified by the procedure of factor analysis and reliability tests. This research combined measures from the previous studies, such as commitment, emotional stability, physical health, group cohesion, perceived performance, and attitude towards national defense. Because these measures were not utilized in the same fashion (i.e. combination of all items) in the literature, the purpose of the factor analysis was to verify that the measures formed distinguished patterns. In other words, the factor analysis tested whether initially expected groups of items held together as it was assumed and planned. The primary aim was scaling the planned measures and estimation of their value for the research (Gorsuch, 1983, pp. 2–4). Although the previous literature established measures for this research, the factor analysis was used more in an exploratory than a confirmatory fashion (Child, 2006, pp. 6–7).

The survey items underwent a series of factor analyses with principal axis factoring extraction and orthogonal rotation (i.e. varimax rotation) (op.cit. pp. 153–154; Rummel, 1970, pp. 168, 338). Based on the adjustment literature, many personal and situational factors may be interrelated and not totally independent. Therefore, each factor analysis was also made by using promax oblique rotation, which permits correlation of factors, and consequently clarifies the results of factor analysis among concepts having low or moderate mutual variance (Child, 2006, pp. 82, 101). Such utilization of both varimax and promax rotation and their results has been proposed by Gorsuch as well (1983, pp. 190, 205). In each factor analysis, items whose responses loaded on the same factor and which were expected to be related

to one another on the basis of the literature and the interviews were used to determine measures of over-arching constructs. In cases where the loadings of an individual item were very similar across emergent factors, the item was removed from further analysis to avoid multicollinearity (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003, pp. 419–420).

*Time 1 Factor Analysis.* The examination of the items and relevant factors was based on a number of methodological issues. For the scale construction, the items which were too independent from the others or not reliable for the study were removed. One of the criteria for the removal of an item was the value of communalities, which refers to common variance among other variables (Nunnally, 1967, p. 349). If the value was .30 or less, it indicated that the item was not explained largely by others, which, in other words, meant that the item was not related to them, and therefore this item was not part of any larger concept of questions and its value in factor analysis was questionable (Child, 2006, p. 47). The second removal criterion was the loading of the item in the factor analysis (Clark & Watson, 1995, p. 317). If the item did not load more than .30 to any factor, it meant that the item was not part of the derived factors (Rummel, 1970, p. 362). The third criterion was descriptive information (i.e. mean and standard deviation). If the mean was more than 4.25 or less than 3.25, or the standard deviation more than 1.25 or less than .75, it indicated that the item had properties that departed from the other items (e.g. skewness based on a high mean or not reliable because of a high standard deviation value). The fourth criterion was the results of the other factor analyses during the other points in time (i.e. comparisons with time 1, 2, and 3 factor analyses) and the focus was on the *meaningfulness* of the factor loadings in different points in time (Gorsuch, 1983, p. 210; Nunnally, 1967, p. 292). Specifically, there were items that did not work at time 1 but were useful at times 2 and 3. This can be explained by the more experience of the respondents, which in turn increased their ability to distinguish different aspects in the military. For example, the concept of commitment formed a large factor at time 1 but was later divided to sub-components: affective, normative, and continuance at times 2 and 3. The fifth, and methodologically perhaps the most important criterion for the internal structure of the measure, was assessed by the results of the reliability test (Nunnally, 1967, pp. 96, 210). If the item did not fit the other items of the scale in terms of adding something to it, the item was removed from the scale. Finally, the combination of all these criteria was employed to assess the utility of the questionnaire items.

The purpose of the series of factor analyses was to find and refine measures that would be as good as possible for examining adjustment perceptions at a certain time but that also allowed examination over time (from time 1 to time 3). Therefore, the factor analyses were made in steps. For the start, all the available Likert scale questionnaire items were included. The second step was that items that met the first four above mentioned criteria continued in the next round of factor analysis (with different options of  $n$  and rotations). The third step was made with  $n = 1,660$  (i.e. respondents of all three questionnaires) and the items that passed the previous steps. The fourth step consisted of targeted factor analyses for those items that had loadings in various factors, to understand their mutual relations. Finally, scales which contained the same relatively good items over time (based on their  $M$ ,  $SD$ , communalities, factor loadings, and reliability tests over time) were refined for the research measures in the reliability tests. Next, the main results of this process are briefly discussed.



Of the 98 questions in the first questionnaire, 45 were not relevant for the factor analysis because they acquired particular background information or they were dichotomy items about stressful life events of the conscripts. Consequently, there were 53 items that were exposed to factor analysis. Table A5.1 in Appendix 5 shows items that were removed from further factor analysis due to their unrelated nature to other variables (i.e. the first item), low communality, and/or skewness (i.e. the last 8 items in the table). Many of them had also a great standard deviation, indicating that the respondents may have perceived the questions slightly differently and therefore did not answer consistently. Naturally, another reason for the high standard deviations was also considered (i.e. diverse experiences of people, which affect perceptions). The last item in the table, *Instructors or doctors should have more time to talk about things (e.g. things like on this questionnaire)*, did not work among the other items as it did in the research of Parkkola (1999, pp. 56-58; Parkkola et al., 1997, pp. 373-374). The same happened with the time 2 questionnaire. This suggests that the basic structure of the questionnaire, the general tone of it, or the situation of the data collection may affect the reliability of items in each research.

The item properties of questionnaire 1 give an overview about conscripts' pre-service perceptions (see Table A5.3 in Appendix 5). First of all, one of the smallest concerns was adjustment to being away from family members. The conscripts were more positive about their social adjustment than about their affective commitment to the military. Although affective commitment was regarded as moderate, the conscripts declared to be willing to learn new things and try their best in training ( $M = 3.5-3.9$  vs. 4.3, respectively). However, they were not as interested in intellectually demanding training ( $M = 3.5$ ). Military service was appreciated as a citizen's duty for men ( $M = 4.4$ ), and accordingly, the recruits did not extensively consider dropping out of the military when they were inducted into the service. They also thought to be able to accept authority and the given orders ( $M = 3.9-4.0$ ), and the majority of the recruits considered themselves emotionally stable and physically fit for the upcoming experiences, although they did not think that their physical health was very good compared to others ( $M = 3.0$ ), indicating low physical self-efficacy at the beginning of the service. A few items passed the first step to the next one although having lower than .3 communalities because their communalities and factor loadings were higher in other questionnaires (at time 2 and 3) and/or they increased the reliability of the scale they belonged to. These items and their communalities were: *I usually do not share my thoughts with other people* ( $t1 = .24$ ;  $t2 = .37$ ;  $t3 = .36$ ); *An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army* ( $t1 = .29$ ;  $t2 = .42$ ;  $t3 = .54$ ); *If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently* ( $t1 = .28$ ;  $t2 = .32$ ;  $t3 = .38$ ); and *I was willing to help other students at school* ( $t1 = .27$ ). Because there was no comparison for the last mentioned item and it did not support the reliability of the measure about schooling experiences, it was omitted from the scale.

Table 7 presents the step three factor analysis where the number of items was reduced to 38. The removed items included also some reliable variables in terms of their communalities and factor loadings, such as *I will feel at home in military service*. This item was erased from the affective commitment factor due to its loadings with other factors. In other words, some items covered characteristics of many factors, being too broad for specific measures. Thus, the rejection of these items was done in favor of lower multicollinearity of the scales. Consequently, the principal axis factoring using varimax rotation derived seven factors,

accounting for 46.0 % of the variance. Commitment and attitudes toward the military formed the first large factor, explaining 16.0 % of the variance. Six *Sociability* items loaded together (.44–.61) as the second factor, explaining 6.5 % of the variance. However, there was an overlap of the item *I normally adjust to a new environment* with *Military Adjustment*, which was the third factor in this model. At time 2, this item loaded .70 to *Sociability*, showing its strong relation with its “own” factor (Table A5.5 in Appendix 5), although at time 3 in step two (Table A5.7 in Appendix 5) and step four (Table 10) factor analyses the item again demonstrated mutual variance with the adjustment factor while still having a stronger loading with sociability items. The third factor (i.e. *Military Adjustment*) comprised six items with .42–.61 loadings, accounting for 6.1 % of the variance. The broadest items (i.e. *I will adjust to military service* and *I will adjust to military discipline*) had also moderate loadings with the general attitudinal factor. However, this kind of overlap was weaker at time 2 and 3 analyses. *Emotional Stability* formed the fourth factor with its five items (with .41–.70 loadings). Only one item loaded elsewhere; *I am often anxious and tense* related with sociability, indicating that the anticipation of social participation in a group raised conscripts’ tension at the start of service. *Physical Health* consisted of three items with loadings of .60–.77 and formed the fifth factor without notable overlaps in the loadings. The sixth factor was about schooling experiences, having three items with .40–.71 loadings. As noted above, the last item was deleted from the scale based on the later reliability test results. Items of *Continuance Commitment / Intent to Stay* loaded together as the last factor of the analysis, which was a sign of its partly separate nature from affective and normative commitment (i.e. items in the first factor).

Table 7  
*Time 1 Main Factors*

	Factor						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>Commitment to Military Service:</b> Getting military training is important and significant to me	.75						
To me it is important to do well in the army	.74						
I am not interested in military service	.72						
Military service is every male citizen's duty	.72						
I will try to do my best in training (not used)	.69						
I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly (not used)	.65						
All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense	.64						
My personal contribution to military service is important	.63						
Military service is useless and unnecessary	.61						
CC: I have considered dropping out of service	.46			.34			.29
I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding (not used)	.46					.31	
Obey: Explicit chain of command promotes action in the army	.44						
CC: I have considered applying to civilian service	.42						.31
Obey: I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded	.40		.31				
Obey: It is easy for me to obey given orders	.39					.31	
<b>Sociability:</b> I can adjust to being around people I do not know	.61	.32					
I feel uncomfortable with other people	.60		.31				
It is easy for me to make new friends	.58						
Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing beforehand	.45						
I normally adjust to a new [social] environment	.45	.43					
I usually do not share my thoughts with other people	.44						
<b>Adjustment:</b> I will adjust to being away from my friends		.61					
I will adjust to being away from my family		.57					
I will adjust to military service	.41	.47			.34		
I will adjust to military discipline	.38	.47					
I can cope with the mental pressure of conscript training		.44					
I will adjust to rush and strict timetables		.42					
<b>Emotional Stability:</b> I have had suicidal thoughts				.70			
I have often had feelings that life is not worth living				.68			
I often feel depressed				.49			
I am often anxious and tense		.42		.44			
If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently				.41			
<b>Physical Health:</b> I can manage the physical demands of military service					.77		
My health corresponds to the demands of military service					.67		
I am healthy and my physical health is better than in my age group in general					.60		
<b>Schooling:</b> I felt at home at school						.71	
I adjusted to comprehensive school						.55	
I was willing to help other students at school (not used)						.40	

*Note.*  $n = 1,658$ . Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation converging in 6 iterations. KMO = .94. Total variance explained = 46.0 %. CC = *Continuance Commitment / Intent to Stay*; Obey = *Acceptance of Authority*.

In order to examine the theoretical subcomponents of the first factor, such as commitment, obedience, and achievement motivation, these items, which loaded to the same factor but were separated in the literature, were taken into further observation. Initially, the 15 items were planned to form five related but still independent subscales: affective (AC), normative (NC) and continuance commitment (CC), achievement motivation, and acceptance of authority. However, based on the step four factor analysis which is presented in Table 8, these items formed only three separate concepts at time 1: (a) general attitudes toward the military (i.e. affective commitment and achievement motivation), (b) sense of military obligation (i.e. normative and continuance commitment), and (c) acceptance of authority. Later, the same kind of step four factor analysis discerned the following factors: two factors at time 2: (a) AC, achievement motivation, and acceptance of authority stayed together as separate from (b) sense of military obligation (i.e. NC and CC), whereas at time 3 there were three factors: (a) AC, achievement motivation, and acceptance of authority (still together), (b) NC, and (c) CC. It can be concluded that affective commitment to military service and achievement motivation are part of the same concept and form a general attitudinal orientation towards the military, partly including attitudes toward authority. It is noteworthy that achievement motivation is consistently determined on the basis of general attitudes toward the military during conscript service, or in other words, attitudes towards the service and one's own participation in training are mutually related. This indicates that if one part is supported (e.g. achievement motivation is increased or decreased) it has an impact on the general tendency towards the service or to the avoidance of it. The methodological conclusion was to utilize the affective commitment scale in the analyses for the Results section and neglect the achievement motivation scale in analyses where it may have caused bias when used together with AC. Theoretically, the reason for this decision was that the focus of this research was not on examining adjustment to particular training, but to look at the overall adjustment to military service, and therefore AC with more broadly phrased items served the research purpose more than the achievement motivation scale.

Table 8

*Time 1 Factors of Commitment, Achievement Motivation, and Acceptance of Authority*

Factors and their items	1	2	3
AC: Getting military training is important and significant to me	<b>.73</b>		
AC: To me it is important to do well in the army	<b>.71</b>		
AC: I am not interested in military service	<b>.62</b>	.38	
AC: My personal contribution to military service is important	<b>.58</b>		
Mot: I will try to do my best in training	<b>.57</b>		.38
Mot: I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly	<b>.57</b>		.41
AC: Military service is useless and unnecessary	<b>.53</b>	.33	
Mot: I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding	<b>.49</b>		.33
NC: All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense	<b>.44</b>	<b>.42</b>	
CC: I have considered applying to civilian service		<b>.64</b>	
NC: Military service is every male citizen's duty	.47	<b>.64</b>	
CC: I have considered dropping out of service		<b>.59</b>	.32
Obey: It is easy for me to obey given orders			<b>.64</b>
Obey: I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded			<b>.57</b>
Obey: An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army	.32		<b>.38</b>

Note.  $n = 1,659$ . Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation converging in 6 iterations.  $KMO = .93$ . Total variance explained = 49.0 %. AC = *Affective Commitment*; NC = *Normative Commitment*; CC = *Continuance Commitment / Intent to Stay*; Mot = *Achievement Motivation*; Obey = *Acceptance of Authority*.

*Time 2 Factor Analyses and Items of Questionnaire 2.* The basic training adjustment questionnaire went through the procedures of factor analysis described above. The time 2 questionnaire consisted of 99 questions (see Appendix 2), and 86 of them underwent the initial examination of  $M$ ,  $SD$ , communalities, and factor loadings. Basically, the same items were removed at the first step of analysis than at time 1 analyses (see Table A5.2 in Appendix 5). Some of them were examined later due to their independent but interesting nature. Such items were *I do not feel a part of this society* (referring to alienation from formal institutions of society such as the military) and *I am interested in occupations in the field of security* (indicating the opposite, which means a personal fit with the military and an interest in it as a career option).

Table A5.4 (Appendix 5) presents the item properties ( $M$ ,  $SD$ , and communalities) at the second step of time 2 factor analysis (thus after some item removals). Based on the mean values, the recruits' social adjustment was notably positive with some particularly high means. The most lucid example of this is the item *I get along with my barrack mates / squad* which ( $M = 4.6$ ;  $SD = .61$ ) denotes how conscripts were satisfied with their own sociability and social adjustment to the military environment during BT. However, their commitment to and attitudes towards the military were not as favorable. For example, *Getting military training is important and significant for me* dropped in six weeks from the pre-service mean of 3.5 to a later 3.2 at the end of BT. Similarly, *I feel at home in military service* decreased from 3.5 to 3.1. The same tendency was visible in other commitment-related scales. In all, on average the conscripts adjusted socially (*Sociability*), physically (*Physical Health*), and in general (*Military Adjustment*), whereas affective commitment to the military still declined. Thus, the conscripts perceived their service less meaningful and important for themselves, and consequently, they had more intentions to drop out from service (CC).

In spite of their neutral or negative attitude towards the military in general, the conscripts formed relatively good relationships with their peers (*Peer Cohesion* items) and immediate leaders (items about the squad leader and instructor). On average, the recruits did not experience serious hazing by their mates ( $M = 4.5$ ) or by their superiors. This finding was in line with the positive social adjustment experiences (*Sociability*) as well as good relationships in the primary group and support of other mates, as indicated by the peer cohesion items and especially by the help received from other recruits ( $M = 4.3$ ). The main nuisance was experienced in the adjustment to the military regimentation. Hence, the busy, disciplined nature of BT was valued with relatively low mean values compared to other factors ( $M = 2.7$ – $3.2$ ). On the other hand, recruits assessed after all the socialization experiences that they were emotionally stable ( $4.1$ – $4.7$ ), which signifies that the structured, organized training and educational experiences in BT supported the recruits' mental health or at least kept it as good as it was before the service.

Among the outcome items of BT experiences, group performance was perceived moderate ( $M = 3.6$ ), and there were also some recruits who perceived that military service had a negative impact on their civilian relationships ( $M = 3.4$ ), which was indicated also by the large range of responses (i.e. standard deviation values). Basic training was not regarded as particularly challenging or interesting ( $M = 3.3$ ). However, the recruits did not try to avoid their service by malingering and seeking exemptions ( $M = 4.6$ – $4.7$ ). The attitudes towards military defense were still positive, but the recruits' own willingness to participate in it in terms of refresher training was remarkably low ( $M = 2.7$ ), having the lowest mean among all the Likert-scale questionnaire items. Overall, item communalities improved from the first questionnaire. The only disappointment was met in a few friendship items that did not work at time 2. Therefore, this scale was not used at time 2 examinations. Other low communalities were found in the factors *Malingering*, *Basic Training Superiors*, and *Experienced Hazing*. However, these items belonged to the respective factors and they increased the reliability of the scales, and were therefore utilized in further analyses.

Based on the initial examinations of step one, 73 items were accepted for the next phase of factor analysis comprising 13 factors and accounting for 49.5 % of the variance. For the third step, the number of items was reduced to 62 that were both theoretically and methodologically relevant for the research. These items were divided to 12 factors accounting for 49.8 % of the variance. Table A5.5 (Appendix 5) depicts the results of the principal axis factoring with promax oblique rotation. The first factor was the same as at time 1: *Commitment* to military service. It comprised 11 items of AC and NC, achievement motivation, and one item of acceptance of authority, explaining 12.1 % of the variance. Concerning this factor, the main difference from time 1 analysis was that continuance commitment items were no longer part of the same factor (see the last factor of the table). Thus, the structure of commitment components was closer to the planned structure of scales. In other words, the recruits were able to distinguish AC from their intent to stay in the military. The second factor united affective and instrumental social cohesion experiences into a *Peer Cohesion* factor (6.1 %). The leading items of *My platoon has a good esprit de corps* and *My current squad has a really good esprit de corps* conveniently summarize the content of this scale, which was added to the time 2 questionnaire to measure the quality of social peer relations and experiences in the group. The item, *The atmosphere in my unit is good*, referred to another theoretical concept (i.e. unit pride and climate) and it was used in the later analyses independently.

The five items of *Emotional Stability* still stuck together (with loadings of .46–.92), explaining 4.6 % of the variance. *Sociability* items loaded distinctly either from social group experiences or military adjustment items, although it was feared when the questionnaires were planned and made that these constructs might be too similar to create separate measures. Unexpectedly, the fifth factor put together items that were related to adjustment to being away from civilian relationships and items assessing the impact of service on those relationships. However, the same items loaded differently at time 3. Then the adjustment items were together as a coherent scale, whereas the “civilian impact” items formed a separate factor as initially planned. *Physical Health* was the sixth factor with loadings of .69–.84. The *Basic Training Superiors* factor included 6 items, having two items with less than .3 loadings. However, all the items were included in the scale, based on the reliability test results.

Surprisingly, at this phase of factor analysis, *Malingering* items about seeking exemptions to avoid daily service loaded with items of *Hazing*. On the basis of the mean values, only few conscripts explicitly malingered during BT which was also confirmed by archival information about actual numbers of exemptions. In addition, the majority of conscripts did well in their social relations with their group members. These two pieces of information combined together with the result of united factor loadings of malingering and hazing suggest that recruits who were hazed by other conscripts used doctoral appointments and consequent exemptions as a defensive coping mechanism, because granted exemption offered an approved and accepted (defensive) avoidance of daily stressful situations. This interpretation does not mean that all exemptions are due to inadequate adjustment; physical problems and sickness are still most likely the main reasons for exemptions in the military. In the next factor, the *Military Adjustment* items loaded with two items of acceptance of authority, whereas *Regimentation* formed a relatively clear factor. The last two factors were about *Group Performance* and *Intent to Stay*.

Again, as a final phase of time 2 factor analysis, all the factors with overlapping item loadings  $>.25$  were contrasted to each other both in varimax and promax rotations. Table 9 shows how items of some key research measures, such as *Military Adjustment*, *Emotional Stability*, *Sociability*, and *Peer Cohesion* behaved under principal axis factoring with varimax rotations. Specifically, *Military Adjustment* items held together (.62–.70), although they still had some loadings with *Emotional Stability* items about tensions and depression (.37–.42). Similarly, items measuring social adjustment also loaded into the adjustment index. On the other hand, the second factor about *Peer Cohesion* did not have meaningful loadings with other concepts (not even with *Sociability*). Similarly, the five items of *Emotional Stability* consistently held together (.50–.75). However, the depression item was related to both overall and social adjustment experiences. Lastly, *Sociability* items formed a separate factor (.37–.61), having also some common variance with the factors of *Military Adjustment* and *Emotional Stability*.

Table 9

*Time 2 Factors of Adjustment, Emotional Stability, Sociability, and Peer Cohesion*

Factors and their items	1	2	3	4
<b>Military Adjustment:</b> I have adjusted to military service	.70			
I have adjusted to military discipline	.70			
I can cope with the mental pressure of conscript training	.70			
I have adjusted to being away from my friends	.66			
I have adjusted to rush and strict timetables	.65			
I have adjusted to being away from my family	.62			
<b>Peer Cohesion:</b> In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad		.66		
My current squad has a really good esprit de corps		.62		
My squad feels responsible for succeeding as a team		.62		
My platoon has a good esprit de corps		.61		
In my squad I get help when I need it		.55		
At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger		.53		
My squad emphasizes common goals		.53		
<b>Emotional Stability:</b> I have often had feelings that life is not worth living			.75	
I have had suicidal thoughts			.63	
I often feel depressed	.42		.52	.30
I am often anxious and tense	.37		.52	
If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently			.50	
<b>Sociability:</b> It is easy for me to make new friends				.61
I normally adjust to a new environment	.39			.58
I have felt uncomfortable with other people			.36	.55
I can adjust to being around people I do not know	.38			.51
I usually do not share my thoughts with other people				.42
Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing	.35		.32	.37

Note.  $n = 1,651$ . Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation in 6 iterations. KMO = .93. Total variance explained = 46.4 %.

As a comparison for the above time 2 (Table 9), Table 10 displays the same concepts at time 3. Altogether, five factors accounted for 55.3 % of the variance. First of all, these results confirmed that the *Military Adjustment* index is a relatively separate measure from the other scales, although there was an expected relation to the *Sociability* factor and especially with items that contained the word “adjust”. Theoretically this overlap was acceptable, because social adjustment does not stand apart from overall adjustment. At time 3, the first adjustment factor accounted for 16.9 % of the variance, and the second (*Emotional Stability*) for 10.7 %. The third factor consisted of four items of the *Peer Cohesion* scale, accounting for 9.9 % of the variance, and the first three items of the factor were from questionnaire 4. All the four items in this factor assessed the person’s general affective and instrumental bonding with the group. The fourth factor (9.0 %) contained partly the same concept in more detail. These items detected whether the person had received appreciation or whether he or she had an influence in the group, and all of them were from questionnaire 3. The purpose for putting the items of the scale to different questionnaires at time 3 was to reduce multicollinearity of the scales and to control the individual answering patterns that could have caused bias in the responses. Therefore, there were items of the same scale in different questionnaires. Although this kind of scattered scales were still reliable ( $\alpha > .80$ ) according to the reliability tests (Nunnally, 1967, p. 226), it caused more gray hairs than help to the



author, because the subscales at different questionnaires also loaded to different factors in the analysis. In this sense, the Bayesian dependency modeling provided a more revealing answer about the relations between individual items, compared to the results of the factor analysis. The results of the Bayesian analysis are illustrated in Appendix 6.

Table 10

*Time 3 Factors of Adjustment, Emotional Stability, Sociability, and Peer Cohesion*

Factors and their items	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Military Adjustment:</b> I have adjusted to military service	.77				
I have adjusted to rush and strict timetables	.75				
I have adjusted to military discipline	.70				
I have adjusted to being away from my friends	.67				
I have adjusted to being away from my family	.64				
I have coped with the mental pressure of conscript training	.63				
<b>Emotional Stability:</b> I have often had feelings that life is not worth living		.74			
I am often anxious and tense		.66			
I have had suicidal thoughts		.63			
I often feel depressed	.31	.53			
If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently		.50			
<b>Peer Cohesion:</b> In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad			.77		
My current squad has a really good esprit de corps			.73		
At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger			.71		
My platoon has a good esprit de corps			.47	.44	
I feel appreciated in my squad / barrack room				.76	
I have been able to influence the decisions made in my barrack room / squad				.62	
My squad emphasizes common goals			.32	.49	
In my squad I get help when I need it			.30	.47	
<b>Sociability:</b> I can adjust to being around people I do not know	.42				.76
I have adjusted to dormitory accommodation	.46				.68
I get along with my barrack mates / squad	.33				.57
I normally adjust to a new environment	.44				.52

Note.  $n = 1,534$ . Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation in 7 iterations.  $KMO = .93$ . Total variance explained = 55.3 %.

The last factor was about *Sociability* (8.8 %). Again, related to methodological decisions, there were some shifts among the social adjustment items over time (between time 2 and 3). First of all, the combination of positive and negative items created some trouble in forming a reliable measure. In many factor analyses, there was some overlapping between the *Military Adjustment* index and positive statements of *Sociability* items, and on the other hand, *Emotional Stability* and negative statements of *Sociability* items. While negative claims about relationship difficulties loaded relatively consistently together at times 1 and 2, positive statements about social adjustment formed the basis for the *Sociability* factor at time 3. In later factor analyses and reliability tests the most consistent items over time were included in the sociability scale (i.e. six-item scale at time 1 and 2 and four items at time 3)

and others were removed (see Appendix 7). The main reason for describing the examination of one scale structure in such detail than above was made for illustrating the process how factor analyses were utilized in forming the scales in this research.

*Other Time 3 Factor Analyses and Items of Questionnaires 3 and 4.* The procedures for examining time 3 items followed the same pattern as at time 1 and 2 investigations. Thus, everything started with an overview of the items in terms of their properties ( $M$ ,  $SD$ , and communalities). Among the *Military Adjustment* items (see Table A5.6 in Appendix 5), adjustment to rush in the military and being away from friends had the lowest means, although not significantly different from the others. *Sociability* questions, which included connotation of adjusting to group environment, were perceived more positively than questions that concerned the personal ability of being in contact with people in general. However, social adjustment did not cause trouble for the majority of the conscripts. Contrary to the above mentioned notably positive mean values, adjustment to military regimentation was perceived with annoyance (t2:  $M = 2.7$  vs. t3:  $2.4$ ), although the pace of service was no longer as hectic as in BT (t2:  $M = 2.8$  vs. t3:  $M = 3.8$ ). In addition, the conscripts perceived more often that military service had a negative impact on civilian relationships than at time 2 (t2:  $M = 3.4$  vs. t3:  $M = 3.1$ ).

Some of the greatest trouble spots in conscripts' attitudes and experiences were related to their own commitment to the military service and the quality of training. In terms of conscripts' commitment and orientation towards the military, the item *I would have joined the military if serving had been on a voluntary basis* had a notably low mean value ( $M = 2.8$ ), indicating that conscripts would not like to volunteer to military service at large. This assumption is supported by the items of *Career Intentions*, which had even lower mean values (2.0–2.2). However, the most striking difference between the means was found between items *Finland has to have functioning Defence Forces* ( $M = 4.5$ ) and *I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years* ( $M = 2.5$ ). Thus, although conscripts generally think that there should be a functioning military in Finland, they are not willing to do their own share to keep it such. For military officials, the combination of these pieces of information show what the popularity and support towards military service would be without compulsory service. Although this may be an imprecise conclusion, it uncovered a giant difference between general attitudes towards the military and personal obligation to it. Sometimes the difference was more than 2 points in the Likert scale, which is unusual when the focus of questions remains almost the same (i.e. military service and participation in it).

Overall, military service, although concerning the whole male population and providing adequate adjustment, peer group, and leadership experiences fails to keep the initial pre-service commitment and attitudes until the end of service. Specifically, *Affective*, *Normative*, and *Continuance Commitment* continued to decline with time. For example, two items that covered both motivation to complete the service and the personal fit with the military demonstrates this tendency: *I am highly motivated to complete my military service* ( $M = 3.76 - 3.39 - 3.17$ ) and *I feel at home in military service* ( $M = 3.49 - 3.10 - 2.92$ ). Perhaps a more concrete but an equally alarming note for those who plan and conduct military training was provided by some training-related mean values. Besides regimentation items, training experiences were rated the lowest among situational factors of the military. Particularly, the items of scales about the quality of training, training challenges, and PT stayed consistently

lower ( $M = 2.9\text{--}3.3$ ) than the average trend of responses ( $M = 3.5\text{--}4.0$ ). Altogether, these patterns of responses suggest some valuable research questions for future research: What causes the decline in commitment during service? Are negative training experiences reasons for the conscripts' lowered commitment levels?

Table A5.7 in Appendix 5 presents the main results at phase 3 of the factor analysis when items that did not fit with other factors had already been removed. At that stage, 112 items from questionnaires 3 and 4 underwent principal axis factoring with varimax and promax oblique rotations (the table shows the loadings created by varimax rotation). Altogether, there were 23 factors that explained 52 % of the variance. While in this phase of analysis at times 1 and 2, the general attitudinal concept (such as commitment and motivation) formed the first factor, at time 3 the first factor was built up by some main adjustment components: ability of being away from civilian life and adjusting to the military and its discipline, and social and physical demands. This factor accounted for 5.7 % of the variance. The second factor was *Personal Growth* with two items of positive experiences during the service and the item about training efficiency in the unit (4.8 %). As suggested in the literature review, this factor was regarded as a positive outcome of a successful military adjustment process. Therefore, it was surprising to find both adjustment-related factors at the top of the factor analysis. The third factor was composed by *Peer Cohesion*, two unit climate items, and one item about the immediate leader (3.7 %). *Emotional Stability* items with negative statements about hazing, acceptance of authority and dropping out of service formed the fourth factor (3.3 %). While the first three factors above dealt with positive military experiences, this fourth factor encompassed the main *negative perceptions and experiences* in the service. The last 19 factors will not be discussed at this point because they were relatively lucid and unambiguous. Information about them is available in Appendix 5 (Table A5.7).

As a conclusion of the dozens of factor analyses, a general pattern of factors in each phase of data collection was established. Next, all the work with factor analyses was verified by conducting a series of Bayesian dependency modeling for each questionnaire (cf. Myllymäki, Silander, Tirri, & Uronen, 2002 or in the internet: [b-course.cs.helsinki.fi](http://b-course.cs.helsinki.fi)). The ingenious method creates a model (i.e. a network of items) based on their probabilistic dependencies. In this network, items that in "traditional" terms load together are also more likely dependent from each other (containing mutual variance), and therefore they are close together in the net, whereas items without a dependency are more distant from each other (in the factor analysis these items are usually in separate factors and they have a low mutual correlation). One of the most important statistical aspects of Bayesian modeling is that it takes advantage of both linear and nonlinear correlations between items (whereas factor analysis only utilizes linear correlations). Therefore, for example connections of skewed items (e.g. items of the *Emotional Stability* scale) could be seen more reliably on the basis of Bayesian modeling. Consequently, the Bayesian dependency model and the results of the factor analyses were compared. Basically the items formed dependencies (i.e. items grouped together) as with the factor loadings. Thus, both methods of analysis (i.e. factor analysis and Bayesian analysis) confirmed the measures for the research (see Appendix 6).

In all maps in Appendix 6 the broadest attitudinal items built the higher level structure under which all other items depended upon. Actually, all the dependency models (t1–t3)

started with the item *If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms in all circumstances, no matter what the end result*, which assessed the attitude towards defending the country. Consistently, the answers to this question determined most the perceptions of normative commitment to the military. While affective commitment items were directly related to adjustment items at time 1 and 2, at time 3 they formed a separate branch with other commitment items apart from *Military Adjustment*. The adjustment items were mostly related to the following concepts: *Affective Commitment* (t1–t2), *Sociability* (t1–t3), *Physical Health* (t1–t3), *Emotional Stability* (t1–t2), and leadership (t2–t3).

Generally, the time 1 and 2 models were more similar to each other than the last model. Both models contained commitment and adjustment items in the central place. On the other hand, the main difference between time 3 and the other models was that while expectations (t1) and BT perceptions (t2) held adjustment and commitment concepts in a spot with direct influence on the other perceptions, at the end of service (t3), the situational factors of the military and, especially, on peer cohesion and close leadership were in the center of the model. This difference is seen by comparing the places of leadership (e.g. L1 or SL5) and peer cohesion (e.g. PB9) items in the time 2 and 3 models (Appendix 6).

Methodologically, the main examination was made on the basis of the colored structure in the Bayesian models. If the same color formed a group with close connections to other items of the same set, it meant that they had a lot of same variance, and in other words, they were part of the same factor. For example, the items of acceptance of authority did not hold together because item O3 was more related to an affective commitment item than to its presumed scale. In traditional factor analysis, it was also noticed that this scale was the most unreliable in terms of forming a separate factor over time. Therefore, it was used only at time 1 examinations, and was excluded from the Bayesian analyses at time 2 and 3. Instead of acceptance of authority, the time 2 and 3 models included a scale about adjustment to regimentation with closely related items about discipline and pace in the military. In both models, the R3 item (i.e. *Discipline during the training situations is too strict*) was apart from the three other items of the scale. In both cases, the answers to this item (i.e. R3) were determined by the variable *I have adjusted to military discipline* (i.e. A3). Since the *Regimentation* scale formed a clear factor both in BT and at the end of service (cf. Tables A5.5 and A5.7 in Appendix 5), and three of the four items were together in the Bayesian analysis, it was utilized in further analysis for the Results section. In spite of these two scales, the Bayesian dependency models were similar to the results of the factor analysis. In other words, factor items were in groups in the maps, and items which overlapped in the factor analysis were also closer together in the Bayesian models (e.g. adjustment and sociability items). It can be concluded that the Bayesian modeling confirmed the factor structure of the research. This was the end of *item* examinations, and now they were ready for going through the scale construction.

Once the factors were extracted and the initial measures were known, the scales underwent a series of reliability tests where the *scale* psychometric properties were examined. Appendix 7 depicts the main measures of all questionnaires with information about Cronbach's alpha (i.e. reliability), item-scale total correlations, scale means, and scale standard deviations. The main measures had adequate Cronbach's alpha (e.g.  $\alpha$ s from t1 to t3: *Military Adjustment* .77 – .86 – .88; *Sociability* .76 – .79 – .88; *Emotional Stability* .77 – .79 – .81; *Physical*

*Health* .77 – .82 – .78; and *Affective Commitment* .85 – .90 – .82; cf. Nunnally, 1967, p. 226), and generally the reliability of the adjustment-related measures increased on line with greater experience of the respondents about the acquired contents.

Some of the lowest reliabilities were observed in the measures of *Acceptance of Authority* ( $t1 \alpha = .65$ ), *Regimentation* ( $t3 \alpha = .68$ ), *Continuance Commitment* ( $t1 \alpha = .64$ ), *Friendship* ( $t3 \alpha = .63$ ), *Experienced Hazing* ( $t2 \alpha = .62$ ); and *Service Impact on Civilian Relationships* ( $t3 \alpha = .68$ ). Except for *Regimentation*, all other scales contained only two or three items, which made them less reliable. Some of them did not work, either perhaps due to the fact that they were not salient measures at the point of time they were used. For example, the recruits did not intent to drop out from their service when they entered the service (i.e.  $t1$ ), and therefore, *Intent to Stay* had a very high mean value (4.63) and quite low reliability. Similarly, there were only few intentions of malingering during BT ( $M = 4.72$ ), and perhaps not even knowledge how exemptions could be used to avoid daily service. Consequently, this affected the Cronbach's alpha of the measure. Naturally, the main reasons for the low reliability of some measures were either too few or diverse questions for the scale, such as measures about friendship, hazing, regimentation, or basic training superiors ( $t2 \alpha = .70$ ) (cf. Appendix 7). However, all scales had sufficient internal reliability as well as adequate item-total correlations (ranging from .33 to .83) (cf. discussion about inter-item correlations; Clark & Watson, 1995, p. 316; Streiner, 2003, p. 103).

Finally, the measures for the research were established. The design of measures was made to allow both the examination of adjustment at a certain point of time as well as comparisons between different periods of service. The scales mainly dealt with (a) directly adjustment-related concepts, such as sociability, emotional stability, acceptance of authority, and physical health of the conscripts, (b) their personal emotional relation with the service, and (c) perceptions about situational factors (such as training, leadership, and peer cohesion measures). Therefore, these measures exhaustively gauged the situational and institutional adjustment factors and the conscripts' ability and orientation. The other part of useful predictors consisted of individual background items that were not part of any scale (such as demographics, aptitude measures, work history, education and family background, and deviant behavior in past). Since these items have been explained in their context in the literature, they will not be discussed here. Nevertheless, individual background information complements the research scales, and therefore they are presented next together as an overall structure of the research instruments.

The scales and individual items were classified to the following categories to get a whole picture of the research measures: (1) demographic items (i.e. age and gender), (2) cognitive and physical abilities (e.g. indicated by aptitude test scores), (3) background history and experiences containing five subcategories: (a) work history (e.g. number of jobs and working situation before service), (b) economic situation (e.g. amount of loans, father's occupation, and shared living costs), (c) social relationships with significant others and living situation in civilian life (e.g. getting along with parents, friends' attitudes, and distance from home to the military), (d) education experiences (e.g. education level, learning problems at school, and adjustment to schooling), and (e) previous deviant behavior (e.g. criminal record, frequency of drinking, and attitude towards drugs), (4) mental and physical health and condition (own perceptions about emotional stability, physical health, frequency of exercising, and running

test scores), (5) personality-related perceptions, commitment, and personal attitudes, such as sociability, emotional stability, acceptance of authority, affective commitment, and requested service (i.e. training orientation), (6) post-entry perceptions of situational and institutional factors, such as leadership, group cohesion, experienced hazing, unit climate, and perceptions about training, and (7) situation in civilian life during service, such as stressful life events and impact of service to civilian relationships. Table 32 and Table 42 summarize the scales and variables that are significantly related to *Military Adjustment* in this research. They are categorized to allow the reader to relate the items back to the literature reviewed in this research.

To collect all these measures and items, every available conscript was followed from the entry till the demobilization to have their records and perceptions as part of the data. Accordingly, accessible archival data were collected and combined with the soldier's perceptions and identifications with different aspects of the service. This part of data consisted of such items as rank, duration of service, number of doctor's appointments, granted exemptions from the daily service, a number of effective service days (i.e. without absences from training), physical fitness, number of disciplinary incidents, field proficiency, and overall estimation about the conscripts' performance (scored by the instructors). Together, the background items, civilian and military records, and time 1, 2, and 3 surveys created a multi-faceted instrument for explaining the whole diversity of adjustment perceptions and maladjustment behavior. Overall, this kind of unifying work is in concordance for example with Dovrat (1995, p. 46), who has indicated the need to clarify the concept of military adjustment by taking into account of the conscript's environment, civilian background and personal perceptions about different adjustment factors.

## 7 RESULTS

### 7.1 Adjustment Expectations

#### 7.1.1 Association of Personal Background with Adjustment Expectations, Attitudes, and Commitment at Time 1

The pretraining adjustment expectations (i.e. time 1) are portrayed in the following order. First, an overview of individual background variables and their relations to expected military adjustment highlights the main mean differences in adjustment as a function of personal background. Second, there is an examination of the relations between the main adjustment measures according to their correlations. Third, *Military Adjustment* is explained with regression and discriminant analyses. Finally, adjustment expectations are contrasted with later adjustment in basic training (BT) and at the end of service and with some other measures about performance, attitudes and deviant behavior to show the extent of the predictive validity of *Military Adjustment* measured before the service.

*Background Items and Differences of Means.* The following examination focuses only on the mean values and their differences, based on the background items. Generally, recruits had positive expectations about their upcoming service. In a 1 to 5 Likert scale, the recruits presumed to have adequate (a) physical adjustment to demands of training ( $M = 3.6$ ), (b) adjustment to authority and obeying orders ( $M = 3.9$ ), (c) social adjustment to group membership ( $M = 4.0$ ), overall adjustment to the military and being away from home ( $M = 3.9$ ), and emotional stability that sustains a successful adjustment process ( $M = 4.3$ ) (see the adjustment measures in Appendix 7).

Although, the recruits were stepping into the military with positive expectations and motivation to complete their service, there were significant differences in adjustment expectations and commitment to service as a function of the characteristics and background experiences of the recruits. The following analyses were made with either Oneway ANOVA when there were more than two categories of background items (i.e. variance analysis with the conservative Scheffe's post-hoc test at the .05 significance level) or  $t$  test, which compared the means of dichotomous groups.

For a reader who is not familiar with the compact way of shrinking information in quantitative research, the following may be of help. F-value shows the extent of difference of variance between the compared groups. A bigger number refers to a greater difference between the variances. The footnote of the F-values indicates the number of groups compared and the number of people in the analysis. For example  $F_{4, 1998}$  means that there were 5 groups (the first footnote is always added by one) and 2,003 people in the analysis (the second footnote is added by the number of groups;  $1,998 + 5$ ) (Cohen et al., 2003, p. 318). Eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ) is one of the most important values presented. It is called *effect size* because it implies the extent the variable determines the value of the dependent variable. In other words, it shows the extent to which the phenomenon is explained by a particular background variable. For example,  $\eta^2 = .01$  means that one percent of the phenomenon is understood by knowing the grouping variable. The precept of Cohen (1988, pp. 283–288) suggests that .01 is low ( $f =$

.10;  $\eta^2 = .0099$ ), .06 is medium ( $f = .25$ ;  $\eta^2 = .0588$ ), and .14 ( $f = .40$ ;  $\eta^2 = .1379$ ) is high effect size. Normally, effect sizes are small in behavioral science, and larger than .20 effect sizes are exceptional (op.cit. p. 284). Keeping the above rules of thumb in mind, it is easier to compare the variables and their impact on the dependent variable. The last values of the presentation are quite self-evident since they show the mean values and the significance level of the difference between them; for example  $M = 4.2$  vs.  $3.5$ ;  $p < .001$ .

Traditionally the examination of background items starts from demographics, such as *age* and *gender*. In the Oneway ANOVA, differences in age did not manifest differences in expectations of military adjustment, social adjustment, achievement motivation, acceptance of authority, and emotional stability, although in every scale comparison 18-year-old inductees had the lowest and most negative mean values compared to the others. The only significant difference was perceived in *Adjustment to Schooling* ( $F_{4, 1998} = 7.3$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ) where the 18-year-old recruits had significantly poorer experiences ( $M = 3.4$ ;  $n = 51$ ;  $p < .05$ ) compared to the 19 and 20-year-olds ( $M = 3.7$ ;  $n = 721$ , and  $M = 3.9$ ;  $n = 1,044$ , respectively).

*Women* had overall more positive expectations and other scale values than men before their service. Statistically, the women ( $n = 34$ ) expected significantly better social adjustment in the military ( $M = 4.4$  vs.  $4.0$ ) and had stronger affective commitment ( $M = 4.3$  vs.  $3.6$ ) than the men ( $n = 1,969$ ;  $p < .001$ ). The women stepped into the military with more positive expectations ( $M = 4.2$  vs.  $3.5$ ;  $p < .001$ ) and higher motivation to complete the service ( $M = 4.3$  vs.  $3.7$ ;  $p < .01$ ) than the men. Since the women had volunteered to the service, opposed to the men, who served their mandatory obligation, it was understandable that the women had generally higher intrinsic motivation and stronger commitment to the military before service, and consequently more positive expectations than the men.

The recruits' adjustment expectations varied systematically according to their level of *cognitive abilities* referring to intelligence (Aptitude test 1), personality, and leadership characteristics (Aptitude test 2). Aptitude test 1 was held during the first week of service and it measured the recruits' cognitive skills. The measure was divided to 9 categories (1–9) where the higher number indicated better ability. In most cases, the relation between cognitive ability and other measures was nonlinear. Levels 1 and 2 differed significantly from others, and particularly from levels 5 to 9. Therefore, the measure was further recoded to four categories (1–2, 3–4, 5–6, and 7–9) to clarify the results of the variance analysis. The recruits with the best cognitive skills (7–9) had also the best military adjustment expectations ( $M = 4.0$ ). They were also more committed to the military, were emotionally stable, had better physical self-efficacy, were more ready to accept authority, had less stressful life events, and better schooling experiences than any other group of people with lower intelligence test scores. Conversely, the recruits with low intelligence test scores (1–2;  $n = 213$ ), compared to people with scores 5 or 6 ( $n = 802$ ), expected poorer military adjustment ( $F_{3, 1896} = 7.1$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.8$  vs.  $4.0$ ) and social adjustment ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), had weaker affective commitment ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), less intentions to stay in service ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), and poorer acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), physical health ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ) and schooling experiences ( $\eta^2 = .09$ ). For all the above comparisons:  $p < .05$ .

Aptitude test 2 measured the recruits' *personality and leadership characteristics*, providing a measure with four values (0, 2, 4, and 6). This measure had more linear relation to



adjustment expectations ( $r = .29^{***}$ ) and other measures than the intelligence test, especially in the measures of *Sociability* ( $r = .39^{***}$ ) and *Adjustment to Schooling* ( $r = .38^{***}$ ). In every measure at time 1, the “zero” group of the test 2 (indicating unstable personality traits without leadership potential) was significantly different from the 2 or 4-groups, which in turn were significantly different from the 6-group. This trend was also seen in the values of *Military Adjustment* ( $F_{3, 1279} = 40.5$ ;  $\eta^2 = .09$ ;  $p < .05$ ) where the zero group had the mean of 3.6 ( $n = 341$ ), compared to the other groups that also were significantly different from each other (two:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $n = 194$ ; four:  $M = 4.0$ ,  $n = 599$ ; and six:  $M = 4.2$ ,  $n = 149$ ).

Comparable to the intelligence test, the recruits' *grade point average* (i.e. GPA) at school was acquired in the first questionnaire. The range of the measure (4–10) was recoded to 8 groups. The results revealed that for example recruits with a GPA between 4 and 6.5 had significantly lower military adjustment expectations than recruits with a GPA of 8 or above. Generally, the GPA followed the same kind of pattern than the cognitive ability test, having a clear but nonlinear relation to the measures (e.g. commitment to the military). On the other hand, the most linear relation of the GPA was with the measures of *Acceptance of Authority* ( $r = .28^{***}$ ) *Emotional Stability* ( $r = .22^{***}$ ), *Physical Health* ( $r = .29^{***}$ ), and *Adjustment to Schooling* ( $r = .50^{***}$ ). Thus, the mean values of these measures steadily increased with an increase in the GPA. Actually this is astonishing. Did the teachers unconsciously value the person's general mental and physical abilities and obedience when they provided grades at the comprehensive school, or is the school system a prolonged assessment of adjustment that at the same time tests the person's obedience and ability to bear stressful experiences? Although these questions remained unanswered in this research, the results indicate that the grades at school (three or four years before the military) were clearly related to the extent to which the recruits expected to adjust to mental, physical, and authority demands in the military context. In more general terms, schooling experiences and success at school shape the recruits' military expectations and self-efficacy before service.

The recruits had four different *education* backgrounds: only comprehensive school, some studies after comprehensive school, high-school graduation, and college graduation. The results support the previous literature by proving that education levels relate to later adjustment ( $t_1: r = .13^{***}$ ;  $t_2: r = .15^{***}$ ;  $t_3: r = .18^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,659$ ) and especially attrition in the military (e.g. attrition by time:  $r = .24^{***}$ ;  $n = 2,002$ ). Consequently, it was perceived that the recruits were systematically different from each other on the basis of their educational experiences. In Scheffe's test ( $p < .05$ ), recruits with only comprehensive school graduation ( $n = 327$ ) had significantly lower military adjustment expectations ( $F_{3, 1998} = 13.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs. 4.0), achievement motivation ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), physical health ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ), and especially adjustment to schooling ( $F_{3, 1998} = 125.4$ ,  $\eta^2 = .16$ ;  $M = 3.2$  vs. 4.1) than high-school graduates. All these aspects explain why these people left their school experiences to the comprehensive school level without continuation of education. In other words, the recruits who had only a comprehensive school background had also lower self-efficacy about their adjustment and motivation to learn, poorer mental and physical health and lower ability to be under supervision. Consequently, they had poorer adjustment experiences in the military (which will be confirmed in the later sections of this research).

Soldiers ( $n = 389$ ) who had *learning problems at school* (e.g. repeated a year at school or had remedial teaching in special groups) were different from other recruits ( $n = 1,612$ ) in terms of attitudes and expectations before service. Amazingly, earlier learning problems reflected on negative expectations, motivation, and commitment to the military, which was revealed in every scale value. Specifically, in the independent samples  $t$  test, each scale value was significantly lower or more negative for them (all  $p < .001$ ), and especially learning problems existed with significantly lower expectations about military adjustment ( $F_{1, 1999} = 53.1$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ ;  $M = 3.6$  vs.  $4.0$ ), sociability ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ); affective commitment ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), intentions to stay ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ), and physical health ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ).

In terms of *work history*, the recruits were asked whether they had been fired, the number of jobs, and whether they worked, studied, or were unemployed before the military. The recruits' expectations were not significantly different from each other as a function of the number of jobs they had had before the service. Only 59 recruits reported having been fired during the last year, and they had slightly ( $p < .054$ ) lower military expectations and significantly lower ( $p < .01$ ) normative commitment ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ), acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), and emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ); all traits that are logically related to being fired. However, the effect size (i.e.  $\eta^2$ ) remained low, indicating that being fired was not meaningful for adjustment expectations.

In Scheffe's test (all  $p < .05$ ), *unemployed* people ( $n = 457$ ) reported significantly lower military adjustment expectations ( $F_{2, 2000} = 15.9$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs.  $3.9$ ), sociability ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), affective commitment ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), intent to stay ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), physical health ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), and acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) than soldiers who *studied* before the service ( $n = 422$ ). Surprisingly, in every case (except in scales of *Physical Health* and *Acceptance of Authority*) soldiers who *worked* prior to service ( $n = 1,124$ ) had even more positive expectations, motivation, and commitment than unemployed or studying soldiers. Overall, the above results suggest that one fourth of the sample were no longer strongly tied with the society in terms of working and studying. In addition to such behavior or routines in life, this unemployed group already differed from the majority of the people in their attitudes, indicating that they might have been in a risk to slide from the rest of the society.

The impact of the *economic situation* was assessed by reported loans, financial situation (i.e. little money), and father's occupational group. First of all, the guardian's occupation did not differentiate the recruits from one another in their adjustment expectations or intent to stay. However, soldiers having loans ( $n = 512$ ) differed significantly from those without loans. Their expectations, motivation, commitment to the military, intent to stay, perceived emotional stability, sociability, and physical health were significantly poorer than those of the others ( $n = 1,490$ ;  $p < .001$ ). Even greater significant differences were noticed between the 951 soldiers who claimed to have little money and those ( $n = 1,052$ ) with some money. For example, soldiers having little money had more intentions to drop out from service than others ( $F_{1, 2001} = 31.2$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 4.4$  vs.  $4.7$ ) and they perceived lower chances for successful military adjustment ( $F_{1, 2001} = 55.2$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ ;  $M = 3.8$  vs.  $4.0$ ). However, the question whether the recruit shared living costs ( $n = 444$ ) did not distinguish soldiers, except that soldiers sharing living costs had experienced more stressful life events during the past

year ( $p < .001$ ). Generally, these results indicated a small relation to differences between the economic situation and attitudinal orientation towards the conscript service.

*Social relationships* in civilian life formed the next background category to be explored. Since military service is mandatory for men in Finland, it may come between close relationships with family and friends if the recruit and his friends have not prepared for the new situation in the relationship. However, the relationship with a spouse was not difficult for the majority of the recruits, as they were single ( $n = 1,109$ ) when starting the military service. The comparison between married ( $n = 94$ ) and single soldiers showed that married men had (in Scheffe's test with  $p < .05$ ) significantly lower adjustment expectations ( $F_{3,1999} = 5.9, \eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs.  $3.9$ ) and intentions to stay ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ), although the other measured items did not expose meaningful differences between marital status groups. Similarly, recruits who *lived together* with their girlfriend or wife before the military ( $n = 198$ ) had significantly lower adjustment expectations ( $F_{1,2001} = 9.4, \eta^2 = .00$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs.  $3.9, p < .01$ ) and intentions to stay ( $\eta^2 = .00, p < .01$ ), and they had had more stressful life events during the past year ( $\eta^2 = .01, p < .001$ ). As well, recruits coming to service from a *broken family* ( $n = 529$ ) had lower adjustment expectations ( $F_{1,2001} = 10.6, \eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.8$  vs.  $3.9, p < .001$ ), authority acceptance ( $\eta^2 = .00, p < .001$ ), and adjustment to schooling ( $\eta^2 = .02, p < .001$ ), and had experienced more stressful life events in civilian life ( $\eta^2 = .02, p < .001$ ) than recruits whose parents were still together ( $n = 1,474$ ). However, it needs to be noted that the effect size was low in the above mentioned items. In addition, data of the number of places the recruits had lived in, the distance from home to the garrison, whether one or both parents had died, and whether the parents were divorced were acquired. Although these items were not meaningfully related to military adjustment expectations, they were later utilized to explain attrition, where they might have more influence as suggested by the literature.

In one questionnaire item, the recruits were asked to mention their *father's rank*. Surprisingly, 611 recruits did not know it. Even more interestingly, they had the lowest mean values in every pretraining scale, compared to those who knew their father's rank. Specifically, they significantly ( $p < .05$  in Scheffe's test) differed from recruits whose father was at least a corporal in the scales about adjustment expectations, sociability, affective commitment, achievement motivation, acceptance of authority, emotional stability, physical health, and adjustment to schooling. Not knowing the father's rank indicates that the person had not discussed the military service and experiences with his or her father before coming to the military, due to a broken family, bad relationships with the father, or ignorance from one or both sides. When this item was more closely examined, it was noticed that the recruits not knowing their fathers' rank did not get along with their parents as well as the recruits whose father was a reserve officer ( $n = 182, p < .05$ ), their parents had less positive attitudes toward the military than the parents of the recruits whose father was at least a corporal.

The importance of good family relationship was even more clearly shown by an item where the recruits responded whether they had quarreled at home during the last year. *Quarrels* ( $n = 822$ ) appeared with significantly lower expectations, motivation, commitment, emotional stability, physical health, acceptance of authority, and schooling experiences ( $p < .001$ ). Similarly, *quarrels with a girlfriend or wife* ( $n = 585$ ) reflected on poorer military adjustment expectations ( $F_{1,2001} = 13.6, \eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.8$  vs.  $3.9, p < .001$ ), although the differences were not as great and meaningful as with problems with parents. Interestingly, soldiers whose

close relationship had ended ( $n = 518$ ) had slightly more positive scale values than others, although not significantly better, suggesting that the ended relationship helped the recruit to start his or her service from a “clear table” without problems with a girl- or boyfriend.

It was argued that soldiers having indicators of *deviance* in the past would have lower adjustment expectations and more negative attitudes toward the military. For example, *quarrels with a teacher or a boss* represented a minor deviance against an authority figure. Recruits with such experiences during the past year ( $n = 264$ ) had notably lower military adjustment expectations ( $F_{1, 2001} = 55.8, \eta^2 = .03; M = 3.5$  vs.  $3.9, p < .001$ ), and actually all their scale values at time 1 were more negative than those of others ( $p < .001$ ). On the other hand, behavioral deviance and bad habits were assessed by asking the recruits’ attitude towards drug use and the frequency of drinking alcohol. 275 recruits reported a positive *attitude towards drugs* and they were also in other terms significantly different from others. For example, comparing this group with recruits who were extremely negative about drug use ( $n = 1,198$ ), there were significant differences in measures of military adjustment expectations ( $F_{2, 2000} = 50.3, \eta^2 = .05; M = 3.6$  vs.  $4.0$ ), intent to stay ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ), and acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .07$ ). In fact, all the other scale means at time 1 were also significantly different between these two groups (for all comparisons:  $p < .001$ ).

Some recruits ( $n = 115$ ) drank two times a week or more often, and 375 recruits drank once a week. In Scheffe’s test, they differed significantly from others in terms of their adjustment expectations, affective commitment, achievement motivation, acceptance of authority, physical health, schooling experiences, and the number of stressful life events ( $p < .05$ ). For example, the recruits *drinking* most often had the affective commitment mean 2.9, whereas among recruits who drank 2–3 times a month ( $n = 925$ ), the mean value was 3.8 ( $F_{3, 1998} = 40.6, \eta^2 = .06; p < .001$ ), showing how drinking habits and orientation to military service were interconnected ( $r = -.21^{***}; n = 2,002$ ). The most severe deviance was indicated by holding a *criminal record* in civilian life. For example, there were 164 recruits who had three or more offenses and 320 having one or two offenses. First of all, the recruits with 1 or 2 offenses did not differ significantly from recruits without a criminal record in terms of their expectations or commitment (although the correlations indicated so: ( $r = -.13^{***}$  and  $r = -.10^{***}$ , respectively;  $n = 2,002$ ). However, these three groups (i.e. no criminal record, 1 or 2 offenses, and 3 or more offenses) were significantly different from each other in Scheffe’s test ( $p < .05$ ) in terms of their achievement motivation, acceptance of authority, physical health, and schooling experiences. In every case, the recruits having 3 or more offenses were significantly more negative in their responses than the majority of the recruits without offenses ( $n = 1,518, p < .001$ ).

In order to assess the impact of physical health on adjustment expectation, the recruits evaluated their own physical health and reported the *frequency of exercising* before service in the first questionnaire. In addition, the recruits participated in a 12-minute run test, the results of which were incorporated into the data. As expected, recruits exercising more often had more positive attitudes towards the military as well as their own adjustment in service ( $r = .23^{***}; n = 1,992$ ). However, the relation was curvilinear. In most scales, the edge between positive and negative attitudes and expectations was between exercising at least once a week compared those who exercised seldom. Specifically, soldiers training once a week differed from those exercising more often in physical health perceptions and achieved meters in the

Cooper-test (e.g. once a week 2,363 meters vs. almost daily 2,651 meters;  $F_{4, 1987} = 105.0$ ,  $p < .001$ ). On the other hand, soldiers who exercised once a month or more seldom ( $n = 406$ ) had lower adjustment expectations ( $F_{4, 1987} = 31.1$ ,  $\eta^2 = .06$ ;  $M = 3.6$  vs.  $3.8$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and affective commitment to the military ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ) than those exercising twice a month ( $n = 255$ ), and logically recruits exercising once a week or more often had even more positive mean values.

The results of *the 12-minute run test* were recoded to seven categories. These results were in a strong relation to the scale of physical health ( $r = .51^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,715$ ). Although the recruits who run the shortest distance (less than 2,000 meters;  $n = 127$ ) had also lower expectations and attitudes than others in terms of scale values, there were no significant differences in commitment and expectations about staying in the military. However, they were significantly less emotionally stable and unwilling to accept authority than recruits running 2,600 meters or more ( $n = 533$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

The last part of the examination of individual items focused on received information and training-related desires and expectations of conscripts. The *source of information* did not cause meaningful differences in time 1 scale values, although conscripts ( $n = 339$ ) who received the main information from the *To Become a Conscript*-booklet had generally more positive expectations and attitudes toward the military service. In terms of quantity, *received information* was linearly related to military adjustment expectations ( $r = .29^{***}$ ) and affective commitment ( $r = .28^{***}$ ; both  $n = 2,003$ ). For example, recruits who totally disagreed with receiving enough information had significantly different adjustment expectations ( $M = 3.5$ ,  $n = 142$ ) than those who partly disagreed or were unable to say ( $M = 3.7$ ,  $n = 739$ ), who in turn were different from recruits having enough information ( $F_{3, 1999} = 63.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .09$ ;  $p < .05$ ). The largest mean difference was noticed in commitment ( $F_{3, 1999} = 56.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .08$ ; e.g. totally disagree:  $M = 3.0$  vs. totally agree:  $M = 4.1$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Overall, having enough pretraining information was crucial for obtaining positive expectations and commitment to conscript service.

In the first questionnaire, the recruits were able to display their *desire for duty and service period* in the military: (a) 180 days no matter what ( $n = 567$ ), (b) 180 days in a specific duty ( $n = 563$ ), (c) 270 or 362 days as a rank and file soldier ( $n = 320$ ), (d) 362 days as a squad leader ( $n = 179$ ), or (e) 362 days as a platoon leader ( $n = 374$ ). Simply, this item summarized the recruit's orientation towards military service. The overall finding was that recruits' expectations and attitudes differed significantly ( $p < .001$ ) between the a – b – c options, whereas the selection of a longer period than 180 days was a commonality that was seen in relatively similar positive responses in all time 1 scales. In other words, all those who wanted longer than 6 months of service ( $n = 873$ ) had more positive attitudes and self-efficacy than others, and the order was always c – d – e, thus, recruits striving for platoon leader training had the best mean values in the measures. The responses of categories a and c had significantly different mean values in *Military Adjustment* ( $F_{4, 1998} = 75.9$ ,  $\eta^2 = .13$ ;  $M = 3.6$  vs.  $4.1$ ,  $p < .001$ ), *Affective Commitment* ( $F_{4, 1998} = 173.7$ ,  $\eta^2 = .26$ ;  $M = 3.0$  vs.  $3.9$ ,  $p < .001$ ), *Intent to Stay* ( $F_{4, 1998} = 45.9$ ,  $\eta^2 = .08$ ;  $M = 4.2$  vs.  $4.7$ ,  $p < .001$ ), *Acceptance of Authority* ( $F_{4, 1998} = 81.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .14$ ;  $M = 3.5$  vs.  $4.1$ ,  $p < .001$ ), *Achievement Motivation* ( $F_{4, 1998} = 159.2$ ,  $\eta^2 = .24$ ;  $M = 3.4$  vs.  $4.2$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and in all other time 1 scales measuring the soldiers' *Emotional Stability*, *Sociability*, *Physical Health*, and schooling experiences. Comparisons

between recruits expecting a 6-month service period and those desiring leadership training revealed even larger mean differences in the scales.

### **7.1.2 Predictors of Expected Adjustment**

*Pre-Training Scale Correlations.* Among the time 1 scales, all correlations ranged between .26 and .73 (Table A9.1 in Appendix 9). The *Military Adjustment* factor showed the highest correlations with *Acceptance of Authority* ( $r = .61^{***}$ ) and *Affective Commitment* ( $r = .55^{***}$ ). Commitment was, in turn, highly related to learning and achievement motivation ( $r = .73^{***}$ ), and therefore the latter measure was not used in the regression and discriminant analyses to avoid multicollinearity. One third of the variance between *Affective Commitment* and *Acceptance of Authority* was the same ( $r = .58^{***}$ ;  $r^2 = .34$ ), thus recruits who were more committed were also more prepared to obey orders. *Sociability* was highly related to *Emotional Stability* ( $r = .56^{***}$ ), indicating a link between social experiences and mental health, whereas *Physical Health* had the strongest relation with *Military Adjustment* ( $r = .49^{***}$ ). Interestingly, adjustment experiences at school had the strongest linear bearing on *Acceptance of Authority* responses ( $r = .47^{***}$ ), suggesting that schooling shaped the later approach towards supervision in another organization. In light of the correlation results, adjustment expectations could be explained by orientation towards commitment and authority, whereas intent to stay was additionally shaped by the recruit's emotional stability before service.

*Why was regression analysis used?* A multiple regression analysis (with the forward method) was utilized to determine the main predictors among all variables (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973, p. 286) that individually correlated with expected military adjustment or were related to military adjustment based on differences in means. It was acknowledged that the stepwise regression analysis is not the most sophisticated tool among other methods of regression analyses (Cohen et al., 2003, p. 161). However, the reason for utilizing it in this case was due to the large amount of suggested and available adjustment-related predictor items, and because many of them seemed to be related to adjustment as detailed above. Thus, the stepwise regression analysis provides a raw but lucid method for separating essential predictors from items that do not increase understanding of military adjustment when other items are taken into account. Although all the main components of predictors were explored and detailed in the literature review, still the first approach is also an explorative one and done to identify the main relations particularly in this Finnish conscript sample.

*Background and Aptitude Predictors of Adjustment Expectations.* As the first step of regression analysis, background and aptitude predictors of adjustment expectations were examined separately from the questionnaire scales. The results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 11. Since cases with missing values were excluded and many conscripts did not have the aptitude data available, only 1,141 cases were included in the analysis. It appears that the strongest influences on expected adjustment were due to friends' attitudes toward military service along with the conscript's attitude towards service in terms of seeking extra training and a longer duration of service and needed information about the military obligation. In short, demographic variables and the past behavior had a lesser influence than personal characteristics and attitudes. However, the recruit's social and leadership

skills, reasonable drinking habits, and having a work or a place to study seem to secure positive adjustment expectations. In all, Table 11 conveniently summarizes also the results of the above mean differences by showing which items have an independent influence on adjustment expectations.

Table 11

*Background and Aptitude Predictors of Military Adjustment Expectations Before Service*

Background and Aptitude Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Friends had a positive attitude towards military service	.19	.001	.36	.36	.13
2) Desired duty and service period	.19	.001	.34	.44	.19
3) Received enough information about conscription	.15	.001	.26	.47	.22
4) Aptitude test 2 (personality characteristics)	.13	.001	.28	.50	.24
5) Frequency of drinking alcohol	-.11	.001	-.21	.51	.26
6) Had no job or was not at school (d)	-.09	.001	-.15	.52	.26
7) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.08	.01	.29	.52	.27

Note.  $n = 1,141$ . (d) = This is a dummy variable. For the whole 12-item model,  $R = .54$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .28$ . For the individual correlations ( $r$ ),  $p < .001$ .

If only the background predictors were entered in the regression (i.e. without the aptitude predictors),  $n$  would increase to 1,979, and  $R$  would = .57 and Adjusted  $R^2$  would = .32. The order of the “background predictors only” model is (similar to the results presented in Table 11):

- 1) Friends had a positive attitude towards military service ( $\beta = .16$ );
- 2) Desired duty and service period ( $\beta = .18$ );
- 3) Received enough information about conscription ( $\beta = .17$ );
- 4) Had sleeping disorders ( $\beta = -.12$ );
- 5) Had quarreled with a teacher or supervisor ( $\beta = -.07$ );
- 6) Frequency of drinking alcohol ( $\beta = -.08$ );
- 7) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service ( $\beta = .09$ );
- 8) Frequency of exercising ( $\beta = .08$ );
- 9) Reported disease or injury before service ( $\beta = -.06$ );
- 10) Had no job or place of study before military service ( $\beta = -.06$ );
- 11) Marital status ( $\beta = -.06$ );
- 12) Got along with parents ( $\beta = .05$ );
- 13) Thinks drug tests should not be allowed ( $\beta = -.05$ );
- 14) Had learning problems at school ( $\beta = -.04$ ), and
- 15) Lived in more than 8 places ( $\beta = .04$ ).

Basically this model stressed (a) attitude (of the conscripts and their closest friends and relatives), (b) received information, (c) lifestyle (such as drinking alcohol and exercising), (d) stressful life events (e.g. sleeping disorders, diseases and injuries), (e) status and quality of closest relationships, and (f) previous adjustment experiences at school as useful predictors of adjustment expectations.

One important result in the above mentioned models was the identification of items which did not meaningfully explain expectations, particularly many items that were in the individual examinations (e.g. in the variance analysis) showed to be related to adjustment.

These were a) demographic items (age), b) cognitive and physical aptitude measures, such as GPA at school and the results of the 12-minute run test, and c) background variables (such as economic situation, living situation, education level, and deviant behavior). Thus, people with different demographic, education, and socio-economic background may still have the same positive or negative expectations about their ability to adjust to a new organizational environment. For the instructors this means that although for example low education and criminal record are related to higher risk of dropping out from service, they do not determine the recruits' orientation towards their adjustment process. On the other hand, the recruit's background shadows the adjustment expectations if friends and the closest ones do not support military service.

*Scales and Background Items as Predictors of Expected Adjustment.* Next, the relative importance of background information compared to conscripts' own pre-training attitudes was examined. Therefore, all scales and background items were entered together in statistical regression analysis. Aptitude variables were not included because there were insufficient data on too many conscripts. In the model, the first six entries were all about attitudinal items and scales. In brief, adjustment expectations were explained by knowing the conscript's obedience, physical health, sociability, motivation to serve in the military, and perceptions about an impact of service on civilian relationships (Table 12).

Table 12

*Time 1 Scales and Background Items Explaining Military Adjustment Expectations*

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Acceptance of Authority (S)	.26	.001	.61	.61	.37
2) I will feel at home in military service (i)	.19	.001	.59	.68	.46
3) Physical Health (S)	.20	.001	.49	.71	.50
4) Military service is going to have a negative impact on my civil relationships (i)	.15	.001	.44	.73	.53
5) Sociability (S)	.12	.001	.48	.73	.54
6) I am highly motivated to complete my military service (i)	.10	.001	.54	.74	.54

*Note.*  $n = 1,979$ . (i) = An individual item. For the 13-item model,  $R = .75$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .56$ . For the individual correlations ( $r$ ),  $p < .001$ .

The stepwise inclusion of other predictor scales or background items did not materially improve this basic model in terms of explained variance (56 % vs. 54 %). In addition, the full model included variables of exercising frequency ( $\beta = -.10$ ), marital status ( $\beta = -.07$ ), received information ( $\beta = .05$ ), adjustment at school ( $\beta = .06$ ), reported sleeping disorders ( $\beta = -.04$ ), positive expectations ( $\beta = .04$ ), and living in many places (i.e. more than 8) ( $\beta = .03$ ). Interestingly, the combination of having positive self-efficacy of physical health but exercising seldom indicated positive adjustment expectations. More consistently, conscripts who were single, adjusted to schooling, and had no sleeping disorders had more positive adjustment expectations than others. An alternate regression analysis was computed including aptitude variables, but the resulting model was basically unchanged; the aptitude variables were not part of the best model that explained adjustment expectations.



*The Main Measures of Adjustment Expectations.* Multiple regression analysis (with the enter method) was employed to determine the variance accounting for the main measures of expected *Military Adjustment* before service. Cases were excluded if they had missing values for any of the variables used. Elimination of *Achievement Motivation* and *Normative Commitment* was done due to their high correlation ( $r = .73^{***}$  and  $r = .69^{***}$ , respectively) with *Affective Commitment* at time 1. As suggested by the literature and the factor analysis, *Affective Commitment* is more vital for understanding the creation of adjustment expectations and, therefore, it was utilized at time 1 at the expense of the measures of motivation and normative commitment.

The results are presented in Table 13. The model with seven scales accounted for 54 % of the variance of military adjustment expectations before service. The four most predictive scales in the order of importance to the regression model were: (1) *Acceptance of Authority*, (2) *Affective Commitment*, (3) *Physical Health*, and (4) *Sociability*. Thus, a committed person who was able to confront social, physical, and authority demands of the military service had the most positive perceptions about the upcoming adjustment process. In addition to these four constructs, being emotionally stable and having positive adjustment experiences at school increased positive adjustment expectations in the military.

Table 13  
*Predictor Scales (t1) of Military Adjustment Expectations*

Predictor Scales	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$
Affective Commitment	.21	.001	.56
Intent to Stay	.02	ns.	.40
Emotional Stability	.06	.01	.43
Physical Health	.20	.001	.50
Sociability	.14	.001	.51
Acceptance of Authority	.31	.001	.63
Adjustment in Prior Schooling	.06	.01	.44

Note.  $n = 1,965$ .  $R = .74$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .54$ . Method = Enter. For all  $r$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Surprisingly, the person's intention to stay in service did not explain the expectations once the affective commitment was known. In other words, intention to stay is related to military adjustment but may be moderated by the extent of affective commitment. An alternative explanation for low beta values of *Intent to Stay* could be provided by examining its standard deviation and mean values. Since the majority of recruits responded closely to 5 in the Likert scale of items about considerations of quitting their service, the scale was stoutly skewed. Therefore, the usefulness of *Intent to Stay* for predicting adjustment expectations may be low due to the restricted range of responses to the scale.

*Factors and Variables that Discriminate Expected Adjustment from Expected Maladjustment.* In order to examine how pessimistic and optimistic adjustment expectations differed from each other, the scale of *Military Adjustment* was divided to two parts: responses of 1.0 to 3.5 ( $n = 517$ ) and responses of 4.5 to 5.0 ( $n = 437$ ). Basically, discriminant analysis provides a function which is a regression equation with a dependent variable representing group membership (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973, p. 337). In this section, discriminant analysis was

used to explain the diverse ends of adjustment expectations. Since it was acknowledged that negative expectations could be explained by different predictors than positive expectations, the discriminant analysis was presumed to identify such items that predict either negative or positive ends of the measure or both. Moreover, the discriminant function simply demonstrates the strongest predictors of adjustment expectations prior to service. Thus, most of the discriminant models were presented for illustrative purposes of complementing the results of regression analysis and achieved understanding of the phenomenon.

The first step of the analysis exploited information of individual items and records to recognize influential predictors of various expectations. Table 14 shows that the desire for a certain service period, adequate initial information, and attitudes of friends were the best predictors of adjustment expectations. Additionally the model shows that negative expectations characterized recruits who had sleeping disorders (referring to an elevated stress level), parents with negative attitudes toward service, and who seldom exercised but often drank alcohol. An alternative model was made with aptitude measures. It revealed that Aptitude test 2 (i.e. personality and leadership characteristics) was a helpful predictor of negative and positive expectations right after the three best predictors mentioned above. On the other hand, personal intelligence (i.e. IQ-test) and physical condition (i.e. 12-minute run test) were not important for understanding the expectations of adjustment. On the whole, (a) personal orientation, (b) received information, (c) attitudes of the closest ones, (d) personal social and leadership traits, (e) habits of exercising and drinking, and (f) the extent of stressful life events distinguished positive and negative adjustment expectations prior to service.

Table 14

*Model Discriminating Adjustment Expectations Before Service*

Best Discriminators for Group Membership	Standardized Coefficients	<i>r</i> with the Model
1) Desired duty and service period	.50	.65
2) Received enough information about conscription	.34	.50
3) Friends had a positive attitude towards military service	.28	.56
4) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-.26	-.39
5) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.16	.47
6) Frequency of exercising	.16	.37
7) Frequency of drinking	-.15	-.34
8) Conscript got along with parents	.15	.32
9) Reported disease or injury (d)	-.12	-.16
10) Relationship had ended (d)	.11	.01

*Note.*  $n = 947$ . Variables are ordered by stepwise inclusion in the model. (d) = Computed as a dummy variable. Box's  $M = 437.9$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilk's Lambda = .60; Eigenvalue = .67; Canonical Correlation = .63. 79.1 % of cases were correctly classified by this model.

Table 15 presents *all the pretraining measures* (except aptitude measures) in their relative order of distinguishing recruits with negative expectations from those with positive ones. Generally, obedient, committed, sociable, and physically fit people had most positive expectations about their adjustment in the military. Furthermore, (a) desired special or leadership training, (b) good adjustment experiences at school, (c) sufficient emotional

stability, (d) prior information, (e) determination to stay in service, and (f) attitudes of the close circle of friends and relatives were ideal for creating positive adjustment expectations. Naturally, the same aspects in negative form generated negative expectations.

Table 15  
*Scales and Items Discriminating Adjustment Expectations Effectively*

Best Discriminators for Group Membership	<i>r</i> with the Model
1) Acceptance of Authority (S)	.76
2) Affective Commitment (S)	.65
3) Sociability (S)	.57
4) Physical Health (S)	.54
5) Desired duty and service period	.47
6) Adjustment at School (S)	.44
7) Emotional Stability (S)	.41
8) Received enough information about conscription	.36
9) Intent to Stay (S)	.35
10) Friends had a positive attitude towards military service	.34
11) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.30
12) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-.28
13) Frequency of exercising	.27
14) Attitude towards drugs	-.25
15) Conscript got along with parents	.21
16) Had learning problems at school	-.20
17) Quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor (d)	-.19
18) Frequency of drinking	-.18
19) GPA at comprehensive school	.18
20) Thinks drug tests should not be allowed (d)	-.18
21) Did not know the father's rank (d)	-.17
22) Graduated education level	.16
23) Was charged with an offence as civilian	-.15
24) Had one or more loans	-.15
25) Had little money (d)	-.14
26) Was accused of a crime (d)	-.12
27) Reported disease or injury (d)	-.11

*Note.*  $n = 947$ . Variables are ordered by correlation with the discriminating model. (S) = A scale. (i) = An individual item. (d) = Computed as a dummy variable. Box's  $M = 606.6$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilk's Lambda = .44; Eigenvalue = 1.27.; Canonical Correlation = .75; 88.4 % of cases were correctly classified.

Based on the above examination, the following items were not strongly related to either positive or negative adjustment expectations: age, gender, parents' divorce, a loss of either father or mother, the distance from home to the garrison, being fired from a job, the number of jobs, unemployment, shared living costs, living with a girlfriend, quarreling with a girlfriend, dating or being married, and an ended relationship. Thus, demographics, family background (e.g. a broken family), work history, marital status, the quality of relationship with a girlfriend did not consistently determine prior expectations towards military adjustment although they demonstrated a relation when individually examined (in the results of the  $t$  test, variance analysis, or correlations). In other words, demographical and socio-economic items were not useful predictors of diverse expectations, whereas personality and personal

characteristics, prior deviant behavior, and education background took more part in shaping recruits' prior orientation and expectations.

### **7.1.3 Adjustment Expectations as a Predictor of Later Adjustment, Attrition, and Performance**

*Later Perceived Adjustment.* The ability to predict expected adjustment to military service is important to the extent that expected adjustment predicts actual adjustment and other positive outcomes. Actual adjustment can be measured in two ways – the conscript's perceived adjustment at a later time and the completion of the military service obligation, i.e. avoidance of attrition. In the present research, the expected adjustment at the first day of service correlated with self-reported adjustment near the end of BT (7 weeks of service) at  $r = .54^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,831$  and with self-reported adjustment at the end of the service obligation at  $r = .40^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,660$ . This association between expected adjustment and later adjustment suggests that it is valuable to provide sufficient information to conscripts before entry into military service and to help them to develop positive expectations about service, since expectations are positively related to actual adjustment experiences. However, the pattern of association suggests that later adjustment is also a function of other factors than just initial expected adjustment, as one would expect, since adjustment is not by itself a stable personality trait.

*Attrition (i.e. Separation from Service).* During their conscript service, 211 of the 2,003 conscripts in the sample were separated from the military. Of those 211 separating, 170 were discharged during BT (131 of these in the first two weeks!), and the remaining 41 were separated between the end of BT and the end of their six-month obligation. Of the 211 separating, 174 were discharged at least partly due to mental health reasons or they selected the option of choosing the alternative civilian service (13 months) for ethical reasons. The mean value of the *Military Adjustment* upon entry into military service was 3.2 ( $SD = .95$ ) for the attrition group (of 174) compared to the mean of 4.0 ( $SD = .62$ ) for the group ( $n = 1,621$ ) that completed their military service without any restrictions on further service ( $p < .001$ ). In other words, those in the drop-out group had significantly lower expectations of adjustment to military service at the time they entered service. However, those separated for physical health reasons did not differ in expected adjustment from those who completed their service.

Many variables impact conscript attrition. The present research at first examined the relative importance of expected adjustment for attrition in terms of its relative ability to discriminate those who completed their military service obligation without any restrictions ( $n = 1,605$ ) from those who dropped out at least in part due to mental health reasons or chose the civilian service alternative for ethical reasons ( $n = 171$ ). The results of the discriminant analysis showed that expected adjustment was the second best variable as rated by its canonical correlation, and it was included in the discriminant model. Briefly stated, expected adjustment (i.e. *Military Adjustment*) was a potential discriminator of attrition, although it was relatively less strong than the strongest predictor scale: *Intent to Stay*.

*Expected Adjustment as a Predictor of Performance.* The ability to predict expected adjustment to military service is made further important for the reason that expected adjustment predicts other positive outcomes, especially conscript performance during military service. The military performance of the conscripts was rated from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent) by their instructors near the end of service. Expected adjustment upon entry to the military correlated with the instructor-rated conscript performance at  $r = .18^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,782$ . A performance rating of 1 to 3 was considered low performance; a rating of 4 or 5 was considered high performance. The mean on the *Military Adjustment* of those who performed at a low level was  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = .68$ ;  $n = 520$ , whereas the mean for those who performed at a high level was  $M = 4.0$ ;  $SD = .60$ ;  $n = 922$ , suggesting a positive impact of adjustment expectations to later personal performance in the military.

## 7.2 Basic Training Adjustment

### 7.2.1 Personal Background Variables and their Association with Basic Training Adjustment Experiences

The examination of adjustment predictors started by contrasting personal background information with the actual adjustment experiences and the recruits' attitudinal orientation towards the military service. *Age* did not effectively discriminate the responses of *Military Adjustment* or *Intent to Stay*. Similarly, differences in age were not significantly related to variances in scales of *Emotional Stability* (although 18-year-old recruits had the lowest value) or *Physical Health* (although 22 to 28-year-olds were in poorest condition), and among situational adjustment factors (e.g. leadership, social experiences, training, and unit atmosphere) there were no significant differences as a function of age. However, the 18-year-old recruits ( $n = 44$ ) had significantly lower achievement motivation than the 20-year-old and older recruits (e.g.  $M = 3.3$  for age 18 and  $M = 4.0$  for age 22–28,  $p < .001$ ,  $F_{4, 1826} = 6.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ). In addition, older recruits were generally more ready to accept authority and follow orders than 18-year-olds (e.g.  $M = 3.6$  for age 18 and  $M = 4.0$  for age 20,  $p < .05$ ,  $F_{4, 1826} = 5.1$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ).

Compared to age, *gender* was a better discriminator of responses. In fact, all the mean values were more positive among women than men. Thus, the women were more committed to serve, had better self-efficacy and more positive adjustment experiences during basic training, and they adopted a totally different approach towards their superiors than the men. Moreover, the women perceived their physical condition as stronger as men on average. The main adjustment-related mean differences between the men and women were in the scales of *Military Adjustment* to BT ( $F_{1, 1824} = 12.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.8$  vs. 4.4,  $p < .001$ ), *Affective Commitment* ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and *Regimentation* ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ,  $p < .05$ ). In the main, the women had a far more positive orientation towards the military training than the men. This was particularly notable in training-related items where the difference of means was one value or more in the Likert scale, such as *The training has been challenging and interesting* ( $F_{1, 1824} = 27.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.2$  vs. 4.2,  $p < .001$ ), *I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years* ( $F_{1, 1824} = 24.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 2.6$  vs. 3.9,  $p < .001$ ), and *I am highly motivated to complete my military service* ( $F_{1, 1824} = 21.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.3$  vs. 4.3,  $p < .001$ ). These differences are mainly explained by the highly selective nature of the female sample ( $n = 24$ ),

because the women participated voluntarily, whereas the 1,807 men who were present at the end of BT did their mandatory service.

One of the most astonishing results was revealed by the cognitive competence measures. Although the literature suggested that brighter and more capable people adjust better, it was a surprise to notice that in addition to more favorable adjustment experiences, they were also mentally and physically healthier, had stronger commitment to the military service, accepted authority more willingly, were less hazed by mates, and had better relationships with BT leaders. More precisely, *Aptitude test 1* measuring cognitive abilities and its results were categorized to four groups in this research (a) 1–2 ( $n = 200$ ), (b) 3–4 ( $n = 489$ ), (c) 5–6 ( $n = 772$ ), and (d) 7–9 ( $n = 360$ ). Membership in these four mental categories had a linear and significant relation to BT military adjustment experiences ( $r = .23^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,821$ ; 1–2  $M = 3.5$ ; 3–4  $M = 3.7$ ; 5–6  $M = 3.9$ ; and 7–9  $M = 4.1$ ;  $F_{3, 1817} = 35.9$ ,  $\eta^2 = .06$ ). In contrast, cognitive abilities had a nonlinear relation to other scales about personal well-being (i.e. *Emotional Stability* and *Physical Health*), personal commitment, intentions to stay, and social and leadership experiences (e.g. *Sociability*, *Experienced Hazing*, *Peer Cohesion*, and *BT Leaders*). Most notably, all the mean values were in the same order in time 2 measures (i.e. the poorest aptitude scores related to the lowest and most negative means, whereas the cognitive aptitude groups 3–4, 5–6, and 7–9 in that order had always more positive and better mean values of the scales and items). There was only one exception: *I am interested in occupations in the field of security*. The group with 7–9 aptitude scores, although having the strongest commitment and motivation and the most positive attitudes towards military training, was not as much interested in occupation in the military as the middle groups of 3–4 and 5–6.

*Aptitude test 2* assessed the personality and leadership characteristics of the recruits. These scores (0, 2, 4, 6) had even a stronger relation to adjustment measures than *Aptitude test 1*. Therefore, a better aptitude test score always existed with better adjustment experiences ( $r = .32^{***}$ ), mental health and well-being ( $r = .43^{***}$ ), acceptance of authority ( $r = .35^{***}$ ), and experiences with peers ( $r = .24^{***}$ ) and leaders ( $r = .26^{***}$ ; for all  $n = 1,241$ ). Specially, the zero-group adjusted significantly poorer to the military than other groups ( $F_{3, 1232} = 49.5$ ,  $\eta^2 = .11$ ;  $M = 3.4$  vs. 3.9–4.2,  $p < .001$ ), were less sociable ( $\eta^2 = .19$ ,  $p < .001$ ), uncommitted to serve ( $\eta^2 = .10$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and had severe problems in adjustment to regimentation ( $\eta^2 = .09$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The item *I am highly motivated to complete my military service* revealed a prominent difference of these groups in their orientation towards their service ( $F_{3, 1232} = 38.7$ ,  $\eta^2 = .09$ ;  $M = 2.7 - 3.2 - 3.6 - 3.9$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

The *grade point average* (GPA) at comprehensive school functioned similarly to *Aptitude test 1*, as they both indicated the same kind of area of competence (i.e. cognitive abilities) and they were in relation to each other ( $r = .57^{***}$ ). Thus, all the eight categories of GPA were in the order of better quality when they were connected with *Military Adjustment*. This suggests that a better GPA at school reflected on more successful adjustment experiences in the military ( $r = .19^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,831$ ). For example, recruits having 4 to 6 GPA adjusted significantly poorer to the military than recruits with a GPA of 7.5 or more ( $M = 3.5$  vs.  $M = 3.9$ –4.2,  $p < .05$  in Scheffe's test;  $F_{7, 1823} = 10.8$ ,  $\eta^2 = .04$ ). Similarly, these groups significantly differed in their sociability, achievement motivation, physical health, relationships with superiors, and tendency to malingering. Mostly, the relation between the GPA and the

scales was nonlinear, and the GPA value 7.5 was in many cases a cut point between poorly adjusted, committed, and motivated soldiers and those who had good experiences in the military. Noteworthy was the relation between the GPA and *Acceptance of Authority* ( $r = .30^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,831$ ); similarly to the case of *Military Adjustment* also obedience was linearly related to the previous scores at school. For example, recruits with GPA values of 4.0 – 7.0 were significantly less obedient than soldiers having a GPA of at least 7.5 ( $F_{7, 1823} = 27.8$ ,  $\eta^2 = .10$ ;  $M = 3.3\text{--}3.7$  vs.  $M = 4.1\text{--}4.4$ , respectively,  $p < .05$ ). Similarly to the results of time 1 mean differences, the above findings raise a question: were the grades given on the basis of the person's obedience and adjustment at school? Regardless the answer to this question, it is certain that scores at school are closely related to later adjustment and authority relations in the military. Thus, schooling experiences prepare people for later organizational membership and experiences.

*Educational level* indicates both the success and perseverance of a person. The literature suggests that recruits' education could be seen in their adjustment experiences. In this research, the relation between education level and adjustment experiences was not notable ( $r = .15^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,830$ ). However, recruits who had only comprehensive school as an educational background ( $n = 261$ ) adjusted significantly poorer to the military than high school or college graduates ( $n = 860$ ) ( $F_{3, 1826} = 14.0$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 3.6$  vs.  $4.0$ ,  $p < .05$ ). On the other hand, there were no significant differences in conscripts' commitment to military service or their intentions to stay in service as a function of educational background, although recruits with only comprehensive school education had significantly lower ( $p < .05$ ) achievement motivation ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ) and they were more reluctant to obedience and supervision ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ) than high school and college graduates. Although the extent of the effect was small, these results support the literature that seat time in the school system props up abilities favorable to adjustment to the military and authority relations in it.

There were 319 recruits serving in BT who had experienced *learning problems at school*. In the  $t$  test, they were significantly different ( $p < .001$ ) from those without major problems in learning at school ( $n = 1,511$ ) in terms of their adjustment to the military ( $F_{1, 1828} = 42.7$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 3.5$  vs.  $3.9$ ), intent to stay ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), sociability ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), experienced hazing ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), authority acceptance ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), and relationships with BT leaders ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ). Since they did not get along with their peers and superiors and experienced more stress due to social relationships, regimentation and physical demands, it was no surprise to find them more often willingly avoiding service than other recruits (i.e. *Malingering* at time 2 and 3) and having remarkably less effective service days in the military ( $F_{1, 1828} = 24.3$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 71.8\%$  vs.  $86.9\%$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

The recruits' socio-economic background and *work situation* in civilian life were assessed for example on the basis of their *unemployment* before the military. Unemployed recruits ( $n = 396$ ) estimated their BT adjustment poorer than recruits either working ( $n = 1,043$ ) or studying ( $n = 392$ ) ( $F_{2, 1828} = 10.7$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs.  $M = 3.9$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In addition, they differed from others in their intentions to stay, achievement motivation, and emotional and physical condition. However, their relationships with peers and leaders were as good as of those who had something to do in terms of working or studying before service. *Being fired* did not come out in military adjustment experiences although recruits who were fired ( $n =$

47) were also more likely hazed and avoided daily service during BT than others ( $n = 1,784$ ;  $p < .05$ ).

The recruits' *economic situation* was estimated on the basis of the extent of loans, whether they had little or no money, and whether they shared living costs at home. Recruits *having loans* ( $n = 436$ ) had significantly lower mean values in adjustment, commitment, authority relations, and emotional and physical well-being than recruits without loans ( $n = 1,395$ ). Thus their personal experiences and approach toward the military was less pleasant and successful than those of other recruits. As could be expected, they thought that the military service would have a negative impact on their civilian life ( $F_{1, 1829} = 17.2$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.3$  vs.  $3.6$ ,  $p < .001$ ). There were even more recruits who had *little money* ( $n = 837$ ) than recruits having loans. Still, the results were similar: significantly poorer adjustment to BT ( $F_{1, 1829} = 33.9$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs.  $3.9$ ,  $p < .001$ ), less intentions to stay in the military ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), and more concerns about the impact of service on civilian life ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ). Only 386 recruits *shared living costs* in civilian life. However, this was not meaningfully related to adjustment experiences and personal motivation and commitment to the military, although also this group was slightly afraid of the impact of service on their civilian situation than other recruits.

There were 87 recruits who served in BT and had no *father* because he had died. They were different from others only in two aspects: they adjusted poorer and experienced more stressful life events during BT than other recruits ( $n = 1,744$ ;  $p < .05$ ). Only 30 recruits had lost their *mother*. However, this fact did not stand out in their BT adjustment, relationships, motivation, and commitment. On the other hand, coming from a broken family due to *parents' divorce* caused problems in personal adjustment. These 459 recruits were significantly different from the 1,372 recruits whose parents were together, in terms of their military adjustment ( $F_{1, 1829} = 10.6$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs.  $3.9$ ,  $p < .01$ ), as well as in affective commitment to the military, acceptance of authority, relationship with leaders, physical health, stressful life events during BT, and avoidance of daily service (all  $p < .01$ ). These results suggest that losing a parent due to death is not as destructive as losing a parent due to divorce, as far as later personal adjustment is concerned.

The importance of secure and supportive family relations came out even more strongly when recruits who had *quarreled at home* before service ( $n = 743$ ) were compared to those who did not have such quarrels (1,088). Recruits having quarrels had lower and more negative experiences in the military down the line. For example, they adjusted worse to BT ( $F_{1, 1829} = 12.4$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.8$  vs.  $3.9$ ,  $p < .001$ ), they were more likely hazed by peers during BT ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), they had difficulties to adjust to regimentation ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), and had more stressful life events during BT ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ). Additionally, they more likely avoided their daily service and thought that the service would have a negative impact on their civilian life (for all comparisons:  $p < .001$ ).

Knowing the *father's military rank* labeled recruits psychologically in BT. Soldiers who did not know their father's rank ( $n = 549$ ) had also mediocre adjustment experiences during BT ( $F_{3, 1815} = 18.8$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ ;  $M = 3.6$  vs.  $4.0$ – $4.1$ ,  $p < .001$ ), were weakly committed to the military ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), had less achievement motivation ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), were not as eager to obey authority ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), had more problems in adjustment to regimentation ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), had



weaker physical health ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), and less satisfying relationships with their leaders ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), compared to soldiers whose father was at least a corporal ( $n = 663$ ; for all comparisons:  $p < .001$ ). Basically, knowing one's father was momentous for successful adjustment to the military organization compared to the father's socio-economic situation, as the father's occupation had no relations to differences in BT adjustment, commitment, and attitudes at all.

The influence of dating and living situations on BT experiences and attitudes was also assessed. Recruits who did not *live at home* ( $n = 544$ ) had slightly more problems to adjust to BT ( $p < .01$ ) and with authority relationships ( $p < .05$ ) than recruits living at home. Also, they had more stressful events in civilian life during the first weeks of service ( $p < .001$ ) and more doubts about the positive impact of military service on their civilian life ( $p < .05$ ). The differences in means were even greater if the recruit *lived with a girlfriend or wife* ( $n = 163$ ), such as: *Military Adjustment* ( $F_{1,1829} = 11.2, \eta^2 = .01; M = 3.6$  vs.  $3.9, p < .001$ ), *Stressful Life Events* ( $\eta^2 = .01, p < .001$ ), and *Service Impact on Civilian Life* ( $\eta^2 = .01, p < .01$ ). However, the *distance from home* to garrison did not categorize recruits' experiences or attitudes in the military during BT.

Having a close civilian relationship was a (small) risk factor undermining the BT adjustment process in the military. For example, recruits who were *single* before service ( $n = 1,034$ ) adjusted significantly better to the military than recruits who were engaged or married ( $n = 202$ ) ( $F_{3,1827} = 8.0, \eta^2 = .01; M = 3.9$  vs.  $3.6-3.7, p < .05$ ). The comparison between recruits who were single ( $n = 1,034$ ) and who were dating ( $n = 595$ ) showed that single soldiers had fewer stressful events during BT ( $\eta^2 = .03, p < .001$ ) and they did not expect a lot of negative impact of service on their civilian life ( $\eta^2 = .03, p < .001$ ). Moreover, problems in the military adjustment process could be expected if the relationship did not work. Recruits who reported *quarrels with a girlfriend or wife* ( $n = 522$ ) had more problems to adjust during BT ( $F_{1,1829} = 9.5, \eta^2 = .01; M = 3.7$  vs.  $3.9, p < .01$ ) and less intentions to stay in the military ( $\eta^2 = .01, p < .001$ ), and consequently they assessed the military service to have an unfavorable impact on their civilian life ( $\eta^2 = .03, p < .001$ ), compared to those who did not have such quarrels with the significant others ( $n = 1,309$ ). However, if the *relationship had ended* during the past year ( $n = 477$ ) there were no problems in the military adjustment process or no differences in commitment to the military compared to other soldiers without an ended close relationship.

Good physical condition secures particularly physical adjustment to the military where physical strain may be more salient than in other organizations in civilian life. This suggestion was supported by the results. First of all, it was staggering to realize that approximately 20 % of the young male population did not *exercise* at all in the Southern-Western part of Finland. Presumably, they would lose their physical condition, gain weight, have cardiovascular diseases, and die earlier than their healthier counterparts. Besides these speculative upcoming problems, recruits exercising once a month or more seldom ( $n = 333$ ) did not cope with the military as well as those who exercised more often ( $n = 1,252$ ) ( $F_{4,1816} = 24.9, \eta^2 = .05; M = 3.5$  vs.  $3.9-4.0$ ). In addition, these groups were different in terms of affective commitment to service ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ) and considerations of quitting from it ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ). Among other experiences in BT, recruits who did not exercise had more negative perceptions about training, unit atmosphere, superiors, and even peers. Most notably, pre-training exercising

was strongly related to perceived physical health at the end of BT ( $r = .51^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,821$ ). In other words, recruits exercising in civilian life had notably more positive physical self-efficacy in the military ( $F_{4, 1816} = 159.8$ ,  $\eta^2 = .26$ ;  $M = 3.0$  vs.  $3.5$ – $4.3$ ), which was visible in the unexceptionally high eta value. In addition to the frequency of exercising, the actual physical condition measured by the *12-minute run test* was related to the physical and overall adjustment in BT. For example, recruits who run less than 2,000 meters ( $n = 124$ ) had significantly more negative adjustment perceptions ( $F_{6, 1697} = 7.8$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ ;  $M = 3.5$  vs.  $3.9$ – $4.1$ ) and obedience ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ) than recruits running at least 2,400 meters. Naturally, the strongest relation of physical fitness was with physical self-efficacy at the end of BT ( $F_{6, 1697} = 129.5$ ,  $\eta^2 = .31$ ;  $M = 2.6$  vs.  $4.1$ – $4.7$ ), where all seven categories of the 12-minute run test were in linear relation to perceptions.

Deviant past behavior was claimed in the literature to be a good predictor of later adjustment in society. In this research, recruits who had *quarreled with their teachers or supervisors* ( $n = 221$ ) had significantly ( $p < .001$ ) more difficulties to cope with the military ( $F_{1, 1829} = 25.8$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.6$  vs.  $3.9$ ) and accept authority ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ). Their mental health ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ) and physical well-being ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) were weaker than those of others ( $n = 1,610$ ). They were more likely hazed by their peers ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), and they deliberately avoided their daily service ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ). Discord with previous teachers or supervisors reflected also in intentions to stay in the military, because recruits who had quarreled with teachers or bosses had also more intentions to drop out of service than others at the end of BT ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ). In the light of the above results, it was not a surprise that among these people commitment to the military was significantly lower than others ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ).

There were 430 recruits who reported that they drank once a week or more often during their BT and of these 87 drank twice a week or more often. The latter drinking frequency means that they were drunk on both days of the weekend leave. It seems that *drunkenness as a drinking habit* is culturally normative to 18-year-old boys (Niemi et al., 2006, p. 146) and represents a leisure time hobby among one fourth of the male population in Finland. The results suggested that these young men are at a risk of being marginalized people in the society due to their complex problems at home, school, and work. In concordance with previous bad experiences they were in trouble with their adjustment process in the military. As expected, frequently drinking recruits who were drunk at least once a week ( $n = 430$ ) had more adjustment problems ( $F_{3, 1826} = 18.3$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ ;  $M = 3.5$ – $3.6$  vs.  $3.9$ – $4.0$ ) and weaker commitment to service ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ). Particularly, the heavy users (i.e. drinking alcohol at least twice a week) were different from recruits drinking 2–3 times a month or more seldom in their authority acceptance ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), physical health ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), and contemplation about the impact of service on their civilian life ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ). Interestingly, perceptions about training quality and challenge were linearly more positive the less frequently the recruit drank during BT (e.g. twice a week,  $M = 4.2$ ,  $n = 86$ ; once a week,  $M = 4.4$ ,  $n = 343$ ; twice a month  $M = 4.7$ ,  $n = 864$ ; and once a month or more seldom,  $M = 4.8$ ,  $n = 537$ ;  $F_{3, 1826} = 15.6$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ). Consequently, recruits drinking twice a week had less intentions to stay in the military than their counterparts who did not drink frequently (i.e. less than once a week,  $n = 1,400$ ) ( $F_{3, 1826} = 12.7$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 3.9$  vs.  $4.5$ ).

*Attitude towards drug use* was divided to three categories: positive ( $n = 224$ ), negative ( $n = 493$ ), and extremely negative ( $n = 1,114$ ). This classification had an even stronger linear

relation to adjustment experiences, attitudes, commitment, and motivation than drinking categories. The following differences in means were found between the groups: adjustment experiences ( $F_{2, 1828} = 39.4$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ ;  $M = 3.5 / 3.8 / 3.9$ ), intentions to stay in service ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ), acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ), and impact of service ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ). Soldiers having a negative or extremely negative attitude towards drugs ( $n = 1,607$ ) had also significantly better perceived physical health, less stressful life events in civilian life during BT, less avoidance of daily service, better relationships with their superiors, more positive atmosphere in the unit, and stronger group cohesion among peers. They were less often hazed by peers and more often highly motivated to complete their service obligation (all  $p < .05$ ).

Although alcoholism and drug addiction may be related to low abilities and perceptions of successful coping with new, stressful experiences, it was a surprise to find out that a *criminal record* was not negatively related to adjustment experiences during BT. In other words, the attitude towards drug and alcohol use more easily reveal people with ill-fated future than criminal offences (in terms of military adjustment). Still, there were significant differences between people who had three or more offences in their records ( $n = 117$ ) and those without recorded criminal past ( $n = 1,424$ ). For example, criminal recruits had more problems to obey orders, were not as emotionally stable or physically fit, and more likely to avoid service than recruits without criminal experiences.

Having enough accurate information about the forthcoming service was hypothesized to support the adjustment process. As a confirmation of this assumption, the results showed that recruits who reported to service with enough information (i.e. totally agree,  $n = 324$ ) also perceived more satisfying adjustment experiences ( $F_{3, 1827} = 18.1$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ ;  $M = 4.0$  vs.  $3.6-3.7$ ), were more committed to the military ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), had less considerations to drop out ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), and adjusted to regimentation more easily ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), had better social relations (in terms of group cohesion) ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), leaders ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), and unit climate and atmosphere ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ) than recruits who disagreed with or were not able to answer to this question ( $n = 788$ ;  $p < .001$ ). Additionally, recruits with enough pre-service information assessed service to have a less troublesome impact on their civilian life and were highly motivated to complete their service. However, it was a surprise to find that there were no differences in adjustment perceptions and commitment as a function of the source of information, although recruits who received the main bulk of information from the *To Become a Conscript* -booklet had slightly more positive (but insignificantly different) perceptions than others.

The conscript's orientation towards his or her service was the most influential individual pre-training predictor of military adjustment in BT. This kind of conclusion could be made on the basis of the examinations of the recruits' plans before service and their perceptions at the end of BT. Specially, the recruit's desire or plan about the upcoming duty and the length of the service period had a strong effect on several mean differences 7 weeks later (see the eta values in Table 16).

Table 16

*Differences of Means Based on the Recruits' Pre-Service Plans and Orientation*

Measures and Items	$F_{4, 1826}$	$\eta^2$	180 days no matter what	180 days, certain plans	270–362 days, rank and file	362 days, a leader
Military Adjustment	83.7	.15	3.4	3.7	4.0	4.2–4.3
Affective Commitment	176.7	.28	2.7	3.1	3.7	4.1–4.3
Intent to Stay	55.8	.11	4.0	4.2	4.6	— 4.8
Achievement Motivation	149.3	.25	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.2–4.5
Accept of Authority	89.6	.16	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.4–4.5
Adjustment to Regimentation	71.2	.13	2.4	— 2.7	3.0	3.3–3.4
Malingering	32.5	.07	4.4	4.6	4.8	— 4.9
I have felt at home in military service	91.0	.17	2.4	2.8	3.4	3.7–3.8
I am highly motivated to complete my military service	120.9	.21	2.7	3.0	3.6	4.1–4.2
<i>n</i> of the group			483	505	307	536

*Note.*  $n = 1,831$ ,  $p < .05$  in the Scheffe test. 173 of the recruits planned to be a squad leader, whereas 363 of the recruits cherished hopes of becoming a platoon leader. These two subgroups of leadership wishes were combined to form the last category.

In addition to the mean differences in the scales and items about adjustment, commitment and motivation, there were significant differences in the scales that measured situational and organizational experiences, such as training challenges ( $\eta^2 = .10$ ), unit climate and atmosphere ( $\eta^2 = .10$ ), and relationships with peers ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ) and leaders ( $\eta^2 = .07$ ). On the other hand and in terms of correlations, pretraining desires about service (at time 1) significantly related to BT adjustment experiences ( $r = .39^{***}$ ) and affective commitment ( $r = .52^{***}$ ). Moreover, the desires about duty and service period that were indicated at time 2 were strongly related to adjustment experiences ( $r = .48^{***}$ ), affective commitment ( $r = .60^{***}$ ), and intent to stay ( $r = .38^{***}$ ; for all  $n = 1,831$ ) at the end of BT.

As can be seen in Table 16, the relation between pre-training wishes of service and most of the BT items and measures is not entirely linear. Actually, there are three distinct groups of recruits. The first group of recruits did not care about the service duty but just wanted to keep their service period as short as possible. The second group consists of recruits who had some kind of an idea about their service and more information, but still wanted to spend the minimum period of time in the military. The largest group of recruits wanted to achieve and experience something in their service. They were willing to serve a longer period as a payoff of special or leadership training. Most likely they had high hopes about becoming a squad or even a platoon leader.

## 7.2.2 Predictors of Basic Training Adjustment

*Scale Correlations at the End of BT.* Appendix 9 (Table A9.2) shows the main correlations between the measures at time 2. *Military Adjustment* was strongly related to commitment ( $r = .65^{***}$ ) and obedience-related scales, such as *Acceptance of Authority* and *Regimentation* emphasizing the importance of positive attitude, adjustment to supervision, and learning the rudiments and routines of the military in BT (as also suggested in conscripts' adjustment stories in the Method section). *Intent to Stay* was mainly determined by commitment to conscript service ( $r = .54-.55^{***}$ ). On the other hand, those who were emotionally stable at the end of BT were also obedient ( $r = .47^{***}$ ) and social ( $r = .60^{***}$ ) and adjusted well to service ( $r = .52^{***}$ ). *Physical Health* was equally important for overall adjustment ( $r = .51^{***}$ ), as could be said about *Sociability* ( $r = .55^{***}$ ) as well. However, as mentioned above, *Acceptance of Authority* was the key element for successful adjustment ( $r = .69^{***}$ ), and in conscripts own terms: [adjustment is made easier when you] *do things that are ordered and expected* (see the Method section). Among situational adjustment factors, the main aspects that determined the responses to *Military Adjustment* were perceptions and experiences about *Regimentation*, training, and leadership (i.e. 25–41 % of the same variance between those measures and *Military Adjustment*). Surprisingly, the fourth area of situational experiences, namely social experiences (represented by the measures of group cohesion or lack of hazing) did not stand out as much as the above mentioned factors. Lastly, civilian stressful events during BT, such as quarrels with a girlfriend and lack of money, had the strongest correlation with *Military Adjustment* ( $r = .40^{***}$ ), indicating that civilian problems had a bearing on the overall adjustment to the military (Appendix 9).

*Background and Aptitude Predictors of BT Adjustment.* The recruits assessed their BT adjustment experiences in a questionnaire that was administered near the end of BT (i.e. time 2, during the 7<sup>th</sup> week of BT). First, the results of a linear regression using pretraining background and aptitude predictors were examined (Table 17). These variables explained 25 % of later adjustment. Among pre-training individual variables, the conscript's desire for duty and duration of service turned out to be even a better predictor of adjustment than in the time 1 models. Based on additional analyses, this request derived from expectations, attitude towards service, and commitment to serve in the military, thus referring to general orientation towards or against conscript service. Another important contributing set of variables in determining recruits' adjustment was the attitude towards military service of significant others (girlfriend and friends) and parents (perhaps including the idea of what kind of service period or duty a recruit should request). Three of the top four variables entered into the model were also the top predictors at time 1 when background and aptitude predictors were used (refer back to Table 11).

Table 17

*Background and Aptitude Predictors of Military Adjustment in Basic Training*

Background and Aptitude Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Desired duty and service period (time 1)	.27	.001	.39	.39	.15
2) Friends had a positive attitude towards service	.14	.001	.29	.44	.19
3) Aptitude test 2 (personality characteristics)	.17	.001	.31	.47	.22
4) Had no job; not in school (d)	-.10	.001	-.16	.48	.23
5) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.09	.001	-.07	.49	.24
6) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.10	.001	.26	.50	.25
7) Marital status	-.09	.001	-.10	.51	.25

Note.  $n = 1,134$ . (d) = A dummy variable. In the 13-item model,  $R = .53$ , and Adjusted  $R^2 = .27$ .

In addition to the above mentioned predictors, unemployment explained maladjustment in the military in this model. From another point of view, people who worked or studied before service got used to sufficient self-regulation and daily routines, and perhaps therefore adjusted better in the new organization. Interestingly, recruits whose home was located close to the training garrison (less than 7 miles; i.e. Hattula or Hämeenlinna) reported more problems in adjusting during BT than recruits living farther away. Based on the examination of mean differences, recruits whose home was close to the garrison had slightly more positive expectations before the service but less successful adjustment at service. Perhaps the knowledge that the grass is greener (i.e. life is less stressful outside the walls of the garrison) and even more that the safe home base was so close to the current stressful environment made BT more difficult to adjust for recruits whose home was nearby. As expected already before service by recruits having a close relationship in civilian life, they had more difficulties in their BT adjustment. Thus, being single would eliminate one “trouble” out of the way of successful military adjustment. The enhanced 13-variable model embraced also items of (a) stressful life events, such as sleeping disorders, loss of father, and being fired from a job, (b) physical condition (in terms of 12-minute run test), (c) intelligence (i.e. Aptitude test 1), and (d) attitudes towards drug use ( $R = .53$  and  $R^2 = .27$ ).

The socio-economic background and pre-military living situations were not important for understanding a conscript’s actual adjustment experiences at time 2. Similarly, some variables that were important for predicting attrition in earlier literature were not represented in the model for predicting adjustment; these were education success and experiences (e.g. education level, learning problems, and GPA at school). On the other hand, personality and leadership characteristics were highly useful in the military adjustment (i.e. Aptitude test 2,  $\beta = .17$ ,  $r = .31^{***}$ ). Also other aptitude scores that were assessed during the first weeks of the service were incorporated to the model (i.e. results of the cognitive and running tests). In other words, they were more predictive for actual adjustment at time 2 than adjustment expectations at time 1.

Although the model shows that BT adjustment is predicted by diverse predictors of competence, marital status, and stressful life events, the significance of personal commitment and friends’ attitudes is difficult to overestimate, as these two individual items explained almost 20 % of the BT adjustment experiences that should be more affected by situational and organizational factors, such as peers, leaders, climate, and training than by such attitudes.

Overall, the background and aptitude information explained a quarter of the phenomenon (as presented in Table 17) even before any considerations of situational adjustment factors. An alternative model was made that did not include the results of the 12-minute run, and Aptitude test 1 and 2 to examine all possible respondents at time 2. Essentially, the model was the same as the one presented above. The main difference was that once the running test results were removed, the frequency of exercising took its place as a predictor. Therefore, when the 12-minute run test scores were not acknowledged, the recruits' adjustment during BT could be assessed by acquiring information about their exercising in civilian life. The leading predictors were the same: desired service and friends' attitudes. Still, demographics, GPA at school, education level, criminal record, or socio-economic background were unimportant for the BT adjustment process, although they were emphasized in earlier literature.

*Pre-Training Predictors of Basic Training Adjustment Experiences.* Next, it was examined how much and by what variables BT adjustment was explained when the recruit's attitudinal starting point of service (i.e. the time 1 scales) was utilized on line with the background data. The expected adjustment (prior the entry) explained actual adjustment in the military most powerfully. Specifically, expected adjustment before service explained by itself 29 % of the adjustment perceptions at the end of BT. Also, adjustment at school was noticeably related to both adjustment expectations ( $r = .43^{***}$ ) and military adjustment in BT ( $r = .36^{***}$ ), and evidently it was a valuable predictor of adjustment, as suggested by Table 18. Personal commitment was another meaningful concept for predicting military adjustment. In the model, it was represented by desires for duty and service period and the scale about affective commitment. In fact, 37 % of BT adjustment was correctly explained by just utilizing the data of previous and expected adjustment, earlier commitment and duty-related desires, as well as the marital status of the recruit (Table 18). The enhanced model included altogether 13 items, such as service impact, distance from home, sociability, unemployment, parents' military attitudes, own positive expectations, relationships with parents, and frequency of exercising. Thus, parents' positive attitudes, the recruit's own positive expectations, and sociability further protect against maladjustment in BT (Appendix 8; Table A8.7).

Table 18

*Pre-Training Predictors (t1) of Military Adjustment in BT*

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Military Adjustment (S)	.37	.001	.54	.54	.29
2) Desired duty and service period (i)	.17	.001	.39	.58	.34
3) Adjustment at School (S)	.13	.001	.36	.60	.36
4) Marital status (i)	-.09	.001	-.11	.60	.36
5) Affective Commitment (S)	.11	.001	.43	.61	.37

*Note.*  $n = 1,810$ . (S) = A scale. (i) = An individual item. For the 13-item model,  $R = .62$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .39$ .

*All Predictors of BT Adjustment.* The above models dealt with pretraining predictors of adjustment. However, after the entry to the military, situational and organizational factors start to revise the expectations and previous attitudes of the conscript and create experiences that require coping and also determine further adjustment in the organization. Such experiences consist of living with peers and leaders, performing, training, and confronting military regimentation (which requires self-control and obedience). Thus, incidents among peers and leaders in the military organization directly, and also indirectly, influence adjustment by shaping the conscript's attitudes toward others and toward his or her service in general. Of interest was whether the background and aptitude items were more or less important compared to the conscript's experiences for explaining adjustment near the end of BT. This issue was tested by an explorative examination where the pre-training and BT predictors were included in the same analysis. In the model, BT experiences gained the victory over expectations and background items in the explanation of perceived BT adjustment. Specifically, recruits who (1) easily obeyed orders (as an example of *Acceptance of Authority*), (2) were at home in service, (3) perceived service to have no unfavorable impact on their civilian relationships, (4) were physically fit at the end of BT, (5) expected good personal adjustment prior entry, and (6) had firm intentions to stay in service, were people who had best adjustment experiences in BT ( $R = .82$  and  $R^2 = .67$ ;  $n = 1,803$ ). Besides attitudinal items, Marital Status was one of the few background variables which predicted actual adjustment to the military, although its values were low ( $\beta = -.04$ ,  $r = -.11$ ) compared to other measures. Furthermore, the regression model of BT experiences and prior service attitudes emphasized that a recruit needs positive expectations (of adjustment), commitment and sense of obligation, emotional stability, fine physical condition, social skills, ability to adjust to military regimentation, satisfactory relationships with the immediate leaders, support of positive climate, and support of the closest ones in civilian life in order to maximize adjustment success during BT.

Lastly, basic training adjustment was examined in the multiple regression analysis that comprised time 2 scales and considered personal and situational factors as predictors of adjustment. The resulting model shows that BT adjustment is strongly related to personal commitment, obligation to serve, and social, emotional, and physical abilities for the process. Among situational adjustment factors, the model brings up military regimentation and leadership as the two main concepts which require recruits' coping and its success. Regimentation in the military is unique compared to civilian experiences, and it is more stringent during BT than at later phases of service. Therefore, adjustment to regimentation also supports the start of the adjustment process in the military. Because the immediate leader is able to influence the pace and content of experiences both in training and off-duty time, the quality of leadership explains both positive and negative adjustment perceptions in BT.



Table 19  
*Predictor Scales ( $t_2$ ) of Military Adjustment Experiences in BT*

Predictor Scales	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$
Affective Commitment	.19	.001	.65
Normative Commitment	-.02	ns.	.50
Intent to Stay	.15	.001	.56
Emotional Stability	.08	.001	.53
Physical Health	.12	.001	.51
Sociability	.14	.001	.56
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Regimentation	.22	.001	.64
Peer Cohesion	-.02	ns.	.40
Experienced Hazing	.00	ns.	-.34
Leaders	.08	.001	.50
Organizational Climate	.06	.05	.57
Challenging and interesting training (i)	.03	ns.	.53
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Stressful Life Events	.07	.001	.40

Note.  $n = 1,812$ . (i) = An individual item.  $R = .79$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .62$ . Method = Enter. For all  $r$ ,  $p < .001$ .

The low (insignificant) beta values of peer cohesion ( $M = 3.9$ ,  $SD = .68$ ,  $n = 1,831$ ) and hazing ( $M = 4.4$ ,  $SD = .78$ ,  $n = 1,831$ ) are partly explained by observing the mean values of the scales. As already proposed by conscripts' adjustment stories (in the Method section), friends in the military could significantly support and create positive experiences that alleviate possible negative experiences. The mean values of these scales indicate that the majority of recruits were incorporated to a cohesive group where there was practically no hazing. In other words, there was less variance among these scales than for example in *Regimentation*. Although cohesion and lack of hazing were positively related to adjustment in general ( $r = .40^{***}$  and  $r = .34^{***}$ , respectively), there were some exceptions to this "rule" that complicated the picture. From another point of view, there were some recruits who were "too much" committed to the military and easily adjusted to regimentation and quickly formed "too positive" relationships with their superiors. Some of them felt to be more part of the military organization than part of their peer group, and they valued their group cohesion less and were more likely to be rejected among other recruits and even hazed by them. Thus, there were mixed effects of social factors that obscured their overall positive relationship with adjustment experiences, especially when all other measures were taken into account.

*What Differentiates BT Successful Adjustment and BT Maladjustment Experiences.* In order to examine what kind of predictors most effectively distinguished maladjustment from positive adjustment experiences in BT, the scale of *Military Adjustment* was divided to two parts: responses of 1.0 to 3.5 ( $n = 540$ ) and responses of 4.5 to 5.0 ( $n = 462$ ). As a result, adjustment experiences were distinguished by (a) the attitudes of the person and his or her friends and parents, (b) personality characteristics, (c) intelligence, (d) success at school, (e) physical condition, (f) marital status, and (g) items that indicated problems or marginalization of the person (such as unemployment, drug attitudes, and criminal record).

The comparison between the BT model and the corresponding model of expectations at time 1 showed that desired duty and service period and attitudes of friends were valuable predictors of adjustment perceptions, whereas sufficient prior information was not as crucial for BT adjustment. Success at school (i.e. GPA), marital status, unemployment, and criminal record were part of the model that distinguished maladjustment from successful adjustment, although they did not affect adjustment expectations prior to service. An alternative model with aptitude test results showed that Aptitude test 2 (about personality and social and leadership skills) was the second best discriminator, and also the results of the IQ-test were part of the model.

Table 20 lists all the scales and items that had more than a .10 correlation with the model that distinguished between bad and good adjustment experiences. All these measures and items were gathered prior to BT. The basic idea of reporting these items as a table was to portray variables that related to BT adjustment independently, in their relative order of importance. Based on the list of Table 20, a desire for service, obedience, commitment, adjustment at school, sociability, physical health, and friends' attitude affect later BT adjustment. In other words, whether the person was tuned to service in terms of positive attitudes and determination, combined with some personal abilities that support adjustment, such as adequate physical condition and abilities to form functioning social and authority relationships, governed his or her capabilities to cope with and adjust to military BT.

Apart from adjustment expectations (at time 1), BT adjustment was related to work and education history. However, age and gender were not meaningful for understanding actual adjustment, as was noticed already when adjustment expectations were examined. Generally, adjustment experiences had a broad relation to categories of personal background, in addition to strong link with personal attitudes and characteristics.

Table 20

*Pretraining Scales and Items that Effectively Discriminate Adjustment Experiences in BT*

Best Discriminators for Group Membership	<i>r</i> with the Model
1) Desired duty and service period	.69
2) Acceptance of Authority (S)	.65
3) Affective Commitment (S)	.65
4) Adjustment at School (S)	.59
5) Sociability (S)	.52
6) Physical Health (S)	.47
7) Intent to Stay (S)	.39
8) Friends had a positive attitude towards military service	.38
9) Frequency of exercising	.33
10) Emotional Stability (S)	.33
11) GPA at comprehensive school	.31
12) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.30
13) Graduated education level	.25
14) Frequency of drinking	-.24
15) Received enough information about conscription	.24
16) Conscript got along with parents	.24
17) Attitude towards drugs	-.23
18) Had learning problems at school	-.22
19) Did not know the father's rank (d)	-.18
20) Thinks drug tests should not be allowed (d)	-.18
21) Was charged with an offence as civilian	-.18
22) Had little money (d)	-.17
23) Was accused of a crime (d)	-.17
24) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-.16
25) Had lived with girlfriend or wife (d)	-.16
26) Had no job; not in school (d)	-.16
27) Had quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor (d)	-.15
28) Marital status	-.15
29) Will have a school where to study (d)	.13
30) Reported quarrels with girlfriend (d)	-.12
31) Had one or more loans	-.11

*Note.*  $n = 991$ . Variables are ordered by correlation with the discriminating model. (S) = A scale. (d) = Computed as a dummy variable. Box's  $M = 256.2$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilk's Lambda = .59; Eigenvalue = .69; Canonical Correlation = .64. 80.5 % of grouped cases were correctly classified.

Next, the BT responses were utilized to examine the impact of situational and organizational factors on diverse adjustment experiences. Table 21 shows the importance of successful adjustment to regimentation, commitment, and motivation to serve in enhancing adjustment during BT. The model also brings together civilian relationships, the quality of social relationships and leadership in the military, and personal physical condition as determinants of both maladjustment and satisfying adjustment experiences. As a conclusion, BT adjustment is established by the combination of (a) organizational experiences in military regime, training, and leadership, (b) personal factors, such as commitment, motivation, sociability, and physical health, and (c) the quality of civilian relationships during service.

Table 21

*BT Predictors that Discriminate Adjustment Experiences in BT*

Best Discriminators for Group Membership	Standardized Coefficients in the Model	<i>r</i> with the Model
1) Regimentation (S)	.40	.74
2) Affective Commitment (S)	.14	.68
3) Being highly motivated to complete the military service	.26	.67
4) Service Impact on Civilian Life (S)	.28	.55
5) Sociability (S)	.24	.51
6) Unit Climate (S)	-	.49
7) The training has been challenging and interesting (i)	-	.47
8) Leaders (S)	.12	.46
9) Normative Commitment (S)	-	.46
10) Physical Health (S)	.25	.45
11) Intent to Stay (S)	-	.42
12) Wish to participate in refresher training in a couple of years	-	.42
13) Emotional Stability (S)	-	.38
14) Peer Cohesion (S)	-	.36

*Note.*  $n = 991$ . Variables are ordered by stepwise inclusion in the model. - = not part of the discriminating model. Box's  $M = 312.7$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilk's Lambda = .31; Eigenvalue = 2.23; Canonical Correlation = .83; 92.3 % of grouped cases were correctly classified by this model.

### **7.2.3 The Relation of Basic Training Adjustment to Later Adjustment, Commitment, and Performance**

This section discusses whether BT adjustment explained later adjustment, attrition, commitment, malingering, personal performance, and deviance in service. The results show that one third of the later adjustment perceptions (i.e. 33.6 %) were explained by prior adjustment experiences in BT and military adjustment correlated with self-reported adjustment near the end of service at  $r = .58^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,651$ . In other words, positive experiences in BT adjustment support person in his or her later adjustment in the military.

After the BT period, 41 conscripts were discharged due to various reasons. The mean value of the *Military Adjustment* at the end of BT was 3.2 ( $SD = 1.07$ ) for the attrition group (of 41) compared to the mean of 3.9 ( $SD = .78$ ) for the group ( $n = 1,605$ ) that completed their military service. Similarly, conscripts who were discharged after BT had significantly more considerations of quitting their service already during BT (i.e. *Intent to Stay*,  $M = 3.6$ ) than those who completed their service ( $M = 4.5$ ). The above differences of means were significant ( $p < .001$ ). In other words, those in the drop-out group had significantly poorer adjustment experiences during BT and more expectations to quit than the other recruits. This was also examined by using logistic regression analysis where it was found that poor adjustment and considerations to quit (in BT) explained 9 % of later attrition. Particularly, recruits who had poorer scale value than others had a 1.66 risk to be discharged ( $p < .05$ ).

As suggested by the interviews, adjustment and commitment (i.e. reflected by positive attitude towards the military) support one another. However (based on results of regression analysis), it was noticed that commitment is more important for adjustment than vice versa.

Nevertheless, the relation between these two measures was strong at time 2 ( $r = .65^{***}$ ) and BT adjustment was also related to commitment at the end of service ( $r = .41^{***}$ ). Moreover, low commitment and adjustment problems exposed defensive coping strategies, such as deliberate avoidance of daily service. Avoidance of service by malingering was quite notably related to adjustment perceptions ( $r = .36^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,829$ ), and *Malingering* (although it was an unusual phenomenon during BT) happened if a recruit was not adjusted to service (i.e. the best predictor) ( $\beta = .21$ ), hazed by fellow group members ( $\beta = .21$ ), had a criminal record (i.e. offenses) ( $\beta = .14$ ), and was uncommitted to serve ( $\beta = .15$ ). Consequently, BT adjustment had an effect on the number of effective days the person participated in training during his or her conscript service ( $r = .24^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,830$ ).

Of interest was the detail that the extent to which military service was perceived to interfere with civilian issues influenced military adjustment. This finding suggests that recruits whose “home front” was secure and free from care could more easily focus on their *mêlée* with personal adjustment in the military. Service was sensed to have a negative impact on civilian matters if the recruit was not adjusted to service (i.e. again it was the best predictor) ( $\beta = .28$ ), had had a stressful life event in civilian life during BT ( $\beta = .26$ ), was unadjusted to regimentation ( $\beta = .23$ ), and if the girlfriend or friends had negative attitudes toward the military service ( $\beta = .11$ ). Altogether, the relation between BT adjustment and civilian impact on service was strong (t2:  $r = .56^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,831$ ), and BT adjustment affected also later perceptions about the service impact (t3:  $r = .31^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,651$ ).

The importance of successful adjustment to BT is further valuable to the extent that adjustment experiences predict performance during military service. The military performance was rated by the conscripts’ instructors near the end of service. BT adjustment correlated with the later instructor-rated conscript performance at  $r = .30^{***}$  ( $n = 1,768$ ), and the conscripts’ own perceived performance (i.e. self-efficacy) at  $r = .32^{***}$  ( $n = 1,546$ ). Although the relation was moderate, it suggested that successful military adjustment supports personal performance in the military. Of interest was that a recruit who successfully adjusted to the military during BT was more likely selected as the leader of the group at the end of service (when peers were able to nominate their own leader) ( $r = .18^{***}$ ;  $n = 379$ ).

## **7.3 Military Adjustment at the End of Service**

### **7.3.1 Personal Background Variables and their Association with Military Adjustment at the End of Service**

According to the personal background information, there were significant differences in adjustment experiences and commitment. Still, demographics were not the most important items explaining differences in adjustment, and there were no significant differences in later adjustment due to the variability of *age*. However, 18-year-old recruits ( $n = 37$ ) had significantly lower achievement motivation, acceptance of authority, performance ratings and more malingering than 20-year-olds and older recruits at the end of service ( $n = 1,231$ ;  $p < .05$ ). There were also some group differences based on *gender*: 22 women adjusted better to the military, had more friends, stronger affective commitment, and more confidence in instructors than 1,638 men on average ( $p < .05$ ). The extent to which women maintained

their motivation to serve was notably better compared to men. In addition, women were more eager to serve in refresher training after their service than men ( $F_{1, 1658} = 10.7, \eta^2 = .01; M = 3.6$  vs.  $2.5, p < .001$ ).

The *intelligence* level of the conscript was also related to his or her adjustment success, commitment, mental and physical well-being, and achievements in service. The four different intelligence groups (a) 1–2 ( $n = 176$ ), (b) 3–4 ( $n = 440$ ), (c) 5–6 ( $n = 703$ ), and (d) 7–9 ( $n = 334$ ) had all their attitudes, perceptions, and performance ratings in this order. For example, group 1–2 had significantly more unpleasant perceptions about their adjustment than other groups ( $F_{3, 1649} = 21.0, \eta^2 = .04; M = 3.6$  vs.  $3.8$ – $4.1$ ), although the relation was not linear. The sociability and physical health of the person were crucially poorer if the intelligence was less than category 3, whereas other characteristics of the person had a demarcation between groups of 1–4 and 5–9. For example, recruits with a moderate or high intelligence level (i.e. 5–9), accepted authority ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ), and adjusted to regimentation more easily ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), had stronger achievement motivation ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ), and more positive experiences in service ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ) than recruits with the intelligence level of 1 to 4 (all  $p < .05$ ).

*Social and leadership aptitude* was categorized in groups 0 ( $n = 288$ ), 2 ( $n = 171$ ), 4 ( $n = 514$ ), and 6 ( $n = 133$ ). Mostly, the zero group was significantly different from 2 and 4, which were, in turn, dissimilar to 6 (Table 22). The eta values show that measured personality and leadership characteristics had meaningful links to personal well-being and success in social and authority relationships. Particularly, these results showed how useful this aptitude test is for predicting differences in conscripts' *Emotional Stability* at the end of service.

Table 22  
*Differences of Means Based on the Recruits' Aptitude Test 2 Results*

Measures	$F_{3, 1102}$	$\eta^2$	Zero	2 to 4	Six
Military Adjustment	42.1	.10	3.5	4.0	4.3
Intent to Stay	29.1	.07	3.7	4.3	4.6
Emotional Stability	62.1	.14	3.6	4.2–4.3	4.6
Physical Health	33.2	.08	3.7	4.2	4.5
Sociability	39.1	.10	3.9	4.3–4.4	4.6
Acceptance of Authority	41.7	.10	3.4	3.7–3.9	4.2
Adjustment to Regimentation	40.0	.10	2.6	2.9–3.2	3.4
Experienced Hazing (revised)	23.2	.06	3.5	3.9	4.2
<i>n</i> of the group			288	685	133

Note.  $n = 1,106, p < .05$  in the Scheffe test.

A recruit who had a *grade point average* between 4 and 7 at school was in a risk to have significantly ( $p < .05$ ) poorer adjustment in the military compared to others with a GPA of 7

to 10 ( $F_{7,1652} = 13.4, \eta^2 = .05; M = 3.4\text{--}3.7$  vs.  $3.9\text{--}4.2$ ). Furthermore, the GPA systematically ranked conscripts in terms of their sociability ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ), acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .09$ ), achievement motivation ( $\eta^2 = .08$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ), and physical health ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ). The highest *education level* also separated people in terms of their adjustment experiences. Specifically, conscripts who had only completed the comprehensive school adjusted significantly ( $p < .05$ ) poorer to the military ( $F_{7,1652} = 18.9, \eta^2 = .03; M = 3.7$  vs.  $4.1$ ) and its regimentation ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ). Similarly, those who had *learning problems* at school ( $n = 287$ ) had more adjustment problems in the military ( $F_{1,1657} = 36.4, \eta^2 = .02; M = 3.6$  vs.  $4.0, p < .001$ ) compared to other conscripts ( $n = 1,372$ ). Actually, learning problems separated conscripts in all adjustment-related factors. In other words, a conscript without problems at school more likely accepted authority, adjusted to regimentation, had good relationships with peers and leaders, was not hazed, had less considerations to quit, and better mental and physical health than his or her mates who had learning problems at school (all  $p < .001$ ).

Differences in *work history* had some reflections on the military experiences. Being unemployed just before service ( $n = 359$ ) meant significantly ( $p < .05$ ; but not drastically) poorer military adjustment ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), commitment ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), motivation ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), and physical health ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) at the end of service compared to people who either worked or studied before service. However, conscripts who were *fired* from work ( $n = 59$ ) did not consistently differ from others in their adjustment experiences in the military, although they were slightly more unstable and not as ready to accept authority as other conscripts ( $p < .05$ ). Overall, work history was not as clearly related to military experiences as education history.

The socio-economic situation determined some part of adjustment success in the military at the end of service. Conscripts with *loans* before service ( $n = 386$ ) were less adjusted to the military ( $F_{1,1658} = 14.9, \eta^2 = .01; M = 3.8$  vs.  $4.0$ ) or to regimentation ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) and had not as good mental and physical well-being as others ( $n = 1,274$ , all  $p < .001$ ). Similarly, conscripts who had *little or no money* before service ( $n = 757$ ) had less favorable perceptions about their adjustment ( $F_{1,1658} = 12.2, \eta^2 = .01; M = 3.9$  vs.  $4.0$ ) than those with some money ( $n = 903$ ). Moreover, lack of money stood out as less positive attitudes towards obedience and authority ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), more considerations to quit ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), and poorer mental and physical well-being at the end of service (all  $p < .001$ ). Contrary to the results of the economic situation, *sharing living costs* at home ( $n = 337$ ) did not show any impact on adjustment experiences in the military.

The civilian social situation and background had bearing on adjustment experiences at the end of military service. For example, the person had not as positive perceptions about his or her adjustment than others if his or her *father had died* ( $n = 79$ ) ( $F_{1,1658} = 5.2, \eta^2 = .00; M = 3.7$  vs.  $3.9, p < .05$ ). However, there were no differences in the means as a function of a loss of mother. The importance of the father came out in the item about his rank. Basically, a conscript who did not know his father's rank ( $n = 498$ ) adjusted less to the military ( $F_{3,1644} = 13.6, \eta^2 = .02; M = 3.8$  vs.  $4.1, p < .001$ ), its regimentation ( $\eta^2 = .03, p < .001$ ), group cohesion ( $\eta^2 = .01, p < .01$ ), and conscript leaders ( $\eta^2 = .02, p < .001$ ) than conscripts whose father was at least a corporal ( $n = 442$ ). The same comparison revealed that the conscript (who did not know his or her father's rank) had weaker affective commitment as well as

mental and physical well-being (all,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Coming from a *broken family* (due to a divorce of parents,  $n = 399$ ) was visible in the conscript's perceptions at the end of service. A person whose parents had divorced was less adjusted ( $F_{1, 1658} = 5.9$ ,  $\eta^2 = .00$ ;  $M = 3.8$  vs.  $4.0$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and committed to the military, did not accept authority, and had not as good mental and physical well-being than others ( $n = 1,261$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Especially, conscripts from a broken family had significantly more considerations to quit than their peers ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ,  $p < .001$ ). As opposed to the above, *living at home* ( $n = 1,180$ ) appeared later as more positive adjustment and intentions to stay in the military ( $p < .05$ ). On the other hand, *quarrels at home* ( $n = 670$ ) reduced mental and physical well-being during service ( $p < .05$ ) without having an effect on military adjustment and experiences.

*Living with a girl- or boyfriend* ( $n = 143$ ) may have meant more obligations in civilian life during service which, in turn, complicated the situation in military adjustment. This was indicated by the results that showed slightly less successful adjustment among them than others ( $F_{1, 1658} = 5.1$ ,  $\eta^2 = .00$ ;  $M = 3.8$  vs.  $3.9$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Similarly, *quarrels with a girl- or boyfriend* prior to service ( $n = 464$ ) materialized in the mean values of *Military Adjustment* even at the end of service ( $F_{1, 1658} = 5.4$ ,  $\eta^2 = .00$ ;  $M = 3.9$  vs.  $4.0$ ,  $p < .05$ ). On the other hand, if the conscript had ended a relationship prior to service ( $n = 395$ ), he or she had more time and opportunities to invest in social relationships in the military. Perhaps therefore the conscript was better incorporated into the group (i.e. group cohesion) ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ,  $p < .001$ ), had more friends ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and more positive experiences in the military ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ,  $p < .01$ ). *Marital status* tidily summarizes the effect of dating on the military experiences. For example, married soldiers ( $n = 66$ ) valued their military adjustment as less successful than single soldiers ( $n = 948$ ) ( $F_{3, 1656} = 4.4$ ,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs.  $4.0$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and those who were dating before service ( $n = 536$ ) perceived the military to have an adverse impact on civilian relationships than single soldiers ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The main communality appeared in items of the socio-economic situation. If the person had loans, lack of money, a shared living costs, lived outside home, had quarrels at home or with a girl- or boyfriend, came from a broken family, or dated before service, he or she experienced more stressful (civilian) events during the past four months of service (all  $p < .001$ ). In other words, without social or economic problems the conscript found it more pleasant to serve in the military.

*Physical exercise* before service bore fruit even at the end of service. Conscripts who exercised more than once a week ( $n = 767$ ) adjusted more easily to the military ( $F_{4, 1645} = 9.5$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 4.0$  vs.  $3.7$ ), accepted authority ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), adjusted to regimentation ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), were more committed ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), had stronger achievement motivation ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), were emotionally stable ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), and physically fit ( $\eta^2 = .07$ ). Similarly, actual *physical condition* (as measured by the 12-minute run test in the early days of service) was also related to better adjustment experiences at the end of service. For example, conscripts who run less than 2,000 meters ( $n = 107$ ) rated their military adjustment as lower than their peers who run 2,600 meters or more ( $n = 488$ ) ( $F_{6, 1558} = 5.3$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ;  $M = 3.7$  vs.  $4.1$ – $4.2$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Although physical condition had a same kind of impact on the measures of authority acceptance ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ), intentions to stay ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ), regimentation ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), and emotional stability ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), the most noteworthy effect was on *Physical Health* at the end of service ( $F_{6, 1558} = 39.9$ ,  $\eta^2 = .13$ ;  $M = 3.4$  vs.  $4.5$ – $4.7$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Overall, physical exercising and fitness support adjustment to the military.



Deviance in civilian life was indicated by quarrels with a teacher or a boss, frequency of drinking alcohol, attitude towards drug use, and marks in a criminal record. First of all, *quarrels with a teacher or a boss* ( $n = 203$ ) came out in lower perceptions of adjustment ( $F_{1, 1658} = 29.7, \eta^2 = .02; M = 3.6$  vs. 4.0), sociability ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), and acceptance of authority ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ). Those who quarreled were more likely hazed and less likely committed to service. They valued their group cohesion less, were emotionally more unstable, and in poorer physical health than their counterparts ( $n = 1,457$ , all  $p < .001$ ). Basically, the same differences were noticed between people who drank often (at least two times a week,  $n = 77$ ) and those who drank moderately (2–3 times a month or more seldom,  $n = 795$ ). Thus, *drinking* was often shown in poorer military adjustment at the end of service ( $F_{3, 1655} = 13.5, \eta^2 = .02; M = 3.5$  vs. 4.0) as well as less flourishing authority relations and poorer mental and physical health in general (all  $p < .001$ ).

The *attitude towards drug use* was divided to three categories: positive ( $n = 192$ ), negative ( $n = 443$ ), and extremely negative ( $n = 1,025$ ). Conscripts with positive drug attitudes were less sociable ( $\eta^2 = .02, p < .001$ ), had fewer friends ( $\eta^2 = .01, p < .01$ ), were more hazed ( $\eta^2 = .01, p < .05$ ), more unstable ( $\eta^2 = .02, p < .001$ ) and less physically fit ( $\eta^2 = .02, p < .001$ ) than all the other conscripts. In addition, conscripts with positive drug attitudes had lower perceptions about their adjustment to the military ( $F_{2, 1657} = 33.1, \eta^2 = .03; M = 3.6$  vs. 3.8–4.1) than the others. A *criminal record* was not as broadly related to time 3 measures as drinking and drug attitudes. Actually, those with a criminal record were not different from other in terms of social adjustment and relationships in the military (as were those who favored drugs). However, for example having three or more offenses in the records ( $n = 106$ ) meant that the person was more likely (a) not to accept authority, (b) to consider quitting, (c) was emotionally unstable, and (d) was poorer in physical condition than conscripts without any offenses ( $n = 1,293$ , all  $p < .05$ ). Moreover, people with offenses (e) had poorer adjustment experiences at the end of service ( $F_{2, 1657} = 6.8, \eta^2 = .01; M = 3.7$  vs. 4.0).

The last sector of the background and pretraining perceptions dealt with *prior information* about training and conscripts' orientation towards service. First of all, conscripts' perceptions at the end of service did not differ as a function of the source of information prior to service, whereas adequate information appeared to be important for a successful adjustment process in the military. Specifically, conscripts who perceived that they did not receive enough information before service or were not able to say it (options of 1–3 in the Likert scale) felt at the end of service that they were less adjusted ( $F_{3, 1656} = 11.8, \eta^2 = .02; M = 3.8$  vs. 4.1,  $p < .001$ ) and committed to the military ( $F_{3, 1656} = 9.9, \eta^2 = .02; M = 3.0$ –3.2 vs. 3.5,  $p < .01$ ), less motivated, emotionally stable, and physically fit and more ready to disregard orders than conscripts who had received enough information (i.e. totally agree;  $n = 301$ ).

As indicated in at the section about BT adjustment, pretraining orientation towards service in terms of desired military training and duration of service partly determined conscripts' approach to military experiences and success in the adjustment process. The same was evident even several months later. Table 23 discloses the importance of positive orientation towards the organizational experiences. Expressly, conscripts who wished to become a squad or platoon leader and to achieve something in their service had totally different social, emotional, physical, and leadership experiences and perceptions at the end of service than their peers who just wished to get out of there as soon as possible. In other words, these two

groups were completely different from each other in their dissimilar (a) commitment, (b) personal abilities and characteristics, and (c) situational and organizational experiences at the end of conscript service.

Table 23

*Differences of Means Based on the Recruits' Pre-Service Orientation and Plans*

Measures and Items at the End of Service	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	Desire for 6 months' duration of service	Desire for 12 months' leadership training
Military Adjustment	33.2	.07	3.7–3.8	4.2–4.3
Intent to Stay	25.5	.06	3.9–4.1	4.5–4.6
Affective Commitment	79.1	.16	2.8–3.0	3.8–3.9
Achievement Motivation	58.5	.12	3.3–3.4	3.9–4.1
Emotional Stability	16.3	.04	4.0–4.1	4.4
Physical Health	20.0	.05	3.9–4.1	4.3–4.4
Sociability	17.6	.04	4.1–4.2	4.5
Acceptance of Authority	44.9	.10	3.5–3.6	4.1–4.2
Regimentation	33.5	.07	2.9	3.3–3.4
Friends	14.8	.03	3.4–3.6	3.9
Peer Cohesion	18.9	.04	3.5–3.6	3.8–3.9
Conscript Leaders	19.5	.04	3.5–3.6	3.8–3.9
Appraisal about Training Quality	14.4	.04	2.9–3.0	3.3–3.4
Positive Experiences	37.4	.09	3.4–3.5	4.0–4.1
If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms (i)	15.5	.04	4.0–4.2	4.5–4.6
I have felt at home in military service (i)	29.0	.07	2.5–2.8	3.3–3.4
I was highly motivated to complete my military service (i)	39.7	.09	2.7–3.0	3.6–3.7
I would have joined the military if serving had been on a voluntary basis (i)	61.4	.14	2.3–2.5	3.5–3.6

*Note.* Before service, 892 conscripts desired to be selected to serve 6 months service, whereas 494 people wished to be selected for leadership training.  $p < .05$  in the Scheffe test. (i) = An individual item.

### **7.3.2 Predictors of Military Adjustment at the End of Service**

*Scale Correlations at the End of Service.* A questionnaire measuring the conscript's reported adjustment was administered near the end 6 and 12 months of conscript training (i.e. time 3). An additional official military questionnaire was also administered, from which further data about training, leadership, and group cohesion were drawn. Based on the correlations between the main adjustment measures, it was perceived that social ( $r = .66^{***}$ ), physically fit ( $r = .60^{***}$ ), and committed ( $r = .51^{***}$ ) conscripts who accepted authority ( $r = .59^{***}$ ) adjusted to the military at the end of service. *Intent to Stay* was, in turn, related to adjustment experiences ( $r = .51^{***}$ ), normative commitment ( $r = .51^{***}$ ), and emotional stability ( $r = .48^{***}$ ) of the recruit. *Affective Commitment* was solidly related to acceptance of authority ( $r = .53^{***}$ ) and adjustment to regimentation ( $r = .49^{***}$ ) in addition to strong relation with *Normative Commitment* ( $r = .61^{***}$ ). Interestingly, *Emotional Stability* had many equal correlates, for example with sociability and acceptance of authority (both,  $r = .48^{***}$ ), and

perhaps therefore it was related to social experiences in the military, such as hazing ( $r = .46^{***}$ ) and cohesion ( $r = .41^{***}$ ). *Emotional Stability* was also related to the extent the person valued his or her adjustment or considered to quit (both,  $r = .48^{***}$ ). The two main correlates of physical adjustment were overall military adjustment ( $r = .60^{***}$ ) and social adjustment ( $r = .55^{***}$ ). On the other hand, the two main correlates of social adjustment (i.e. *Sociability*) were the overall adjustment ( $r = .66^{***}$ ) and *Physical Health* ( $r = .55^{***}$ ). As expected, *Acceptance of Authority* had 26 % of the same variance with adjustment to regimentation ( $r = .51^{***}$ ), and it was also highly related to perceptions of overall military adjustment ( $r = .59^{***}$ ) (see Table A9.3; Appendix 9).

*Background and Aptitude Predictors.* The examination of predictors starts from the effect of background information on later adjustment perceptions. In a regression analysis (with the forward method) the following five background and aptitude variables explained 20 % of adjustment variance at the end of service. Whether friends had positive attitudes toward service determined more than any other background information the conscript's adjustment experiences in service ( $\beta = .23, r = .31^{***}$ ). The conscripts' tested social and leadership skills were the second best predictors of time 3 adjustment ( $\beta = .16, r = .30^{***}$ ), and the desired duty and service period was in the third place in the model ( $\beta = .12, r = .28^{***}$ ). Whether the conscript had a positive attitude towards drug use was negatively related to later adjustment experiences and it was the fourth predictor in the model ( $\beta = -.13, r = -.22^{***}$ ), and the fifth was the education level ( $\beta = .10, r = .21^{***}$ ).

In addition to the above variables, the enhanced model included variables that were negatively related to adjustment, such as a close distance to home, quarrels with a teacher or a boss, and marital status, and also items that positively explained adjustment success, such as a loss of mother, parents' positive attitude towards service, and experiences in many jobs (i.e. 6 to 8). This enhanced model explained 23 % of the variance. Again an alternative model was derived that did not include aptitude measures in order to enlarge the considered sample. Eight of the eleven items were the same and three of the first four items remained in the same order in these two models. The GPA at school took the place of Aptitude test 2 as the second best predictor. The other new items were about the extent of received information prior to service and attitude towards drug tests in the military. Altogether the background items explained correctly 19 % of the variance at the end of service when the aptitude records were not utilized.

*Pre-Training Attitudes and Other Predictors of End of Service Adjustment.* Next, it was tested which pretraining attitudes and background items predicted adjustment at the end of service. The importance of different kinds of predictors in terms of adjustment categories and whether they were attitudinal scales or individual background items was clarified. Table 24 shows that self-efficacy of adjustment prior to service (i.e. adjustment expectations) and adjustment experiences at school were the best pretraining predictors of military adjustment (6 or 12 months later). The model also highlights the value of positive experiences and success at school (i.e. measures of adjustment, graduation, and GPA), positive attitudes towards the military (i.e. personal affective commitment and friends' attitudes), and the integration of the person into the society (and feeling part of it); items that together explained a quarter of end-of-service adjustment. The main categories of background items predicting adjustment at the end of service were education history (i.e. graduation level and GPA) and social background (e.g. attitudes of friends and marital status).

Table 24

*Pre-Training Predictors (t1) of Military Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service*

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Military Adjustment (S)	.22	.001	.41	.41	.16
2) Adjustment in Schooling (S)	.11	.001	.35	.46	.21
3) Affective Commitment (S)	.15	.001	.37	.48	.23
4) Graduated education level	.08	.01	.18	.49	.24
5) Friends had a positive attitude towards service	.10	.001	.29	.50	.25
6) GPA at comprehensive school	.07	.01	.22	.50	.25
7) I do not feel a part of this society (system)	.07	.01	.26	.51	.25
8) Marital status	-.06	.01	-.09	.51	.26
9) Attitude towards drugs	-.05	.05	-.20	.51	.26
10) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.04	.05	-.04	.51	.26
11) Got along with parents	-.05	.05	.11	.51	.26

Note.  $n = 1,640$ . (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. For the 11-item model,  $R = .51$  and  $R^2 = .26$ .

When BT experiences were combined with the data from prior service, this particular model pointed out that personal traits for successful military adjustment include a positive effect on military obligation (i.e. want and commitment to serve), sociability and compliance, and adjustment to fast pace and regimentation and a personal effect on leaders. Interestingly, after knowing the person's sociability, the actual relationships with the group members did not explain adjustment (as indicated by the non-significant values of peer cohesion and hazing). Overall, 32 % of later adjustment was predetermined by adjustment-related pretraining attitudes and BT experiences.

The next phase after the examination of background items focused on measures of attitudes and experiences before and during BT. First, a model was made by taking into account the prior adjustment experiences and perceptions. The results showed that all three factors of adjustment explained later military adjustment individually and significantly ( $p < .001$ ). Specifically, adjustment expectation prior to service ( $\beta = .09$ ,  $r = .41^{***}$ ), adjustment experiences at school ( $\beta = .14$ ,  $r = .35^{***}$ ) and adjustment in BT ( $\beta = .48$ ,  $r = .58^{***}$ ) determined 37 % of adjustment perceptions at the end of service ( $n = 1,647$ ). Thus, a substance of the success or failure in the later adjustment process could be understood based on the prior adjustment experiences.

*All Predictors.* By the end of the conscript training period, it was expected that the actual experiences of the conscripts (e.g. living with peers and leaders, obeying orders, and performing in training as they affect the attitudinal scales) would be the primary influence on conscript adjustment. Of interest was whether the background items would continue to have some importance in explaining adjustment. This issue is portrayed in Table 25, which shows the results of a multiple regression that included background variables and time 1–3 attitudinal scales to predict adjustment at time 3. The time 3 attitudinal scales reflecting the conscript's experiences during military training were the dominant predictors. Only few other items were included in the 12-item model which explained 70 % of the variance in the reported adjustment near the end of conscript training, and they were about (unsatisfying)

relationships with a girl- or boyfriend that interfered with military service. The same five scales that were presented in the models described above were the dominant predictors: (1) social adjustment, (2) previous adjustment experiences, (3) adjustment to regimentation, (4) physical adjustment, and (5) commitment to the military.

Table 25

*Predictors (t1–t3) of Military Adjustment at the End of Service*

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	<i>p</i> of $\beta$	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i>	Adj. $R^2$
1) Sociability (t3)	.35	.001	.67	.67	.45
2) Military Adjustment (t2)	.30	.001	.61	.76	.58
3) Regimentation (t3)	.14	.001	.53	.79	.62
4) Physical Health (t3)	.25	.001	.60	.81	.65
5) Affective Commitment (t3)	.07	.05	.50	.82	.67

*Note.*  $n = 932$  (i.e. aptitude measures were included). For the overall 12-item model,  $R = .84$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .70$ .

Although aptitude measures were available for the analysis, they contributed little for explaining end-of-service adjustment. Over time, Aptitude test 1 (IQ) had a minimal correlation with *Military Adjustment* ( $r = .11^{***}$ ,  $.23^{***}$ , and  $.19^{***}$  at time 1, 2, and 3 respectively;  $n = 1,653$ ). The 12-minute run test was also a slight correlate of *Military Adjustment* ( $r = .10^{***}$ ,  $.16^{***}$ , and  $.14^{***}$  at time 1, 2, and 3;  $n = 1,565$ ). Although Aptitude test 2 (personality and leadership characteristics) was more strongly correlated with *Military Adjustment* ( $r = .29^{***}$ ,  $.32^{***}$ , and  $.31^{***}$  at time 1, 2, and 3;  $n = 1,106$ ), it still was not strong enough for inclusion in the models when other predictors were considered.

*Time 3 Main Measures.* The examination of experiences at the end service demonstrated that end-of-service adjustment was mainly influenced by commitment, few considerations of quitting, good mental and physical health, and sociability. Positive expectations in satisfying unit climate and regimentation further supported the adjustment process. The importance of secure and carefree civil relationships for adjustment was visible in the analysis in the way that personal civilian things and stressful events in civilian life (e.g. relationship that had ended or financial problems) could decrease motivation to serve and complicate adjustment in the military (Table 26). Although having friends and a good peer cohesion were positively related to adjustment ( $r = .27^{***}$  and  $r = .38^{***}$ , respectively), the beta values showed a complicated, nonlinear picture of those relations. This result indicates that having friends helped to cope with the stressful aspects of the military and therefore conscripts with friends experienced positive adjustment in service, and conscripts with adjustment problems had friends who helped to meet the military demands.

Table 26

*Predictor Scales (t3) of Military Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service*

Predictor Scales	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$
Affective Commitment	.11	.001	.50
Normative Commitment	.04	ns.	.41
Intent to Stay	.09	.001	.46
Emotional Stability	.04	.05	.48
Physical Health	.21	.001	.60
Sociability	.42	.001	.68
Regimentation	.17	.001	.50
Peer Cohesion	-.07	.001	.38
Friends	-.04	.05	.27
Experienced Hazing	-.03	ns.	-.33
Confidence in Squad Leaders	.02	ns.	.27
Confidence in Platoon Leaders	.02	ns.	.25
Confidence in Instructors	.01	ns.	.20
Unit Climate	.07	.001	.35
Positive Experiences	.04	.05	.37
Training Information and Feedback	-.02	ns.	.24
Training Quality	.02	ns.	.28
Stressful Life Events	.06	.001	.24
Personal civilian things decreased my motivation*	-.06	.001	-.14

Note.  $n = 1,513$ .  $R = .81$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .65$ . Method = Enter. For all  $r$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Perhaps the most surprising finding concerned the situational and institutional adjustment factors of leadership and training. It was notable how instructors were unimportant for conscripts' adjustment. The results suggest that they neither destroyed the conscripts' adjustment process nor sustained it. From the conscripts' point of view, the instructors were meaningless in supporting personal adjustment to the military. These findings could be explained if the instructors did not pay attention to conscripts' adjustment after BT. Another explanation could be that the intentional or accidental effects of training and leadership on the adjustment process were diverse and mixed.

*Factors and Variables that Discriminate Adjustment Experiences.* The values of *Military Adjustment* were split to two groups: responses of 1.0 to 3.5 ( $n = 449$ ) and responses of 4.5 to 5.0 ( $n = 554$ ). These opposite parts of the scale represented insufficient and satisfying adjustment during the last months of service. Table 27 presents the background information that predicted group membership in the poles of adjustment. The model with the aptitude test results was selected for presentation due to the fact that aptitude tests were more and more useful for understanding adjustment in the course of time. Thus, both personality characteristics and intelligence were among the best predictors. On the other hand, conscripts' preservice desires for service and the attitudes of their friends were prominent predictors of adjustment from the beginning of service till the end of it. Other items that explained why somebody had either positive or negative adjustment experiences at the end of service were drug attitudes, received information, (too close) distance to home, and marital status. There were also items which were in relation to the model but did not improve prediction of the membership once the above mentioned items were controlled. These items dealt with, for

example, parents' attitudes and relationships with them, educational history (e.g. GPA and education level), and frequency of exercising. As noticed in the equivalent models in BT, also the extent of later adjustment success was predicted by a multi-faceted mix of personal abilities, own and friends' attitudes and desires, deviating attitudes and behavior, education history, the quality and character of civilian relationships, and personal habits (of drinking and exercising).

Table 27

*Background Items that Discriminate Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service*

Best Discriminators for Group Membership	Standardized Coefficients	<i>r</i> with the Model
1) Aptitude test 2 (leadership and social skills)	.39	.61
2) Friends had a positive attitude towards military service	.42	.60
3) Desired duty and service period	.26	.52
4) Aptitude test 1 (IQ-test)	.24	.42
5) Attitude towards drugs	-.28	-.40
6) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	-	.38
7) GPA at comprehensive school	-	.36
8) Frequency of exercising	-	.31
9) Conscript got along with parents	-	.29
10) Graduated education level	-	.27
11) Thought drug tests should not be allowed (d)	-	-.26
12) Received enough information about conscription	.17	.26
13) Frequency of drinking	-	-.22
14) Had learning problems at school	-	-.21
15) Did not know the father's rank (d)	-	-.20
16) Was accused of a crime (d)	-	-.20
17) Parents had divorced (d)	-	-.19
18) Charged with offence as a civilian	-	-.18
19) Age	-	.18
20) 12-minute run	-	.17
21) I will have a school where to study (d)	-	.17
22) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.24	-.17
23) Marital status	-.19	-.17
24) Had little money (d)	-	-.17
25) Had quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor (d)	-	-.16
26) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-	-.15
27) Had no job; not in school (d)	-	-.15
28) Mother had died (d)	.19	.15
29) Reported quarrels with girlfriend (d)	-	-.13
30) Had lived with girlfriend or wife (d)	-	-.13
31) Had a criminal record (d)	-	-.12
32) Reported quarrels at home (d)	-	-.12
33) Had had 6 to 8 jobs (d)	.15	.12

*Note.*  $n = 632$ . Variables are ordered by stepwise inclusion in the model. (d) = computed as a dummy variable. - = not part of the best discriminating model. Box's  $M = 515.0$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilk's Lambda = .71; Eigenvalue = .42; Canonical Correlation = .54; 73.1 percent of original grouped cases were correctly classified by this model.

Table 28 presents a model where pretraining attitudes, perceptions, and personal background were incorporated for the prediction of an adjustment letdown and success. Compared to the corresponding table at time 2, six of the first eight items remained the same, and basically the first twelve items were the same, only in a slightly different order. Prior request of training was the first item in the model at time 2, whereas by the end of service it was not as salient as other scales and items. This was understandable, since the decision for duty and the duration of service took place at the end of BT when the time 2 questionnaire was also filled in. Altogether, the model tells a coherent story: preservice commitment, obedience, and social abilities predict military adjustment even at the end of service. Furthermore, prior adjustment experiences and success at school and friends' attitudes influence adjustment to the military experiences.

Table 28

*Pretraining Scales and Items that Discriminate Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service*

Best Discriminators for Group Membership	Standardized Coefficients	<i>r</i> with the Model
1) Acceptance of Authority (S)	.24	.71
2) Affective Commitment (S)	.38	.71
3) Adjustment at School (S)	.27	.64
4) Sociability (S)	.30	.57
5) Friends had a positive attitude towards military service	.18	.54
6) Desired duty and service period	-	.45
7) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	-	.42
8) Intent to Stay (S)	-	.41
9) Physical Health (S)	-	.38
10) Emotional Stability (S)	-	.38
11) Attitude towards drugs (S)	-.14	-.35
12) Frequency of exercising	-	.35
13) GPA at comprehensive school	-	.31
14) Graduated education level	.22	.31
15) Frequency of drinking	-	-.26
16) Thought drug tests should not be allowed (d)	-	-.23
17) Had learning problems at school	-	-.22
18) Received enough information about conscription	-	.22
19) Conscript got along with parents	-.14	.21
20) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-	-.19
21) Was accused of a crime (d)	-	-.19
22) Had quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor (d)	-	-.18
23) Charged with offence as a civilian	-	-.18
24) Did not know the father's rank (d)	-	-.17
25) Marital status	-.23	-.15

*Note.*  $n = 992$ . Variables are ordered by correlation with the discriminating model. (S) = A scale. (d) = computed as a dummy variable. - = not part of the best discriminating model. Box's  $M = 221.3$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilk's Lambda = .69; Eigenvalue = .44; Canonical Correlation = .55; 75.4 percent of original grouped cases were correctly classified.

Once personal and situational factors were employed to predict either positive or negative perceptions of adjustment, the same factors were again found: sociability, regimentation,



commitment, and physical health. However, at the end of service the relative strength of the factors in the model showed the high importance of personal qualities compared to situational experiences in the group and organization. Thus, sociable, committed, motivated, and healthy people are better in their adjustment to social and leadership relations, conscript training, and pace and regime of service (Table 29).

Table 29  
*Model for Discriminating Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service*

Best Discriminators for Group Membership	Standardized Coefficients	<i>r</i> with the Model
1) Sociability (S)	.54	.67
2) Physical Health (S)	.31	.57
3) Affective Commitment (S)	.20	.53
4) Regimentation (S)	.27	.49
5) I am highly motivated to complete my military service	.23	.48
6) Intent to Stay (S)	.26	.43
7) Peer Cohesion (S)	-	.42
8) Emotional Stability (S)	-	.40
9) Normative Commitment (S)	-	.35
10) I have felt at home in military service	-	.35
11) Positive Experiences (S)	-	.32
12) Experienced Hazing (S)	-	-.31
13) My friends in military service have helped me significantly in adjusting to military life	-	.31
14) Friends (S)	-	.29
15) I would have joined the military if serving had been on a voluntary basis	-	.28
16) Unit Climate (S)	-	.27
17) Training Quality (S)	-	.26
18) After basic training I received the training I wished for	-	.24
19) Confidence in Platoon Leaders (S)	.11	.23
20) Training Information and Feedback (S)	-	.23
21) Allowed to Think in Training (S)	-	.22
22) Confidence in Squad Leaders (S)	-	.22
23) Stressful Life Events (S)	-.12	-.20
24) I have felt different from my fellow conscripts	-	-.19
25) I am interested in occupations in the field of security	-	.17
26) Confidence in Instructors (S)	-	.16

*Note.*  $n = 928$ . (S) = A scale. (i) = An individual item. Box's  $M = 805.7$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilk's Lambda = .35; Eigenvalue = 1.89; Canonical Correlation = .81; 92.1 percent of original grouped cases were correctly classified by this model.

Notable was the minuscule impact of military officers and instructors on adjustment when all time 3 items and scales were compared; it was the last one in the list of the table and not part of the model for predicting adjustment experiences in the military. Unfortunately, the above results suggest that instructors have no part in helping conscripts to adjust. Since commitment was a crucial element of service in the models, it was examined more closely in order to find out whether instructors indirectly influenced adjustment by increasing

conscripts' affective commitment to the military. The results revealed that instructors did not meaningfully prop up commitment, and the scale about instructors was not part of the explaining regression model ( $\beta = .00$ ). Together these findings establish an alarming note that instructors had an insignificant role in supporting either conscripts' adjustment or commitment.

### **7.3.3 The Relation of Later Adjustment to Performance and Attitudes**

Previously it was noted that expected military adjustment upon entry into service correlated with actual adjustment at the later points in time. In addition, it was reported that higher expected military adjustment and BT adjustment success were related to a lower likelihood of attrition. Of interest is the extent to which military adjustment was related to other positive outcomes. An examination of the correlations between time 3 military adjustment and several outcomes was thus undertaken. Because the following scales were measures at the same time (i.e. time 3), the correlations between adjustment and its outcomes are, of course, measures of association that does not necessarily show causation. The relations among these variables are complex with probable mutual causation and feedback loops. The design for this research focused on levels of adjustment and changes over time with an emphasis on description and prediction rather than establishing causality. Nevertheless, the following results show promising associations between adjustment and other aspects of military service that may help future research in establishing and proving the extent of causal relations of such measures.

In terms of behavior, higher scores in *Military Adjustment* at the end of service correlated with a lesser likelihood of applying for unnecessary exemptions (e.g. visits to a doctor) from military training ( $r = -.16^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,659$ ), a greater number of days actively engaged in service training ( $r = .18^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,659$ ), and a overall decent service without reprimands and penalties ( $r = .22^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,639$ ). In terms of performance, higher scores in *Military Adjustment* at time 3 were associated with better performance as rated by military leaders near the end of training ( $r = .33^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,642$ ), better expected personal performance during battle ( $r = .39^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,534$ ), and better expected combat performance of one's group ( $r = .26^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,534$ ).

A series of logistic regression and discriminant function analyses were carried out to determine the weighted variables that could distinguish the group of conscripts who completed their service at a low performance level (rated 1 to 3) from the group who performed at a high level (rated 4 or 5). The following variables were components of the model that best discriminated low from high performance groups in military service:

- 1) *Physical Health*;
- 2) GPA at school;
- 3) Highest education level;
- 4) *Affective Commitment*;
- 5) Desired duty and service period;
- 6) *Peer Cohesion*;
- 7) Charged with offense, and
- 8) Confidence in leaders.

Other variables correlated significantly with the standardized canonical discriminant function (i.e. were associated with separating low from high performance) but were not included in the model, because other variables had greater discriminating power. Overall, 75.7 % of the cases were correctly classified, including 55.0 % of those with low performance and 87.0 % of those performing highly. *Military Adjustment* was clearly associated with discriminating those who perform poorly from those who perform well. The adjustment index was the 4<sup>th</sup> strongest variable in the set (based on its correlation with the discriminant function). However, it did not contribute enough independent discrimination power to be included in the model. Similarly, the logistic regression model utilized variables which predicted low and high performance group membership. The stepwise model included 15 items, such as 1) *Physical Health*, 2) GPA, 3) *Affective Commitment*, 4) *Peer Cohesion*, 5) Education level, 6) Criminal record, and 7) Confidence in leaders. Thus, the predictors were basically the same than in the discriminant function, and again *Military Adjustment* was left out from the best model.

In terms of the social environment, higher scores in *Military Adjustment* at time 3 were associated with higher perceived group cohesion ( $r = .38^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,660$ ), less experienced hazing ( $r = -.33^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,660$ ) and a better perceived company climate ( $r = .35^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,660$ ). In terms of outlook, higher scores in *Military Adjustment* at time 3 were associated with a more positive attitude towards national defense ( $r = .37^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,534$ ), a somewhat more positive attitude towards a career in the Finnish Defence Forces ( $r = .18^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,534$ ), more intentions to participate in later refresher training ( $r = .29^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,660$ ), and a more positive perception of military service having provided personal growth and development ( $r = .46^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,660$ ). The civilian events appeared with poor military adjustment experiences in the military ( $r = -.24^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,660$ ), and no wonder, conscripts who did not adjust to the military perceived that service had a negative impact on civilian relationships ( $r = -.40^{***}$ ;  $n = 1,660$ ). Appendix 7 includes the precise wording of these outcome measures.

## **7.4 Predictors of Attrition (i.e. Separation from Service)**

### **7.4.1 Separation Categories and Amount of Attrition over Time**

There were 2,003 service members in the sample in the beginning of service. Of those cases, 1,621 (A class) successfully completed their at least 180 days of conscript training without any limitations on future service. Another 171 (B class) service members completed their training but had some restrictions on their service, typically due to minor health conditions, such as serious allergies or asthma. From the beginning sample, there were 211 cases of attrition (10.5 %), i.e. service members who were separated from military service. Most of these (62.1 %) were separated by the end of the second week of BT. Over 80 % of the attritees were separated by the end of eight weeks of BT. The amount of attrition by reason, class, and time is presented in Table 30.

Table 30

*Frequency of Attrition by Reason, Class, and Time in Training*

Reason for Attrition (Class)	1–2 Weeks	3–8 Weeks	9 Weeks or Later	All Cases
Civilian Service (Religious)	2	2	-	4 (1.9 %)
Civilian Service (Ethical)*	42	7	7	56 (26.5 %)
Mental Health / Adjustment (E)*	51	12	13	76 (36.0 %)
Mental Health / Physical (E)*	11	2	4	17 (8.1 %)
Mental Health / Physical (C)*	10	7	8	25 (11.8 %)
Physical Health (E)	11	6	8	25 (11.8 %)
Physical Health (D)	-	1	-	1 (0.5 %)
Refused to Serve	-	-	1	1 (0.5 %)
Exercised Woman's Option	4	2	-	6 (2.8 %)
Total	131 (62.1 %)	39 (18.5 %)	41 (19.4 %)	211 (100%/99.9%)

*Note.* \* = Reasons for attrition groups that were combined ( $n = 174$ ) for analysis to compare with the A class group ( $n = 1,621$ ) that successfully completed military service with no restrictions on future assignments.

In total, 60 service members chose not to serve further in military service by requesting the longer civilian service alternative for religious reasons ( $n = 4$ ) or ethical reasons ( $n = 56$ ). There were six women who selected their option to withdraw from service in the first 45 days at their discretion. Most of these choices were made by the end of BT. The remaining attritees were separated from service by the collective decisions of doctors and military leaders. In E class attrition, the person was discharged from service either for one to three years after which he or she was obliged to serve at a later date. In C class, the service member had no further obligations, except during a war. In D class attrition, the soldier had no further obligations even during a crisis (Parkkola, 2007, pp. 12–16). The selection of correct attrition class was conducted according to the instructions of General Staff (Pääsikunta, 1997, pp. 8–15, 20–22), and more detailed principles about medical examination and determined classes are presented in Pääsikunta (2006). In this research, the attrition classes were reorganized on the basis the reasons (such as physical or mental health problems) (Pääsikunta, 1997, pp. 36–132). The largest category of the reasons given for attrition was discharge due to mental health or adjustment problems (E class), whereas the second largest group of attrition was due to the selection of civilian service (Table 30).

Prior research also emphasizes the large extent of mental health discharges compared to other adjustment-related problems. Parkkola (2007, p. 27) notes that 15–20 % of 20-year-old men have had some kind of mental health problems prior to service. As Johansson (2004, pp. 3–5) discerns in his Finnish attrition report, mental health problems were the main reason for the separation of most drop-outs who selected civilian service, and altogether 64.9 % of all drop-outs had mental health problems causing attrition (op.cit. p. 15). Parkkola et al. (1997, p. 371; 2002, p. 33) and Sahi and Korpela (2002, p. 4) estimate that the reasons for early separation are psychiatric in two-thirds of the cases.

### 7.4.2 Differences Between Attrition Groups on Predictor Variables

The next step after determining the amount of attrition by reason and training stage was to find out how the groups of those who separated due to diverse reasons were similar or dissimilar from each other in terms of predictor variables, and how those who dropped out differed from conscripts who completed their military training without any restrictions (A class). In order to compare the various groups, means were computed for each group on the predictor scales and other variables. The comparisons of the means on the predictor variables among the attrition groups and with those in the A class were carried out by variance analysis and a post hoc Scheffe's test.

The group of conscripts who selected civilian service for *religious* reasons and the 6 *female* attritees were similar to each other and the *A class* group on all the main predictor variables. Actually, women who dropped out had (insignificantly) more positive preservice perceptions than any other group (even better than the A-class soldiers). For example, their adjustment at school was successful, these women expected also their military adjustment to go well, and they had initially stronger intentions to serve ( $M = 5.0$  vs.  $4.7$ , ns.) than the A class soldiers. Because of that similarity and the small size of the groups of recruits who selected civilian service due to *religious* reasons and *female attritees*, they were eliminated from the sample in further analyses, as were the individuals who refused to serve and the person discharged for serious physical health reasons (D class).

In all terms, those in the group that dropped out due to *physical health* reasons (E class,  $n = 25$ ) were similar to those who completed training but with restrictions on future service due to physical health reasons (*B class*,  $n = 171$ ). These two groups had means that tended to be in the middle (i.e. higher than those separated in part for mental health reasons but lower than those in the A class). For example, on the scale measuring expected adjustment to military service, the means for those groups dropping out for mental health reasons or selecting civilian service for ethical reasons ranged from 3.0 to 3.5; the mean of those in the B class and the mean of those dropping out for physical health reasons (E class) were both 3.8; and the means of the recruits in the A class and those who selected civilian service due to religious reasons were both 4.0.

Over most background predictors and preservice perceptions, recruits selecting civilian service for *ethical* reasons, those separated for *mental health and adjustment* reasons (E class), those separated for *mental health and physical* reasons (E class), and those separated for more *serious mental health and physical* reasons (C class) were not significantly dissimilar to each other, but were somewhat different from the A class and the physical health (E class) attritees. Therefore, recruits selecting *civilian service for ethical reasons* and those in the three groups who were separated at least in part for *mental health reasons* were combined into one group ( $n = 174$ ) for further analyses.

One of the primary conclusions of the above findings is that conscripts utilize the civilian service attrition option due to other reasons than the official alternatives: ethical or religious reasons. For example, Parkkola, Tuominen, and Piha (2001, pp. 76–78) estimated that 82 % of civilian service drop-outs had another reason for it than the official one. Moreover, the decision of selecting civilian service (not before but during military service) is influenced similarly by mental adjustment problems as the E class discharges. Thus, there were no meaningful differences between these groups in terms of their attitudes or mental health. Neither is this a new finding in Finland. Also the previous results of Johansson (2004, pp. 3, 15) ascertain that the recruits selecting civilian service during their conscript service are similar to recruits having mental problems due to which the latter group is discharged as E-class attritees. In other words, recruits having mental adjustment problems commonly utilize two defensive coping strategies: either they go to meet the medical doctor and ask separation due to severe problems in military adjustment or they meet the company commander and declare to select civilian service. The latter options is much easier, smoother, and faster from the conscript's point of view because he does not need to present any problems to authorities, he is demobilized at the same day if possible, and he is able to go home without an instant start of the alternative service, whereas E class discharged soldiers need to wait for a commission meeting, where the decision is not certain (thus the conscript is not sure whether and when his service is interrupted), and the E class soldiers are obliged to come back to the military in one or two years after the decision. Therefore, civilian service is tempting for a recruit unsuccessfully coping in the military adjustment process (Johansson, 2004, p. 16). (Note that women have their own option for discharge, and therefore they do not normally select civilian service).

The next analysis compared four groups: (a) attritees of mental related adjustment problems (i.e. civilian service due to “ethical” reasons and E class soldiers with adjustment problems), (b) attritees due to physical problems, (c) B class soldiers, and (d) A class soldiers. These four groups did not differ on the basis of age, gender, IQ-test or aptitude tests. On the other hand, the groups of people who went to civilian service or were discharged due to adjustment problems differed significantly from other recruits due to less education, poorer grade point average at school, and more offenses in civilian life. In addition, they were significantly different from A class soldiers because they had previous learning problems, more favorable drug attitudes, more loans, less money, and more sleeping disorders. Additionally, mental health attritees (i.e. civilian service due to “ethical” reasons or adequate E classification) desired a significantly shorter duration of service, were more often accused of a crime, did not get along with their parents, were not as likely single, and their friends and parents had less positive attitudes toward the military compared to A class soldiers. Most notably, the differences between mental health attritees and other soldiers (i.e. physical health attritees, and A and B class recruits) were evident in terms of commitment and attitudes (Table 31).

Table 31

*The Main Differences in Responses Between Mental Health Drop-Outs and Others*

Attitudes and Perceptions	Civilian Service or Mental Health E Class	Physical Discharge, or A or B class
	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>
Military Adjustment (S)	3.2	3.8–4.0
Affective Commitment (S)	2.8	3.4–3.9
Intent to Stay (S)	3.7	4.3–4.7
Highly motivated to complete service (i)	2.8	3.4–3.8
Did not feel part of the society (r)	3.8	4.2–4.6
Emotional Stability (S)	3.6	4.1–4.3
Acceptance of Authority (S)	3.2	3.7–4.0
Adjustment at School (S)	3.1	3.5–3.9
Stressful Life Events (S)	3.4	3.8–4.0

*Note.* Attrition due to mental health-related problems or “ethical” reasons,  $n = 174$ . Another group = physical health attritees, B class soldiers and A class conscripts,  $n = 1,817$ . The means were compared with the Scheffe’s test;  $p < .05$ . (S) = A scale. (i) = An individual item. (r) = Reverse coded.

Thus, soldiers who were discharged due to mental health problems or who voluntarily separated from the military to civilian service due to “ethical” reasons were significantly different from other soldiers due to their low self-efficacy of military adjustment, weak commitment to the military, intentions to leave, low motivation to serve, alienation from the rest of the society, unstable mental health, low abilities to obedience, poor adjustment at school, and more stressful events in civilian life prior to the induction to service.

Being discharged due to *physical problems* had significantly different predictors (compared to other E-class discharges or civilian service drop-outs). They did not have as much attitude problems to tune themselves to the military. Thus, they were more committed, motivated, sociable, emotionally stable, and ready to accept supervision than recruits who selected civilian service due to “ethical” reasons or had mental health problems. However, there were minor differences between the physical discharge group and the A class, and also between the B class and the A class. Recruits with physical problems that led to a discharge were different from the A class soldiers in terms of having had learning problems at school ( $M = 4.3$  vs.  $4.7$ ,  $p < .05$ ), exercising less frequently ( $M = 2.4$  vs.  $3.2$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and perceiving their physical health poorer ( $M = 3.3$  vs.  $4.7$ ,  $p < .05$ ). On the other hand, the B class soldiers differed from the A class soldiers by having less positive adjustment experiences at school ( $M = 3.5$  vs.  $3.9$ ,  $p < .001$ ), a shorter duration of service as a request ( $M = 1.9$  vs.  $2.8$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and poorer perceived physical health ( $M = 3.1$  vs.  $3.7$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Thus, previous adjustment at school related with physical problems during the military. By all accounts, soldiers who were discharged or placed to B class duties due to physical problems were different from the A class soldiers in their physical health and schooling experiences but similar in other terms.

Because the groups of soldiers who were discharged due to physical health reasons (E class) and those who were in the B class were very similar to the A class except for variables that dealt with aspects of physical health, these groups were also eliminated from further analyses, as variation that was already “explained.” Thus the focus of the additional analyses was on comparing the combined group of attritees (with attrition due at least in part for mental health reasons) and of those selecting civilian service for ethical reasons, hereafter labeled as the *attrition group*, with the A class (i.e. those who completed their service with no future assignment restrictions), hereafter labeled as the *completion group*.

Over most of the predictor variables, the means of the completion group (A class) were significantly more positive than those of the attrition group. There were only a few items in which the significant mean differences were not observed; such items as age, the 12-minute run test results, the loss of father or mother, living or working in many places (e.g. 8 places), having a work place after service, and whether a relationship had ended. On the other hand, the “mental” discharges were different from the completion group based on all the main categories of predictors: demographic items (i.e. age), aptitude, work history, economic situation, social relationship, education experience, deviance, mental and physical health, commitment and attitudes (Table 32).



Table 32

*Scales and Variables with Significantly Different Mean Values on Military Adjustment*

Categories and Variables of Predictors	Attrition Group			Completion Group		<i>p</i>
	$\eta^2$	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
<b>1. Demographic Items</b>						
Age	.01	2.90	1.07	2.70	.75	*
<b>2. Aptitude Measures</b>						
GPA at comprehensive school	.05	3.60	1.79	4.84	1.72	***
Aptitude test 1 ("IQ" test)	.03	4.30	1.94	5.13	1.81	***
Aptitude test 2 (personality test)	.02	2.03	2.05	2.99	1.98	**
12-minute run test (distance run)	.03	2373	317.7	2443	308.5	ns.
<b>3. Background Variables</b>						
<b>a) Work History</b>						
Had no job; not in school (d)	.02	.37	.48	.21	.41	***
Having no place to work or study (d)	.01	.60	.49	.50	.50	**
Had been fired from a job (d)	.02	.07	.25	.03	.16	*
<b>b) Economic Situation</b>						
Had one or more loans	.04	4.87	2.38	6.14	1.76	***
Shared living costs at home (d)	.01	.33	.47	.20	.40	***
Had little money (d)	.03	.72	.45	.44	.50	***
<b>c) Social Relationships with Parents and Significant Others</b>						
Reported quarrels at home (d)	.02	.50	.50	.39	.49	**
Parents were divorced (d)	.02	.43	.50	.24	.43	***
Got along with parents	.04	3.83	1.43	4.52	.97	***
Parents have a positive attitude towards service	.02	2.32	.86	2.67	.62	***
Father's rank in military service	.01	2.77	1.63	3.15	1.72	*
Friends had a positive attitude about service	.03	3.19	1.42	3.95	1.20	***
Marital Status	.02	1.95	1.00	1.57	.78	***
Had lived with girlfriend or wife (d)	.02	.21	.41	.08	.28	***
Reported quarrels with girlfriend (d)	.01	.38	.49	.28	.45	*
Military post was less than 7 mls from home (d)	.01	.03	.18	.07	.26	*
Expected military to have a negative impact on civil relationships (revised)	.03	3.10	1.47	3.85	1.22	***
<b>d) Education Experience</b>						
Had learning troubles at school (d)	.06	4.14	1.21	4.74	.67	***
Was hazed at school	.02	3.60	1.52	4.02	1.28	***
Adjustment in Civilian Schooling (S)	.10	3.05	1.06	3.90	.79	***
Graduated education level	.07	1.72	.75	2.38	.73	***
Would have a school where to study (d)	.01	.09	.28	.21	.41	***

Table 32 (continued)

Categories and Variables of Predictors	Attrition Group			Completion Group		
	$\eta^2$	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>p</i>
<b>e) Deviant Behavior</b>						
Had quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor (d)	.03	.26	.44	.12	.32	***
Was accused of a crime (d)	.03	.43	.50	.18	.38	***
Had a criminal record (d)	.02	.08	.26	.01	.12	***
Was charged with an offence as civilian	.06	1.80	.88	1.27	.56	***
Had been arrested (d)	.03	.09	.28	.01	.10	***
Frequency of drinking	.02	2.29	1.05	1.98	.81	***
Attitude against drugs	.03	1.91	.89	1.49	.69	***
Thought drug tests should not be allowed (d)	.03	.40	.49	.19	.39	***
Did not feel a part of the society (system)	.04	3.75	1.39	4.49	.98	***
<b>4. Mental and Physical Health</b>						
Emotional Stability (S)	.07	3.64	.97	4.34	.73	***
Reported sleeping disorders (d)	.04	.57	.50	.27	.45	***
Reported disease or injury (d)	.04	.44	.50	.26	.44	***
Frequency of exercising	.04	2.38	1.47	3.25	1.38	***
Physical Health (S)	.10	2.95	.97	3.74	.80	***
<b>5. Personality and Personal Attitudes</b>						
Military Adjustment (S)	.10	3.24	.95	3.97	.62	***
Affective Commitment (S)	.08	2.81	1.10	3.76	.95	***
Intent to Stay (S)	.11	3.69	1.30	4.67	.77	***
Sociability (S)	.05	3.56	.88	4.03	.64	***
Acceptance of Authority (S)	.08	3.19	1.05	4.00	.78	***
Desired duty and service period	.08	1.63	.84	2.80	1.47	***
Received enough information about service	.01	2.45	.86	2.69	.84	***
Expected to feel at home in military service	.08	2.52	1.19	3.53	1.01	***
Stepped into military service with positive expectations	.03	2.80	1.35	3.55	1.21	***
Highly motivated to complete my service	.06	2.77	1.42	3.81	1.15	***

*Note.* Attrition Group  $n = 174$ . Completion Group  $n = 1,621$ . (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. GPA = Grade point average. \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ . The means were compared with the  $t$  test. The eta values were calculated based on the Oneway ANOVA results in an analysis where four groups were compared: (1) mental health attrition, (2) physical health attrition, (3) B class soldiers, and (4) A class soldiers.

The only important *demographic* predictor was age, where conscripts in the attrition group were a little older than those in the completion group, which is consistent with most of the literature about the impact of age on attrition. As noted above, *females*, whether they attritted or finished their training, were similar to the completion group on most predictor variables. Again, consistent with the attrition literature, the completion group was better than the attrition group in all *aptitude measures*, especially cognitive abilities. In other words, the brighter and more capable the person, the more likely he or she completes the military service.

In terms of the *socio-economic* predictor variables, those in the attrition group had a more negative work history, such as having been fired or unemployed before service, came from a less auspicious economic situation with little money and more loans, were more likely to come from a broken family, or from a home where there were more quarrels and less positive views toward military service. Additionally, they had friends with unfavorable attitudes toward service. Thus, they were able to receive support and acceptance on the part of their civilian friends in the occurrence of a discharge. Those in the attrition group were significantly more likely dating, engaged, or married than those in the completion group, who were more likely single prior to service. The attritees had more quarrels with their girl- or boyfriend than those who completed their service. Consequently, the attritees perceived that service would have negative impact on their civilian relationships.

Also consistent with the literature, the attrition group had a lower *education* level and was more likely to report having had learning problems, hazing, and less successful adjustment at school. Those in the attrition group were more likely to have been involved with the *criminal* justice system and seemingly drank alcohol too often (as opposed to moderate drinking). Additionally, those in the attrition group reported less positive *mental and physical health*, as well as exercising less. The attritees also departed from others in terms of a more favorable attitude towards drug use. In fact, those who dropped out of service felt more likely that they were not anymore a part of the society. Altogether, the attritees were different from other men due to their unfavorable and discouraging economic, social, educational, behavioral, and attitudinal background.

On the scales measuring various *personality factors and attitudes*, those in the completion group had uniformly more positive qualities. This was especially the case for scales measuring the conscript's affective commitment, intentions to stay, expected military adjustment, sociability, acceptance of supervision, and achievement motivation. The clear distinction between the attrition group and the completion group on the personality and attitude factors provides strong support for the inclusion of such measures in the research and modeling attrition. Conscripts who completed their service had enough information and desired a longer duration of service already before the induction to the military. They expected to feel at home in the military, and perhaps therefore they had positive expectations and high motivation for completing their military obligation.

In all, Table 32 shows the main predictors of attrition (and the significant differences between the attrition and completion groups). These identified predictor variables are consistent with the findings of most prior research. Nonetheless, for the sake of economy and to suggest focal targets for possible policy changes and attrition prevention programs, it was desirable to whittle this large array of predictor variables down to those that were the most powerful for prediction. The next chapter not only identifies the statistically significant predictor variables but also assigns their relative weights that indicate the usefulness of the variable for future research and practice.

### 7.4.3 The Strongest Predictors of Attrition

To determine the strongest predictor variables, three different approaches were used: discriminant analysis, logistic regression, and survival analysis. Each approach provided similar results in terms of the set of overall strongest predictors. Note that the purpose of using these approaches was primarily to find the dominant variables for predicting attrition rather than developing, fine-tuning, and testing an optimum model. The discriminant analysis finds the predictor variables that maximally distinguish between the states of the dependent variable (i.e. attrition or completion). The primary result of the procedure is a discriminant function which, among other things, provides the relative weight of each utilized variable in making the maximal distinction between, in this research, those who attrited and those who completed their military service. The results of the discriminant analysis are portrayed in Tables 33–35.

Table 33 presents the 25 strongest variables for distinguishing between the attrition group and the completion group, which had at least a .30 correlation with the discriminant function. An alternative model was created by using aptitude measures. However, it turned out that aptitude variables had less than a .24 correlation with the discriminating model. Because only 25 discharged soldiers took part in the aptitude tests before leaving the military, the aptitude measures were not incorporated into the further analysis to enlarge the examined sample.

The personality and attitude scales were the best predictors for explaining the difference between the attrition group and the completion group rather than demographic or background variables. The usefulness of the main measures of the research was clear because *Intent to Stay* and *Military Adjustment* were in the strongest relation to the differences between the attrition-completion groups. *Acceptance of Authority* refers to easiness to obey orders, being commanded, and under supervision. The model shows that an ability of obedience was highly related to the completion of service. On the other hand, if the person did not adjust to authority relations he was in a risk of dropping out of the military. Physical adjustment to service was also vital for preventing a risk separation from service. Similarly, previous adjustment at school predicted actual service completion in the military, suggesting that schooling creates abilities that later help a person to function in other organizations. As suggested by the previous studies, graduated education level forecasts attrition also in the Finnish sample. Even more, all the schooling measures (about learning problems or success at school) were useful for understanding the difference between attrition and completion of service. Furthermore, commitment to service predicted group membership effectively in the model, as there were several independent items and measures that were related to the person's commitment to the military.

Table 33

*The Best Discriminating Variables of the Attrition and Completion Groups*

Strongest Discriminating Variables	<i>r</i> with the Model	Attrition Group		Completion Group	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1) Intent to Stay (S)	.60	4.67	.76	3.70	1.29
2) Military Adjustment (S)	.57	3.97	.75	3.25	.95
3) Acceptance of Authority (S)	.53	4.00	.79	3.20	1.05
4) Expecting to feel at home in military service	.50	3.53	1.01	2.54	1.19
5) Adjustment at School (S)	.49	3.90	.79	3.04	1.05
6) Physical Health (S)	.49	3.74	.81	2.97	.96
7) Graduated education level	.47	2.38	.73	1.71	.74
8) Was charged with an offence as civilian	-.46	1.27	.56	1.80	.87
9) Highly motivated to complete military service	.45	3.81	1.14	2.80	1.42
10) Affective Commitment (S)	.45	3.76	.95	2.84	1.09
11) Emotional Stability (S)	.43	4.34	.73	3.65	.97
12) Had learning problems at school (revised)	.43	4.74	.67	4.13	1.21
13) Did not feel a part of the society (revised)	.42	4.49	.98	3.78	1.38
14) GPA at comprehensive school	.41	4.85	1.72	3.58	1.77
15) Sociability (S)	.40	4.03	.64	3.58	.87
16) Desired duty and service period	.37	2.80	1.47	1.63	.85
17) Stepping into the military with positive expectations	.37	3.56	1.21	2.83	1.34
18) Had one or more loans (revised)	.36	6.14	1.76	4.85	2.38
19) Frequency of exercising	.36	3.25	1.38	2.36	1.46
20) Was accused of a crime (d)	-.34	.18	.38	.43	.50
21) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-.34	.27	.45	.57	.50
22) Expected military service to have a negative impact on civil relationships (revised)	.33	3.85	1.22	3.12	1.46
23) Friends had a positive attitude towards the military	.31	3.95	1.20	3.22	1.42
24) Conscript got along with parents	.30	4.52	.97	3.83	1.42
25) Had been arrested (d)	-.30	.01	.10	.08	.27

*Note.* Attrition Group  $n = 171$ . Completion Group  $n = 1,605$ . Variables are ordered by absolute size of correlation with the discriminant function. (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. GPA = grade point average.

Table 34 presents the best discriminating model in which the variables are entered in the stepwise fashion; the entry of a variable depends upon its additional discriminating (explanatory) power considering the items that were entered before it. The picture in this table is slightly different from that in Table 33. In Table 34, the independent influence of background variables comes much more into play. In summary, lower education attainment, maladjustment, and diverse civilian problems (indicated by a criminal record, a poor economic history, future unemployment after service, and health issues) are the primary associates of military attrition.

Table 34

*Model for Discriminating the Attrition Group from the Completion Group*

Best Discriminators for Group Membership	Standardized Coefficients	<i>r</i> with the Model
1) Intent to Stay (S)	.38	.60
2) Graduated education level	.30	.47
3) Military Adjustment (S)	.21	.57
4) Was charged with an offence as civilian	-.21	-.46
5) Marital status	-.17	-.25
6) Had been arrested (d)	-.17	-.30
7) Had learning problems at school	-.16	-.43
8) Age	-.15	-.14
9) Did not have any place to work or study (d)	-.14	-.10
10) Expected to feel at home in military service	.14	.50
11) Physical Health (S)	.13	.49
12) Reported sleeping disorders	-.12	-.34
13) Had one or more loans	-.11	-.36

*Note.*  $n = 1,776$ . Variables are ordered by stepwise inclusion in the model. (S) = scale. \* = A dummy variable. Box's  $M = 1167.3$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilk's Lambda = .76; Eigenvalue = .32; Canonical Correlation = .49.

Table 35 portrays the success of the discriminant function in predicting membership in the attrition and completion groups, with the diagonal cells representing prediction successes and the off-diagonal cells representing misclassification or prediction failures. The function does a reasonably good job, as of the recruits it predicted would drop out ( $n = 121$ ), a large number ( $n = 71$ ) did do so, versus to those who did not ( $n = 50$ ). On the other hand, a large number ( $n = 100$ ), although a small percentage, of those the discriminant function predicted to drop out, completed their service. The challenge for attrition research is not in predicting the diagonal cell entries but in understanding the off-diagonal cell entries, i.e. how does a person complete service when it is predicted that he or she will drop out ( $n = 50$ ), or why does a person drop out when it is predicted that the person will complete his or her service obligation ( $n = 100$ ). It is a matter for economics and policy to decide whether the military should keep a person who was predicted to drop out (and balance the personal problems with qualitative training and support) or whether the military should discharge the person as early as possible to improve the average quality of the group.

Table 35

*Predicting Attrition and Completion Group Membership by the Discriminant Model*

Actual Group	Predicted Group		Total
	Attrition	Completion	
Attrition	71 (41.5 %)	100 (58.5 %)	171 (100 %)
Completion	50 (3.0 %)	1,569 (97.0 %)	1,619 (100 %)
<i>n</i>	121	1,669	1,790

*Note.* The first number in each cell is  $n$ ; the second number, in parentheses, is the percentage based on the row total. 91.6 % of original grouped cases were correctly classified.

The discriminant analysis procedure is particularly appropriate for use with a set of interval or ratio level continuous predictor variables. However, logistic regression is better suited for the analysis of the nominal level, categorical predictor variables. Rather than determining the items and their strength that discriminate states of the dependent measures, logistic regression analysis determines the impact of a predictor item by how it changes the odds of a dependent variable state occurring, i.e. attrition group membership. A logistic regression analysis of the data resulted in a set of items for the model similar to the set for discriminant analysis. These valuable predictors included the scales of considered separation, *Military Adjustment*, and physical condition as well demographic and background variables, such as education level attained, criminal background, age, marital status, prospective unemployment, and the number of loans (see Table 36).

Table 36

*Logistic Regression Analysis for Attrition and Completion Groups*

Variables in the Model	Pseudo $R^2$	$\beta$	$p$	Exp ( $\beta$ )
1) Intent to Stay (Considered Separation) (S)	.15	-.48	.001	.62 (1.62)
2) Education level	.26	-.78	.001	.46 (2.17)
3) Military Adjustment (S)	.31	-.40	.01	.67 (1.49)
4) Was charged with an offence as civilian	.33	.50	.001	1.66
5) Desired duty and service period	.35	-.41	.001	.67 (1.49)
6) Age	.36	.26	.05	1.29
7) Physical Health (S)	.37	-.37	.01	.69 (1.45)
8) Marital status	.37	.30	.01	1.35
9) Did not have any place to work or study (d)	.38	.57	.01	1.76
10) Had one or more loans (d)	.38	.47	.05	1.60
11) Father's rank	.39	.14	.05	1.15

*Note.*  $n = 1,750$ . The variables are ordered by stepwise inclusion in the model. (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. -2 Log likelihood = 766.7. Explained variance (i.e. Pseudo  $R^2$ ) by Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .39$ .

The figures in the column “Exp( $\beta$ )” indicate the increase or decrease that one unit of the predictor variable would have on the odds of membership in the attrition group, with a value of 1 (50/50 odds) indicating no change. For example, the Exp( $\beta$ ) of *Intent to Stay* indicates that a unit change of the scale would decrease the odds of attrition by 62/100ths. On the other hand, a one unit drop on the scale of *Intent to Stay* means that the person has 1.62 times the risk to be discharged. Conscripts who had only comprehensive school background were at the greatest risk to drop out from service. They had even 2.17 times the risk of attrition compared to those who had at least some studies after school (although had not yet graduated from high school). On the other grounds, it was positive to find the main adjustment measures on the top of the model explaining actual attrition and completion of service.

In terms of classification, the model would correctly classify about 92.5 % of the cases, with (see the first row cells in Table 37) 58 persons being predicted as attritees who dropped out, 113 persons predicted as completion group members who attritted, (second row of cells) 21 members who were predicted to drop out but who completed service, and 1,585 who were predicted to complete their service and did so. Future research could combine both quantitative and qualitative data and explain what the factors would be that would protect recruits from discharge although the model predicts that they would be discharged (e.g. in this model 21 recruits avoided the predicted attrition), and why some recruits drop out although their attitudes and background do not predict such an event (e.g. 113 recruits in this model dropped out due to other than pretraining factors; thus, the blame would primarily be on situational factors).

Table 37

*Predicting Attrition and Completion Group Membership by Logistic Regression*

Actual Group	Predicted Group		
	Attrition	Completion	Total
Attrition	58 (33.9 %)	113 (66.1 %)	171 (100 %)
Completion	21 (1.3 %)	1,585 (98.7 %)	1,606 (100 %)

*Note.*  $n = 1,777$ . The first number in each cell is  $n$ ; the second number, in parentheses, is the percentage based on the row total. 92.5 % of original grouped cases were correctly classified.

The results indicate a strong relation between the attrition and adjustment problems of a conscript. This conclusion can be made because attrition mostly occurred during the first weeks of service when the socialization process and new experiences in the military had the main effect on the recruits. In addition, adjustment expectations were among the strongest predictors of attrition, denoting that attrition was strongly related to adjustment problems. However, it was expected that reasons for early attrition were different from attrition occurring after BT. To examine this assumption, two attrition groups were closely checked up (i.e. drop-outs in the first two weeks,  $n = 131$ , vs. attritees after BT,  $n = 41$ ) in order to identify variables that explain how attrition differs in time.

Table 38 presents the main predictors of early attrition and completion of service. A recruit who considered separation prior to entry, had a low education level, and poor physical health cause a high risk of dropping out during the first days of service. In addition, recruits who dated, had been arrested in civilian life, desired a short duration of service, were women, drank often, had learning problems at school, were older, or expected to be unemployed after service were more likely to end their service prematurely. Altogether, 43 % of the variance was explained, and 94.1 % of conscripts were correctly classified into the groups of either early attrition or completion.



Table 38

*Logistic Regression Analysis of Attrition in the First Weeks of BT vs. Completion of Service*

Variables in the Model	Pseudo $R^2$	$\beta$	$p$	Exp ( $\beta$ )
1) Intent to Stay (Considered Separation) (S)	.18	.66	.001	2.31
2) Education level	.28	.90	.001	3.42
3) Physical Health (S)	.33	.72	.001	2.70
4) Marital status	.36	-.46	.001	.80 (1.25)
5) Had been arrested (d)	.37	-1.72	.01	.56 (1.79)
6) Desired duty and service period	.39	.44	.001	1.97
7) Gender	.40	-2.11	.001	.43 (2.33)
8) Frequency of drinking	.41	.37	.01	1.87
9) Had learning problems at school (d)	.41	-.62	.05	.88 (1.14)
10) Age	.42	-.29	.05	.96 (1.04)
11) Did not have any place to work or study (d)	.42	-.52	.05	.94 (1.06)
12) Mother had died (d)	.43	-1.18	.05	1.00

*Note.*  $n = 1,735$ . The variables are ordered by stepwise inclusion in the model. (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. -2 Log likelihood = 582.8. Explained variance (i.e. Pseudo  $R^2$ ) by Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .43$ .

An alternative discriminant analysis was conducted for further examination of variables that distinguished the attrition and completion groups. Factors that were involved with later attrition after BT were (a) having loans, (b) poor personal fit with the military, (c) bad relationships with parents, (d) not knowing the father's rank, (e) favorable attitudes toward drugs, and (f) adjustment expectations, compared to recruits who would complete their service (after the BT period). The interesting aspect of expectations was that the combination of perceived fit with the military (i.e. person-environment fit) and qualified expectations explained completion of service. On the other hand, if the person did not expect to adjust to the military but had positive expectations, he or she was in a risk to drop out of service in long run. Thus, too positive expectations are not helpful in avoiding attrition. In another analysis, the BT measures were included for the examination. Basically, the results support the above findings. People who had more civilian problems in terms of the economic situation and social relationships, or other stressful problems, ended their service prematurely (after BT). However, before the actual decision of the discharge, the conscripts started to avoid their service (i.e. *Malingering*), did not feel to be a part of the group (and society), and had considerations for attaining a separation.

In order to identify the extent to which personal background and perceptions explained both attrition and performance at the same time, an analysis was computed where BT drop-outs (due to mental health related problems,  $n = 124$ ) were contrasted with conscripts who had good or excellent performance ratings at the end of service ( $n = 961$ ). The consequent model examined only items and measures that were gathered before service, and it revealed that the combination of strong intention to complete the service, educational background, good physical health, lack of criminal remarks, intention for special or leadership training, being single, working or studying after service, moderately drinking, and having negative attitudes toward drug use, first of all, inhibit from BT attrition but at the same time permit good performance during later months of service. This model explained 56 % of the phenomenon

and correctly predicted 93 % of recruits to either BT attrition or later good performance groups.

Table 39

*Logistic Regression Analysis for Distinguishing BT Drop-Outs from Good Performers*

Variables in the Model	Pseudo $R^2$	$\beta$	$p$	Exp ( $\beta$ )
1) Intent to Stay (Considered Separation) (S)	.26	.81	.001	2.25
2) Education level	.42	1.03	.001	2.81
3) Physical Health (S)	.47	.74	.001	2.09
4) Was charged with an offence as civilian	.51	-.97	.001	.38 (2.63)
5) Desired duty and service period	.52	.41	.01	1.51
6) Marital status	.54	-.50	.001	.61 (1.64)
7) Did not have any place to work or study (d)	.55	-.78	.01	.46 (2.17)
8) Moderate frequency of drinking	.55	.48	.01	1.62
9) Positive attitude towards drugs	.56	-.42	.01	.65 (1.54)

*Note.*  $n = 1,032$ . The variables are ordered by stepwise inclusion in the model. (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. -2 Log likelihood = 402.3. Explained variance (i.e. Pseudo  $R^2$ ) by Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .56$ .

The main conclusion based on Table 39 was that having doubts about personal service, a nonchalant attitude towards training (e.g. wishing the shortest possible training as possible), poor physical self-efficacy, inadequate education (i.e. only a comprehensive school background), prior or prospective civilian problems (with police, girlfriend, or troubles to find a place to work or study), and habits and attitudes towards substance abuse (related to drinking and drugs) were especially destructive for successful completion of service. As a remark for a policy consideration, such measures could be utilized to discover conscripts with a higher risk of attrition in order to channel more leader and peer support for them. On the other hand, future research could use these measures to find people at a risk for maladjustment and follow their personal military experiences until the end of service to determine the interplay of the personal and situational factors on attrition and performance.

Table 40

*Distinguishing BT Drop-Outs from Good Performers by Logistic Regression*

Actual Group	Predicted Group		
	Drop-outs	Performers	Total
Drop-outs	70 (56.5 %)	54 (43.5 %)	124 (100 %)
Performers	20 (2.2 %)	906 (97.8 %)	926 (100 %)

*Note.*  $n = 1,050$ . The first number in each cell is  $n$ ; the second number, in parentheses, is the percentage based on the row total. 93.0 % of original grouped cases were correctly classified.

The hazard or survival analysis approach (Cox regression) is useful for looking at the occurrence of an event, such as attrition in a sample over time. Note that using time until the event occurs as the dependent variable is different from using membership in the attrition group or completion group, referring to the main differences between the conducted Cox

and logistic regression analysis. Nevertheless, the Cox regression model (presented in Table 41) produced similar results as presented above.

Table 41

*Cox Regression Analysis for the Attrition and Completion Groups*

Variables in the Model	$\beta$	$p$	Exp ( $\beta$ )
1) Intent to Stay (S)	.41	.001	1.52
2) Adjustment at School (S)	.20	.05	1.22
3) Finished only comprehensive school	-.85	.001	.43 (2.35)
4) Not engaged or married (d)	.88	.001	2.44
5) Desired a shorter duration of service (d)	-1.05	.001	.35 (2.85)
6) Had been arrested (d)	-.96	.001	.38 (2.62)
7) Physical Health (S)	.28	.01	1.33
8) Had one or more loans (d)	-.44	.01	.65 (1.55)
9) Expected to feel at home in military service	.22	.01	1.25
10) Did not have any place to work or study (d)	-.38	.05	.68 (1.47)
11) Was charged with an offence as civilian (d)	-.34	.05	.71 (1.41)

Note.  $n = 1,776$ . The variables are ordered by stepwise inclusion in the model. Method = Forward. (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. -2 Log likelihood = 2170.8.

The scales of *Intent to Stay*, *Expected Military Adjustment*, and *Physical Health* were important along with educational attainment, marital status, criminal history, and the existence of problems (such as having loans or being unemployed). In a sense, the other two statistical models predicted attrition, whereas the Cox regression model explained the length of military service. One would expect that the variables that enhance or predict success are not necessarily the same as those that predict lack of success, i.e. attrition.

As a conclusion about the differences in attrition over time, the results suggest that early attrition is strongly related to adjustment problems which were evident already in civilian life, such as (a) unsuccessful education, (b) problems in following rules (i.e. criminal record), (c) substance abuse (i.e. frequent drinking or supporting drug use), or (d) unemployment. In terms of background predictors, it can be concluded that early attrition is strongly related to adjustment problems, education, and deviance, whereas later attrition is explained by economic and relationship problems. The main communal predictors are considered separation (i.e. *Intent to Stay*) and the quality of a relationship with a girl- or boyfriend. Thus, once the seed of doubt about completing service had been sown, or the relationship with the girl- or boyfriend had started to crack, the recruit had difficulties to stay motivated and committed to serve and, in many cases, attrition took place as a coping strategy for solving the problem temporarily.

## 7.5 Military Adjustment over Time

### 7.5.1 Mean Differences of Military Adjustment over Time

As indicated in Appendix 7, the *Military Adjustment* index, measuring the variable of primary interest in this research, had a relatively stable mean across the three times it was measured. The typical response to items within the 5-point scale was *Fairly Good*. The reliability of the index was generally good and increased over time with the greatest reliability ( $\alpha = .85$ ) and highest item-total correlation range at time 3. Interestingly, the variation in responses (i.e. the standard deviation) increased somewhat over time, especially when compared to the initial-entry time 1 when the conscripts had no actual experience in the military. Within the index, the pattern of changes in the item means suggests that rush and strict timetables required adjustment during BT, after which the conscripts adjusted slightly better to the rigors of military service over time. However, the differences were so slight that they may exist due to random variation. Next, the main effects of the background items over time are discussed briefly. Altogether, the following section sums up the essential mean differences in adjustment experiences.

Generally, recruits had positive expectations about their military adjustment. Thus, they perceived to be able to adjust to (a) stay away from their friends and parents, (b) obedience, discipline, supervision, and regimentation during service, (c) social relationships, and (d) physical training. Additionally, they were moderately committed to the military ( $M = 3.7$ ) and had high intentions to stay in service ( $M = 4.6$ ) (see Appendix 7). On the basis of background information, *age* did not differentiate expectations or adjustment experiences during BT and later on, although 18-year-old conscripts had slightly more negative perceptions. Contrary to age, gender was more visibly related to adjustment perceptions. *Women* were much more positive about their upcoming service and they had more satisfying adjustment experiences during BT and at the end of service than men.

Better *cognitive and social ability* were related to more positive expectations and stronger self-efficacy about abilities to adjust in the military at time 1 ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ,  $r = .11^{***}$  /  $\eta^2 = .09$ ,  $r = .29^{***}$ ; respectively). These measures continued their relation and effect on adjustment during BT ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ,  $r = .23^{***}$  /  $\eta^2 = .11$ ,  $r = .32^{***}$ ; respectively) and at the end of service ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ,  $r = .19^{***}$  /  $\eta^2 = .10$ ,  $r = .31^{***}$ ; respectively). Actually, compared to other background items, the results of the intelligence and personality tests maintained or even increased their (relative) importance as a predictor by time, while other background items lost part of their effect.

Similarly, success and *adjustment at school* were useful predictors of recruits' adjustment expectations to military experiences and actual adjustment success. In light of BT adjustment, the attained education level indicated a personal ability to adjust to a new learning environment. Particularly, soldiers who had only a *comprehensive school* background had more likely problems in their adjustment process. *GPA at school* and attained *education level* had a small effect even on later adjustment in the military ( $\eta^2 = .05$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ , respectively). On the other hand, *learning problems* at school forecast more adjustment problems and less effective days (due to malingering) in the military. Thus, people who had learning-

related adjustment problems in training used malingering as a defensive coping style to avoid situations where they should have learnt to perform something.

The social background did not create crucial differences in expectations or adjustment experiences. In Finland, socio-economic differences in population are relatively low, which may be the reason why there were no differences among conscripts due to the guardian's occupation. However, even minor *personal economic problems* had an impact on the expectations towards service (i.e. having loans or little money). Similarly, recruits with little money or loans experienced more stressful civilian events during service and adjusted less to BT and the later periods of service.

In terms of work history, *unemployment* was positively related to maladjustment expectations and adjustment difficulties in service. Thus, being busy and doing something before service slightly secured from frustration and bad attitudes before service and bad experiences during it (although the effect was low,  $\eta^2 = .01$ ). Coming from *a broken family* due to the divorce of parents weakly but significantly related to lower adjustment expectations and actual adjustment experiences, whereas good relationships with parents without major quarrels supported positive adjustment attitudes and process. *Marital status* was in consistent relation to adjustment expectations and experiences. Overall, *single* soldiers had less adjustment problems, whereas dating or married soldiers had responsibilities in civilian life that caused stress upon such conscripts. Thus, civilian relationships partly competed with the military service obligation and therefore increased stress in the military. All civilian socio-economic background problems were positively related to stressful life events during military service, and especially the extent the person perceived that the military would have a negative impact on civilian relationships.

Behavioral deviance and bad habits distinguished conscripts and their adjustment perceptions. For example, *quarrels with a teacher or a boss* in past denoted that the person had some adjustment problems with authority and under supervision already before service. These difficulties followed the person to the military, where such conscripts had poorer attitudes and experiences (measured by adjustment factors). Furthermore, *drinking* too often, having positive *drug attitudes* or offences in the *criminal record* showed association to unsuccessful adjustment and, especially, to considerations of separation. Thus, such people had lower abilities to actively and positively cope with the situation and were more prone to utilize defensive coping strategies, such as quitting or avoidance of service by malingering.

People who were committed to the upcoming service prepared for it by exercising, and they were consequently in better *physical health* and condition and had more positive adjustment expectations and experiences. In addition, the results suggest that *adequate pretraining information* is vital for correct and positive expectations and a successful adjustment process. Due to the correct information, the recruits were able to plan and prepare for military experiences. Moreover, knowledge reduces stress and helps to discover an appropriate coping strategy to each challenge in the new environment in line with personal traits and abilities. Recruits' *orientation towards service* was revealed by a question about the desired duty and duration of service. This item was moderately related to adjustment expectations ( $r = .36^{***}$ ;  $n = 2,003$ ) and strongly with affective commitment prior to service ( $r = .50^{***}$ ;  $n = 2,003$ ). Thus, the more specified the plans for service were, the better commitment and expectations

the conscript had. Moreover, the personal orientation towards duty and service period had a strong effect on BT adjustment ( $\eta^2 = .15$ ) and commitment ( $\eta^2 = .28$ ), and such orientation (before entry) influenced adjustment experiences ( $\eta^2 = .07$ ) and commitment ( $\eta^2 = .16$ ) still at the end of service.

### **7.5.2 Correlations and Regression Models of Military Adjustment over Time**

Several of the measurement scales were noticeably correlated with the *Military Adjustment* index at different points in time (Appendix 10). However, since these predictor scales were derived from separate analytic factors and most correlations were only mid-size, the scales represented mostly independent constructs despite the common methodological base rather than measures of an identical concept. Moreover, adjustment and *Intent to Stay* were moderately interrelated. While the correlation between these two factors was low before service (i.e.  $r = .28^{***}$ ), the relation strengthened notably in BT ( $r = .54^{***}$ ). BT adjustment explained 14 % of later *Intent to Stay* and, conversely time 2 considered separation explained 13 % of time 3 adjustment perceptions. *Affective Commitment* was the most stable and reliable measure in the research (Appendix 7). The results point out how prior commitment strongly predicts later dedication to service. For example, commitment before service explained by itself 49 % of commitment in BT ( $r = .70^{***}$ ). Consequently, BT commitment was strongly related to commitment at the end of service ( $r = .66^{***}$ ).

The relation between commitment and adjustment during BT ( $r = .65^{***}$ ) was notable, indicating that successful adjustment supports commitment to the organization. On line with this argument, adjustment to BT predicted 17 % of the variance of commitment at the end of service. However, the actual relation between adjustment and commitment is complicated, and prior commitment may explain later adjustment success as much or even more than vice versa. In other words, affective commitment may secure from unproductive attitudes and coping strategies and may increase endeavor in the adjustment process, and equally, successful coping and adjustment may boost personal satisfaction and therefore amplify commitment to the organization. In the method section, the central place of affective commitment was found in the Bayesian models. This result combined with the other findings in the previous chapters suggests that affective commitment may construct the backbone for the other aspects in the military service. Thus, the importance of commitment in the military over time deserves to be explored and explained in future research.

Table 42 summarizes the results of the all *regression models* where *Military Adjustment* was predicted by background information and questionnaire measures. First of all, by just glancing at the number of occurrences of a given variable, one can quickly determine the importance of the variable in question in the adjustment process. Furthermore, it illustrates the main individual predictors in different models. In addition, it highlights the most important categories for explaining adjustment to the military. Moreover, the table demonstrates the changes among predictors over time. In other words, the underlying reason for identifying the relative change of importance among predictors is the fact that the variables that predict why conscripts adjust to service may be different in changed circumstances over time.

Table 42  
*Predictor Variables of Military Adjustment in Stepwise Regression Models*

Categories of Predictors Variables	t1	t2	t3
<b>1. Demographic Items</b>			
Age	-	-	-
Gender	a12	b14	-
<b>2. Aptitude Measures</b>			
Aptitude test 1 ("IQ" test)	a9	a10	-
Aptitude test 2 (leadership and social skills)	a4	a3	a2
12-minute run test (distance run)	-	a9	-
<b>3. Background Variables</b>			
a) Work History			
Had 6-8 jobs in work history	-	-	a11
Had no job; not in school*	a6/b10	a4/b7/x9	-
Had been fired from a job*	-	a12	-
b) Economic Situation			
Had one or more loans*	-	-	-
Had little or no money*	-	-	-
Shared living costs at home*	-	-	-
c) Social Relationships with Parents and Significant Others and Living Situation			
Less than 7 miles to home from garrison*	a8	a5/b10/x7	a6/b10/x10
More than 150 miles to home from garrison*	-	b11	-
Had lived in more than 8 places*	b15/x13	-	-
Had lived at home with parents*	-	-	-
Father's rank in military service	-	b13	-
Parents were divorced*	-	-	-
Mother had died*	-	-	a8
Father had died*	-	a11	-
Got along with parents	b12	x12	x11
Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	a7/b7	a6/b4/x10	a10/b7
Friends had a positive attitude towards service	a1/b1	a2/b2	a1/b1/x5
Marital Status	b11/x8	a7/b5/x4	a9/b8/x8
Stressful Civilian Life Events (S)		s	s
Expected the military service to have a negative impact on civilian relationships	x4	x6	-
d) Education Experience			
Education level	-	-	a5/b11/x4
GPA at comprehensive school	-	-	b2/x6
Had learning problems at school	b14	-	
Adjustment in Civilian Schooling (S)	x10/s	x3	x2

Table 42 (continued)

e) Deviant Behavior			
Had a criminal record*	-	-	-
Had been charged with an offence as civilian*	-	-	-
Had been arrested*	-	-	-
Frequency of drinking alcohol	a5/b6	-	-
Attitude towards drugs	-	a13/b8	a4/b4/x9
Thinks drug tests should not be allowed*	b13	-	b9
Had quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor*	b5	b12	a7/b5
Did not feel a part of the society (system)	-	-	x7
<b>4. Mental and Physical Health</b>			
Emotional Stability (S)	s	s	s
Reported sleeping disorders*	a11/b4/x11	a8/b6	-
Physical Health (S)	x3/s	s	s
Reported disease or injury before service*	a9	-	-
Frequency of exercising	a10/b8/x7	b3/13	-
<b>5. Personality, Personal Attitudes, and Perceptions about Service</b>			
Military Adjustment (time1)		x1	x1
Intent to Stay (S)	-	s	s
Affective Commitment (S)	s	x5/s	x3/s
Sociability (S)	x5/s	x8/s	s
Acceptance of Authority and Regimentation (S)	x1/s	s	s
Desired duty / service period	a2/b2	a1/b1/x2	a3/b3
Received enough information about conscription	a3/b3/x9	b9	b6
Expected to feel at home in military service	x2	-	-
Was highly motivated to complete the military service	x6	-	-
Stepped into military service with positive expectations	x12	x11	-
<b>6. Situational and Organizational Predictors</b>			
Experienced Hazing (S)		-	-
Peer Cohesion (S)		-	s
Leaders (S)		s	-
Company Climate (S)		s	s
Training Quality (S)		-	-

*Note.* (S) = A scale. \* = A dummy variable. The letters in the columns mean that the item was used in a regression model: a = model of aptitude tests and background items, b = only background items without aptitude items, s = only scales were in the model, x = both scales and background items were in the model. The number in each cell entry indicates the order number of that item in the model in which it was included. The entries in parentheses mean that they were included in a model but did not explain additional variance.

Based on Table 42, age was not a meaningful predictor of adjustment in conscript service, whereas gender had at least a small effect on adjustment expectations and BT experiences. Cognitive and personality characteristics were consistently related to adjustment, and particularly the test of social and leadership skills was one of the best correlates of the background variables. Work history was not directly related to the adjustment process but,



more precisely, problems of getting or having a job explained both low expectations and poor adjustment to BT. Although the mean differences indicated that the economic situation might have a small effect on adjustment models, it turned out that both the number of loans and lack of money were useless for understanding military adjustment. In other words, conscripts had the same kind of opportunities to adjust to the military despite of their economic differences.

Social background and, even more, the attitudinal atmosphere shaped by friends and parents were influential in the military adjustment process. Specifically, the attitudes of significant others (i.e. friends and a girlfriend) was the best background predictor of *Military Adjustment* over time. Moreover, marital status was the only background item that was in the regression models from time 1 to 3 when there were also scales incorporated for the prediction. As Table 42 shows, marital status was the eight predictor in the model at time 1 (which is indicated as x8 in the table). Similarly, it was included in the later models (time 2 – x4 and time 3 – x8). Altogether, the quality of friendship and dating determined a significant proportion of *Military Adjustment*. Parents' attitudes meaningfully affected adjustment, although the effect was smaller than that of friends.

The results of the regression models suggest that adjustment at school is a salient indicator of later adjustment in the military. Although success at school was not crucial for positive expectations or BT adjustment, its relative importance increased over time, and both the education level and GPA at school were in the regression models at the end of service. In general, personality and leadership characteristics (i.e. Aptitude test 2), educational level, and success at school were increasingly important over time. This pattern suggests that the innate capabilities of the conscript take on greater importance as time and training go on, compared to other background variables.

Deviant behavior (e.g. criminal record or extensive drinking) were not as good adjustment predictors as “deviant attitudes” in terms of attitude towards drug use or a feeling of being outsider (deviant) of the society. As expected, mental and physical health were essential for adjustment success. Surprisingly, physical training seemed to be the most demanding during BT (and not later). For example, the 12-minute run test results, perceived physical health, and frequency of exercising were all a part of the models in BT examinations, whereas at the end of service only *Physical Health* explained adjustment perceptions. This may be related to the finding that physical training was rated negatively by the conscripts at the end of service. In other words, BT provided some (physical) challenges, whereas later training offered mediocre physical training and personal development.

The most important category for understanding adjustment (and attrition) consisted of personality-related measures (such as *Sociability* and *Acceptance of Authority*) and attitudinal scales about orientation towards the service and the military. The weight of commitment increased over time, and the item about the desired duty and service period was one of the best individual predictors in all background models. The fact that a conscript considered or desired an extended duration of service or special duty continued to be an influential variable, implies that an initial pre-disposition to plan and obtain something of specific value from the military service secures military adjustment. Desired duty and the duration of service

(i.e. measured as either a continuous or dichotomous dummy variable) was the second most important stepwise background and aptitude variable at time 1, the most important at time 2, and the third most important at time 3 (Table 42).

In general, the low effect of situational and organizational factors was a surprise. Within this category, *Regimentation* was the most meaningful measure for explaining adjustment experiences. Another measure that was salient for alleviating adjustment was a positive unit climate. However, social experiences of service had a low impact on adjustment once social aptitude and social adjustment were included in the models. Moreover, it was astonishing to note the lack of importance of leaders and training on conscripts' adjustment process. From a broader perspective, the adjustment process seems to be predetermined by personal abilities and orientation and not by organizational experiences. This may be due to the fact that conscript service does not currently present consistent training programs or leadership that could ease adjustment over time and encourage to personal development in the military.

Over time, the same measures, in different relative weights, were the dominant predictors: *Sociability*, obedience/adjustment to *Regimentation*, *Physical Health*, and *Commitment*. This predictive consistency and the large amount of variance indicate that a positive attitude towards authority, military service, peers, and leaders along with good physical health facilitate adjustment to military service over the 6 to 12 months' course of training. The rest of the predictors, background and demographic variables as well as other attitudinal scales, had only a limited impact on conscript adjustment, with the exceptions of the items about marital status and the attitudes of significant others.

The above regression models were based on snapshots at three different points in time. Additional analyses were carried out, looking at variable changes over time to find how they were related to changes in the *Military Adjustment* index. For time 1 to time 3 changes, adjustment perceptions were more positive over time if the conscript improved his or her *Sociability* ( $\beta = .29$ ) and *Physical Health* ( $\beta = .22$ ), had fewer *Stressful Life Events* during service than before it ( $\beta = -.12$ ), did not avoid service (i.e. *Malingering*) ( $\beta = -.09$ ), felt not as much different from others than prior to service ( $\beta = -.07$ ), maintained or improved motivation ( $\beta = .07$ ), and was trained more effectively later than during BT ( $\beta = .07$ ). These helpers of the adjustment process explained 23 % of the changes in *Military Adjustment* over time.

Table 43 points out the factors that explained changes in *Military Adjustment* between basic training and later adjustment experiences. The major five scales accounted for almost all of the explained variance. For time 2 to time 3, changes in *Sociability* ( $\beta = .29$ ,  $r = .49^{***}$ ), *Physical Health* ( $\beta = .26$ ,  $r = .47^{***}$ ), *Commitment* ( $\beta = .08$ ,  $r = .37^{***}$ ), *Regimentation* ( $\beta = .12$ ,  $r = .34^{***}$ ), and perceived impact of service on civilian relationships ( $\beta = .11$ ,  $r = .28^{***}$ ) were the major contributors to a model explaining 42 % of the changes of *Military Adjustment*. Thus, improvements in adjustment to social and physical demands and compliance, strengthened commitment, and personal civilian relationships made the adjustment process more successful over time.

Table 43

*Predictors of Changes in Adjustment Perceptions over Time (t2-t3)*

Changes in Measures (t2-t3)	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Change (t2-t3) Sociability	.29	.001	.49	.49	.24
2) Change (t2-t3) Physical Health	.26	.001	.47	.57	.33
3) Change (t2-t3) Affective Commitment	.08	.01	.37	.62	.39
4) Change (t2-t3) Regimentation	.12	.001	.34	.64	.41
5) Change (t2-t3) Service Impact on Civilian Relationships	.11	.00	.28	.65	.42
6) Change (t2-t3) Highly motivated	.13	.001	.34	.66	.43
7) Change (t2-t3) Emotional Stability	.07	.01	.34	.66	.44
8) Change (t2-t3) Intent to Stay	.06	.01	.28	.67	.44

Note.  $n = 1,521$ . For the 10-item model,  $R = .67$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .44$ .

### 7.5.3 Structural Equation Modeling of Military Adjustment over Time

The last phase of the results gathers all the main aspects of *Military Adjustment* over time into a simple model. This conceptual model, comprising the main predictors of expected, BT, and later military adjustment, was tested by structural equation modeling. The primary purpose for the modeling and testing was to simplify the results and summarize the essential relations of the main adjustment variables. Specifically, the tested model examined whether adjustment expectations prior to service predicted the BT adjustment experiences, and the extent to which expectations and BT adjustment predicted later adjustment in the military. The four main aspects of adjustment that were identified in the regression models (i.e. affective commitment, physical adjustment, social adjustment, and adjustment to regimentation) established the indicators of the latent factors (Figure 4).

Actually, Figure 4 tells the whole story of the research in a nutshell. There are three measurement models (i.e. adjustment expectations, BT adjustment, and later adjustment). Specifically, the standardized regression weights imply that the *Adjustment Expectations* - model had a strong, direct effect on the *Basic Training* model ( $\beta = .74$ ) which, in turn, affected the *Military Adjustment* model at the end of service ( $\beta = .56$ ). Moreover, adjustment expectations moderately influenced adjustment experiences at the end of service ( $\beta = .31$ ). The results suggest that adjustment expectations shape the conscripts' way of facing the military service: positive expectations and self-efficacy about the personal ability to adjust to service turn to successful adjustment experiences in BT, whereas negative expectations precede maladjustment in service (e.g. 54 % of BT adjustment was predicted by expectations).

The results suggest that military adjustment (although explained by current four component factors) is also predetermined by prior adjustment prospects and experiences. This suggests that prior adjustment orientation and experiences are the point of reference for the approach (attitudes, appraisals, and coping strategies) to the later phases of the adjustment process. Although expectations explain the success of adjustment during the following experiences, its effect does not last in the long run, such as at the later phases of service. In the model, this was indicated by a notably lower beta weight (of .31) from expectations to the last phase of adjustment compared to the effect of BT adjustment on later military adjustment.

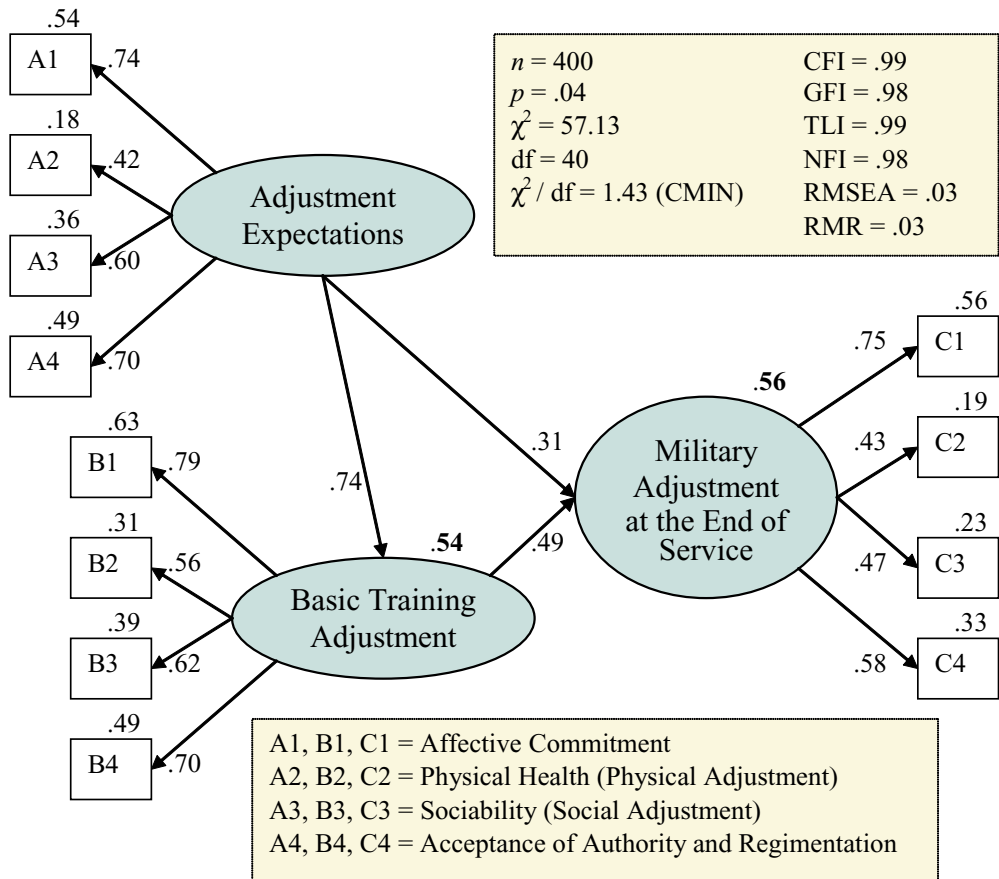


Figure 4. Structural Equation Model of Adjustment Factors over Time

Adjustment factors had relatively strong factor loadings with their components. In terms of individual measures, *Affective Commitment* and adjustment to *Regimentation* were most strongly explained by the latent factor. For example, *Military Adjustment* at the end of service explained 56 % of *Affective Commitment* and 33 % of adjustment to *Regimentation*. Interestingly, *Physical Health* had the highest values as a function of (the latent factor of) *Basic Training Adjustment*, which suggests that it was a more salient part of adjustment during BT compared to expectations of later adjustment.

The main implication is that the provided information prior to service should awaken an interest in the military in the prospective recruits. Therefore, the rise of positive (accurate) expectations of service members and their family is the main objective of civil-military relations. After the entry to the military, the second aim should be facilitating the assimilation and adjustment of recruits in every possible way. Successful BT adjustment makes effective, satisfying service possible even at the end of service, whereas maladjustment in BT undermines also later experiences in the military.

*Estimates of the Model Fit.* As a strictly confirmatory situation, only one structural equation model was formulated based on the research and empirical data was obtained to test it (Jöreskog, 1993, p. 295) by utilizing the AMOS statistical program (Arbuckle, 2006). The

model focused on the data of the second contingent in 2001 consisting of 799 conscripts who completed their military obligation. For the analysis, the data was divided to two random subsamples. For both groups of people, two analyses of the model were conducted: the first one with raw measures and the second one with normalized measures. The normalization of the measures was made due to relatively high skewness and kurtosis of the data. Although the results favored the normalized data and provided a better fit of the model, the reported data was made of raw measures to provide more truthful results. In the analysis, successive error terms of the indicators were relaxed to correlate.

The first (random) part of the subsample consisted of 400 conscripts, and its results are presented in Figure 4. The cross-validation of this model is reported in Appendix 11. In order to clarify the results, the error terms of the latent measures and their correlations were omitted in the figure, although the output of the analysis provided such information. In Figure 4, several model fit criteria interpret the structural equation model and its congruence with the data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 81), and, more precisely, whether the model fits the sample variance-covariance data (op.cit. p. 112). Typically, the following estimates are reported in SEM research: (1) the model chi-square, (2) the Steiger-Lind root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), (3) the Bentler comparative fit index (CFI), and (4) the standard root mean square residual (SRMR) (Kline, 2005, p. 134).

Chi-square divided by degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2 / df$ ) is a commonly reported estimate which describes whether the model fits the data (Bentler, 1980, p. 428). In this case, it was 1.43, which is less than 5.0, regarded as a line between a good and poor fit of a model (Bollen, 1989, p. 278), indicating that “the model provides a plausible representation of the causal process” in the data (Bentler, 1980, p. 428). However, the probability level of the model was .039, which should be for a good fit more than .05. This was perhaps due to the relatively large  $n$  (= 400) and slight skewness and kurtosis of the data. Although the significance level did not support the fit, the other estimates backed the fit to the data. In fact, the  $\chi^2$  value tends to reject an acceptable fit more easily than it should (Browne & Cudeck, 1993, p. 137; Gerbing & Anderson, 1993, p. 49). Furthermore, the literature suggests that the  $\chi^2$  value is not alone an optimal basis for assessing the quality of a model because it is easily affected by the distribution of variables (e.g. skewness and kurtosis of variables increase chi-square values) and the sample size (the chi-square increases due to the large sample size which turns the chi-square more likely significant; Bollen & Long, 1993, p. 3). Thus, the rejection of a good model is possible when  $N$  is large, even though the differences between observed and predicted covariances are slight (Kline, 2005, p. 136; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996, p. 135; Steiger, 1990, p. 173). Therefore, the following measures were also employed to test the *Military Adjustment* model.

The root mean square index (i.e. RMSEA; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) (Steiger, 1990, p. 177) also implies the extent the model fits the data (i.e. the population covariance matrix). It is bounded by 0 and will take on that value when the model exactly reproduces a set of observed data. Browne and Cudeck (1993, p. 144) suggest that a value of less than .05 is indicative of a close fit, values between .05 and .08 suggest a fair fit (or *a reasonable error of approximation*), and a value higher than .10 signifies a poor fit and could be considered the upper bound of the fit for RMSEA. MacCallum et al. (1996) regard values in the range of .08 and .10 as signifying mediocre fit. In this research, the result .033

indicates a reasonably good fit. Even more, the 90 % confidence interval ranges from .008 to .051, which demonstrates with high precision that the model fits the data sufficiently.

The CFI (Comparative Fit Index) varies between 0 and 1 (Browne, MacCallum, Andersen, Cheong-Tag, & Glaser, 2003, p. 405), and values of .95 or higher indicate an acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999, p. 27). In this model, the CFI strongly supported the fit between the model and the data because the value was .99. The Bentler – Bonett (1980, pp. 599-600) Normed Fit Index indicates a discrepancy between the model and the data. In this case the value .98 denotes a good fit. Similarly, the following “goodness of fit” measures lent a support for considering the model as an adequate. RMR (Root Mean Square Residual) compares whether the variance and covariance of the model and the data diverge from one another. Since the range of the scales of observed variables was the same (1 to 5), the RMR was an acceptable measure for reporting (Kline, 2005, p. 141). In this model, the value of 0 means a perfect fit and 1 a total unfit (Arbuckle, 2006, p. 551). Therefore, the value .03 suggests a good fit between the model and the data.

Besides chi-square, perhaps the most often employed estimate is GFI (Goodness of Fit Index) varying between zero and one, where the theoretical value of 1 refers to a perfect fit. In this case, the value was .98, meaning that the model accounted for 98 % of the variances and covariances of the variables (Hu & Bentler, 1995), and it was considerably more than the rule of thumb (i.e. the limit of .90) (Gerbing & Anderson, 1993, p. 51). In other words, the Goodness of Fit Index suggested a good fit. Similarly, the Tucker-Lewis coefficient (TLI) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980, p. 599; Tucker & Lewis, 1973, pp. 5–6) supported a good fit (.99). Moreover, all the above values were more than .95, which could be considered a more stringent limit for accepting the model (Bollen & Stine, 1993, p. 133; Hu & Bentler, 1999, p. 27; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 83). In all, the model estimates suggest that the particular adjustment model represents the pattern of the main adjustment factors in the reality. Thus, the adjustment model corresponded to the data, and therefore it could be regarded as a basis for the studies on adjustment and testing of the measures in the future.

## 7.6 Summary of Results

*Predictors of Expected Adjustment.* Based on the results of the regression analysis, the best background predictors of *Military Adjustment* were friends’ attitudes toward military service, recruits’ own desires for duty and the service period, prior information, and personality and leadership characteristics (i.e. Aptitude test 2). Additionally, a healthy lifestyle (i.e. exercising and moderate drinking), lack of stressful life events in civilian life, good civilian relationships (without quarrels), and positive learning experiences at school predicted positive expectations. On the other hand, items about demographics or past behavior had a low effect on the prediction of adjustment expectations.

In terms of scales about personal traits and attitudes, 50 % of adjustment expectations were explained by perceptions about personal obedience, commitment, physical health, and social adjustment. Specifically, positive adjustment expectations were perceived among recruits who were committed, adequately informed, ready for longer than 6 months of service, adjusted easily to social and authority relationships, as well as the physical demands of the

military, and whose friends gave positive attitudinal backup. In brief, such recruits were mentally and physically prepared to meet the new situational and organizational demands in the military.

*Predictors of Basic Training Adjustment.* The most crucial part of socialization process took a place during BT, and the recruits' ability to adjust was under a test. Based on background items, BT adjustment experiences were predicted by a recruit's desire for the duty and service period, attitudes of friends, and Aptitude test 2 (about personality and leadership characteristics). Actually, these were the same background predictors that explained the adjustment expectations prior to service. In addition, recruits who were unemployed, had their home too close to the garrison, and were dating or married had more problems to adjust during BT. On the contrary, items about demographics, criminal, educational, and socio-economic background did not have as much an impact on the first military adjustment experiences. Basically, this finding indicates that only few people had *learning problems* during the relatively uncomplicated BT and that recruits who had a criminal background may have had other harsh adjustment experiences in the past that hardened them to the demands in the military. In summary, personal orientation to service (in terms of desired service), attitudes of the surroundings in civilian life, civilian problems (such as unemployment and social relationship troubles), and personal competence predicted BT adjustment.

The results suggest high importance of personal positive expectations and attitudes for the adjustment process. Particularly, positive adjustment expectations, a determined intent to stay in service, feeling at home in the military, and expecting no unfavorable impact on civilian relationships explained successful BT adjustment. In addition to positive attitudes and orientation, physical fitness, obedience, and being single made the person stronger for bearing the military rudiments. Note that marital status was the only background item that consistently came up in all adjustment models. The results also suggest that a personal development after induction in sociability, emotional stability, and physical health favored positive adjustment experiences. Thus, military training may have a positive indirect effect on adjustment through the improvement of mental, social, and physical efficacy.

*Predictors of Military Adjustment at the End of Service.* The following five background and aptitude variables explained 20 % of adjustment variance at the end of service, and the first three predictors were also the best background predictors in time 1 and 2 adjustment models: attitudes of friends ( $\beta = .23, r = .31^{***}$ ), conscript's tested social and leadership skills ( $\beta = .16, r = .30^{***}$ ), and his or her desired duty and service period ( $\beta = .12, r = .28^{***}$ ). A positive attitude towards drug use was negatively related to later adjustment experiences ( $\beta = -.13, r = -.22^{***}$ ), whereas the education level had a positive relation with it ( $\beta = .10, r = .21^{***}$ ). Comparing the adjustment expectations and BT experiences, the most notable difference was that success in education was a more reliable predictor of adjustment at the end of service than many other background items. Thus, education achievements and experiences predict adjustment success in the military. In terms of prior adjustment, adjustment at school, adjustment expectations prior to service, and adjustment experiences in BT foretold 37 % of the variance of adjustment at the end of service.

Personal traits for successful military adjustment include a positive affect towards military obligation (i.e. willingness and commitment to serve), sociability, compliance, and coping with fast pace and regimentation. Overall,  $\frac{1}{3}$  of later adjustment was explained when these factors were measured and taken into account before service and during BT. The same factors explained  $\frac{2}{3}$  of existing adjustment perceptions: (1) social adjustment, (2) previous adjustment experiences in BT, (3) adjustment to regimentation, (4) physical adjustment, and (5) affective commitment to the military ( $R = .82$ ,  $R^2 = .67$ , and 56% of the variance in the structural equation modeling). Perhaps the most worrying finding was the low influence of situational military-related adjustment factors (as a low impact of training quality on adjustment). Remarkably, it seems that leadership and instructors have no direct influence on adjustment when other factors are considered. Therefore, leaders should make more active tactful efforts to support soldiers' adjustment. Currently, soldiers are on their own. In other words, their personal traits, such as sociability, obedience, commitment, and physical health determine the end result of the military adjustment process (see the results of regression models and the structural equation modeling).

*Predictors of Attrition (i.e. Separation from Service).* From the beginning sample ( $n = 2,003$ ), there were 211 cases of attrition (10.5 %). Most of these (62.1 %) were discharged during the first two weeks of service and over 80 % of the attritees were separated by the end of the eight weeks of BT (refer back to Table 30). First, different attrition categories were compared, and it was noted that recruits who requested an alternative civilian service were similar to recruits who were discharged due to mental health-related minor adjustment problems. The next phase drew a comparison between the attrition and completion groups, where several differences of means were distinguished. Finally, attrition and completion were explained and the strongest predictor variables determined by utilizing three complementing approaches: discriminant analysis, logistic regression, and survival analysis. Each approach provided parallel results in terms of the set of overall strongest predictors.

Essentially, personality and attitude scales were the best predictors in explaining the separation between the attrition group and the completion group rather than demographic or background variables. The main measures of the research (i.e. *Military Adjustment* and *Intent to Stay*) were also prominent predictors of either attrition or completion. The other predictors showed that obedient, physically fit, committed conscripts who were single, and had no offences or criminal record, who were successful and adjusted at school, and had higher education than a comprehensive school, adjusted adequately to service at a level that permitted them to complete the obligation.



## 8 DISCUSSION

### 8.1 Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this research was to expand the existing previous studies by examining a diverse collection of adjustment and attrition-related factors and combining them in predicting the whole range of adjustment experiences (from maladjustment and attrition to successful and satisfying adjustment). To fulfill this purpose, the research identified (a) the main factors that influence the whole range of adjustment attitudes and behavior, (b) recruits at the greatest risk of maladjustment and attrition, and (c) the main outcomes of the adjustment process.

On the basis of the previous studies it was evident that *personal resources and attributes* govern the extent to which situational factors have an impact on the personal adjustment process. Thus, under the same circumstances a person with inadequate personal capabilities suffers more anxiety, uncertainty, and fear than another person with better social, physical, and emotional condition and abilities. The kinds of personal factors considered included such items and measures as demographics, socio-economic situation, work, education, and deviant background, cognitive abilities, sociability, physical health, emotional stability, obedience, and personal attitudes and commitment.

Typically, *situational factors* are related to a particular organizational situation which creates anxiety and strain. On the other hand, especially social aspects of organizational factors, such as friendship or quality of leadership, provide social and leader support, which may counteract stressful factors and, therefore, ease the personal adjustment process. In terms of situational demands, both formal and informal experiences influence the conscript's ability to cope and adjust. Particularly, high standards, long, hectic days, social learning and performance situations, the constant presence of peers, and pervasive observation and evaluation by superiors cause stress in the military. In this regard, the research discussed the problems and consequences encountered by a person attempting to adjust from civilian to military life. Especially, the employed situational factors took into account the impact of organizational experiences on the adjustment process. Therefore, the conscripts' overall adjustment to military life was assessed, as well as the importance of social relationships, leadership, regimentation, training quality, and civilian relationships in this process.

The synthesis of the literature review suggests that recruits' coping resources and adjustment success are predetermined by situational and personality antecedents (e.g. from Stouffer et al., 1949 to HumRRO, 2004). Moreover, the complex combination of situational and personal factors control (a) the extent of experienced distress and dysfunction, (b) the employed coping strategies, and (c) the outcomes of the adjustment process, such as the extent of personal satisfaction, social integration in the group, and organizational socialization.

## 8.2 Main Results

### 8.2.1 Expected Adjustment

The first set of analyses focused on answering to the research questions for determining the major personal factors and variables that predict adjustment expectations at the start of military service, the extent to which those expectations were related to self-perceived adjustment and attitudes at two later points in time, as well as to completion of service and the leader ratings of conscript training performance (see the research questions in the Method section).

The variables that predicted *Military Adjustment* were well identified (Table 13) as: a) *Acceptance of Authority*, b) *Affective Commitment*, c) *Physical Health*, and d) *Sociability*; together explaining 50 % of the variance in the *Military Adjustment* expectations. Overall, attitudes, perceptions, and personality characteristics measured by the predictor scales were stronger and had more direct influences on the expected adjustment of conscripts compared to individual background variables. As such, the predictor variables need to be considered in any efforts to improve or make more realistic the expected adjustment of conscripts.

Of the background items and aptitude, the most influential predictors of adjustment expectations were the attitudes of friends and parents towards the military, the recruit's desire for duty and service period, prior information, and personality and leadership characteristics. Of particular interest was the fact that some variables useful in predicting conscript attrition (e.g. *Emotional Stability*, *Intent to Stay*, education level, criminal record, and the past economic difficulties) were not especially useful in predicting expected adjustment. In short, what predicts (expected) success is different from what predicts failure in the Finnish military service. In all, the four best predictors tell a coherent story. Expected adjustment is high for those who are generally sociable, with an affective commitment to their military service, can accept orders, and perceive themselves to be up for the physical demands of military service.

The identified relation of certain background variables with expected adjustment (e.g. Table A8.2 in Appendix 8) suggests that although the relation is less strong than with the predictor scales, also these background variables should be considered in any efforts to improve or make more realistic the expected adjustment of conscripts. In particular, extra efforts should be made to ensure that conscripts are provided with sufficient and accurate information prior to reporting for military service, and friends and family members should be persuaded as well as the conscripts about the value and importance of military service. As evident, those with negative past experiences, such as crime, substance abuse, problems at school or at work or in interpersonal relationships, should be given extra attention so that the given individuals could better develop positive attitudes and adjustment expectations. Finally, it is useful to recognize variables which were found to have little or no significance for expected adjustment so that time and resources are not wasted in addressing people identified with those characteristics (e.g. parents' class/status or whether a conscript was studying or working prior to entering service).

The importance of expected adjustment was verified through its correlation with self-perceived adjustment at the end of BT and the end of the military service obligation. Its further importance was shown in its ability to contribute to marking out conscripts who completed military service from those who dropped out (Table 35). However, the index was not needed for predicting leader-rated performance by a conscript near the end of military service. For this prediction, the variables were related to prior civilian schooling, *Physical Health*, *Emotional Stability*, and *Intent to Stay*. Nonetheless, in both types of analyses (discharged vs. completers and low vs. high performers) and in its correlation with later adjustment, expected military adjustment demonstrated its importance for an accurate prediction.

Adjustment expectations were formed slightly differently than expectations about staying in the military. The main common predictor between adjustment expectations and intentions to stay in the military was commitment, which formed the base for both factors. The main difference between adjustment perceptions and the considered separation was that adjustment perceptions were explained by whether the person expected to adjust to physical, social, and authority *demands of the new situational factors*, whereas the person considered separation due to ill-fated *personal (background) factors*, such as poor mental health, deviance, low intelligence, or bad attitudes among parents.

### **8.2.2 Basic Training Adjustment**

Conscripts' personal adjustment to the military emphasizes BT when most profound effects of socialization take place, requiring personal coping and adjustment efforts. Correspondingly, most maladjustment problems occur during the early phases of training. Attrition ratings are an evidence of that: 62.1 % of all attrition cases were discharged during the first two weeks. However, after BT and during the maintenance phase of socialization, the relative weight of situational factors changes. For example, adjustment to regimentation is no longer as laborious, because the main military rudiments are already learnt. On the other hand, the balance between civilian economic and relationship problems and military service surfaces as a relevant situational adjustment factor, and social, physical, supervision, and training factors may remain constant as predictors of later adjustment success.

The second set of analyses defined the main variables that predicted military adjustment during the basic training period (i.e. the second main research question), the extent to which the personal background and characteristics associated with BT adjustment, the variables that differentiate perceived maladjustment and successful adjustment to BT, and the extent to which basic training adjustment perceptions related to self-perceived adjustment and other criteria at the end of service.

*Regimentation* is a strong predictor of adjustment during BT. The level of *commitment* and motivation to serve in the military also labeled the recruits in terms of their adjustment success. Additionally, the extent to which the military was perceived to come between the person and his or her *civilian relationships* explained satisfaction with the adjustment process. Particularly, if the person experienced *stressful civilian events* during BT, such as quarrels or economic problems, he or she had more difficulties in focusing on adjustment to service.

During BT, the recruits live and perform together almost all the time. Therefore, personal characteristics and social leadership skills (e.g. measured by personality and leadership style inventory [Aptitude test 2] and *Sociability*) ease adjustment to group life. The *quality of leaders* contributes to several aspects of service, such as, training, regimentation, and unit climate, and, moreover, good basic training leaders support the personal adjustment process of the recruit. Since military training differs from previous experiences due to constant physical strain, strong *physical health* helps the recruits significantly in their BT adjustment process. On the other hand, non-committed and unmotivated recruits, who had difficulties in adjusting to military regime, leadership, and social relationships, who were depressed, who were physically unfit, and whose civilian relationships were more troublesome than supportive had difficulties to cope with military basic training. Even one such negative experience or perception could have been enough to endanger the conscript's adjustment process in the military.

In terms of background and aptitude items, conscripts' expectations (requested duty and service period) and the influence of friends either supported or complicated adjustment. For example, those who had obligations in civilian life (due to social or economic ties) were more likely to report adjustment problems. Thus, single recruits can (more easily) sever the connections to the civilian world (for a while) and focus on events in the military environment. Another background item indicated that *success* at school (e.g. GPA) was not influential in the BT adjustment process. However, *adjustment experiences* at school were highly useful for understanding success in the military.

As a conclusion of BT adjustment, the circumstances that are the most conducive to adjustment comprise both personal and situational factors, although emphasizing the personal traits and attitudes of the conscript. Especially, the extent to which the recruits are tuned to military experiences and to its social, authority, and physical demands determine his or her adjustment success in the military. Thus, a positive attitude towards military service and good mental and physical health facilitate adjustment efforts, as already suggested by conscripts' adjustment stories (see the Method section). Moreover, personal ability to obey orders and stand the daily requirements helps in BT adjustment. With an assistance of some situational factors, such as peer, leader, and organizational support and even more with the support of friends, spouse, and family, adjustment to the military would be an even more satisfying process.

The basic training period is an intense socialization phase filled with daily routines and diverse training experiences. Bearing that in mind, it was a surprising that challenging *training* was not a construct that explained adjustment perceptions after other measures were controlled, even though it was strongly related to *Military Adjustment* on the basis of the correlations. Overall, the impact of leaders, training, and group experiences was low on the conscript's personal adjustment. This implies that there is a lot of room for effective peer and leader support and positive organizational experiences in order to improve military adjustment among conscripts. In other words, leadership and training programs should take into account methods that make social learning, teamwork, leader support, and positive learning atmosphere flourishing.

Again, *Military Adjustment* was related to the outcomes and predicted attrition (as a third best factor after intent to leave and education level). In addition, adjustment perceptions were in significant relation to avoidance of service by malingering, whether the service had a negative impact on civilian relationships, and the instructor-rated conscript performance at the end of service, and own perceived performance (i.e. self-efficacy). Although some of these relations were moderate, the results suggested that conscripts who adjusted well to their service performed better at the end of service, without avoidance of daily training, and felt that the military obligation did not interfere with their civilian relationships.

### **8.2.3 Adjustment at the End of Service and over Time**

This section of research answered to the third set of research questions. Specifically, the analysis identified the variables and factors that predict military adjustment at the end of service (i.e. the third main research question), the extent to which the personal background and characteristics associated with later adjustment, the variables that distinguish maladjustment and successful adjustment, and the extent to which military adjustment related to positive and negative outcomes at the end of service. Moreover, the structural equation modeling and regression analysis was utilized to explain the changes in adjustment over time.

Demographic items, aptitude, and most background variables were only of modest value in predicting adjustment at any time period and only if considered without personality and personal attitude predictor scales (see Tables 11, 17, and Table A8.11 in Appendix 8). The main categories of background items predicting adjustment at the end of service were educational history (i.e. graduation level and GPA) and social background (e.g. attitudes of friends and marital status). The predictive value of demographic, aptitude, and background variables decreased over time as estimated by  $R^2$ s from time 1 (.28 %) to time 3 (.23 %). In contrast, the personal attitude predictor scales, with a few background items, explained twice the amount of variance compared to the demographic, aptitude, and background variables alone (e.g. Tables 13, 19, and 26). The comparison of the tables shows that experience-based attitudes are much more accurate predictors of the attitudes representing military adjustment, assessed contemporaneously, than indirect measures, such as demographic, cognitive abilities, personality and leadership characteristics, or most background variable predictors that are assessed prior to or upon entry into military service (e.g. Table 42).

Adjustment to military service is typically fairly good at the start of basic training and stays at that level throughout conscript service. Nonetheless, it seems that a girlfriend and civilian friends have an increasing influence on adjustment perceptions over time, and a conscript not resolving relationship problems may have difficulties to focus on service (even though the person may easily adjust to the rigors of military discipline and life). In comparison, a number of attitudes about military service seem to decline over time. For example, *Affective Commitment*, *Achievement Motivation*, and *Intent to Stay* all decreased from time 1 to time 2 to time 3 (e.g. Appendix 7). This may be why neither training nor leaders were important predictors of military adjustment. For example, for time 3 there were three different scales of leaders considered for the model (i.e. confidence in squad and platoon leaders, and officers), but none of those were influential according to the final time 3 military adjustment model (Table 26). Contrary to the leadership measures, the constant value of social aspects suggests

that the person's own ability to interpersonal *peer relations* is strongly predicts adjustment in military service.

The most influential (big four) personal factors are *Acceptance of Authority*, *Sociability*, *Affective Commitment*, and *Physical Health* (see Tables 13, 19, and 26, and the SEM model). Together they account for 45 % of the variance in military adjustment at time 1 but increase to explain 62 % of the variance by time 2, the end of BT, and 63 % by time 3, the end of conscript training. In other words, sociable, committed, motivated, and healthy people are better in their adjustment to social and leadership relations, conscript training, and the pace and regime of the military. In terms of criteria, military adjustment is significantly related to a number of social, behavioral and attitudinal phenomena. For example, *Military Adjustment* correlated with experienced hazing, decent service without reprimands and penalties, performance as rated by military leaders, expected personal performance during battle, intentions to participate in refresher training later, attitudes toward national defense, and the perception that military service had provided personal growth and development.

Many of the relevant existing studies were limited in their usability because they addressed too restricted a predictor space or criterion space, did not define adjustment well, or did not examine changes over time. This research overcomes those limitations by presenting a broad picture concerning military adjustment over time, its predictors, and its outcomes. Because the coverage is extensive, many interesting specific issues have been left out for later in-depth analyses and future research. In terms of meaningful findings, of particular interest was the relative strength of the different categories of predictor variables identified from previous studies, such as demographic variables, aptitude, background variables, mental and physical health, personality and personal attitudes, and service members' perceptions and experiences of the military environment (Table 42).

#### **8.2.4 Predictors of Attrition (i.e. Separation from Service)**

The last set of the research questions dealt with the reasons for early separation from service. The series of diverse analyses examined the main categories of attrition, the main differences of these categories, the predictors of adjustment-related attrition, and the strongest predictors of attrition from service.

Consequently, the results of this research are similar to the outcomes presented in most prior research. In other words, the risk of attrition increases in the case of service members with only limited schooling, some physical health problems, signs of mental health difficulties or substance abuse, lower aptitude and motivation, a history of behavioral problems at school or with the legal system, and significantly older or younger than their peers. The major difference compared to the present research is that, because the sample was from a nation with conscript service, attitudes toward the military (i.e. *Affective Commitment*) and service members' sense of military obligation (i.e. *Normative Commitment* and *Intent to Stay*) were of significant importance to attrition.

Despite the general similarity of findings, knowledge of the strongest predictors, and the extensive amount of research on attrition, the cumulative success of attrition research has

been only modest. The use of many predictor variables, large samples, and several analytic techniques still only permits the explanation of 40 % of the variance. Moreover, the use of models with a high number of predictor variables still predicts attrition for (misclassifies) a substantial percentage of the high-risk cases who will complete their service training or tour of duty, and fails to identify many low-risk cases who will drop out.

This moderate success suggests that either the research is (a) missing one or more individual-level predictor variables (e.g. possibly some aspect of organizational commitment, sense of meaning of the service for the service member, the extent to which the service member is just trying out the military as a possible employer, and social influences, such as from other conscripts or from girlfriends), or (b) focusing on the wrong units of analysis or not incorporating enough levels of analysis (e.g. possibly added units of analysis might include the persons, organizations, and their policies that influence the attrition decision rather than using the service member and his shortcomings as the sole unit of analysis), or (c) not likely to capture a more detailed explanation for what is actually a random event resulting from multitudinous interacting factors. If the latter is the case, then further attrition research would benefit from focusing on adjustment to the military or on designing and evaluating the effectiveness of new or improved programs or treatments to enhance adjustment rather than trying to identify more precisely the factors causing attrition. On a positive note, many of the predictor variables associated with attrition, such as *Intent to Stay* and *Military Adjustment*, are ones that insightful leaders can influence. It is likely therefore that programs to reduce attrition should include specific tools and guidance for leaders on how they can make a positive contribution to prevent attrition.

As noted above, military adjustment is a different variable from attrition. They are not opposites but have different predictors, with aptitude and background variables appearing to play a much stronger role in attrition. Likewise, military adjustment is a different variable from social group experiences, which has somewhat different predictors and appears to peak at the end of BT when the conscripts are connected through the intense, leader-attentive, shared, and homogeneous experience of a rigorous common training program. For example, this was reflected in the *Sociability* and *Emotional Stability* scales that had their peak means at the end of BT. While the precise causal relations between all the variables and adjustment are not clear, a major benefit of the analysis in this research is in identifying the main predictor variables that should be included in future research and the many weak variables that could well be excluded.

### 8.3 Limitations

Although this research carefully considered many personal and organizational aspects of both maladjustment and success in adjustment, there were some details in the research process where an alternative decision could have been made or something was not known or taken into account when data collection or analysis were conducted. Next, these research limitations are detailed and alternative methods are discussed.

First of all, the study population predominantly consisted of men, which limits the generalization of the results to women. In Finland, conscript service is voluntary for women

and there is a possibility for them to drop out without consequences during the first 45 days. The perceptual attrition is higher with women and also the reasons differ from those of men due to the different basic rules. In order to find general factors that explain military adjustment among women, more research is required in various military units, tasks, and deployment situations.

In terms of measures, some interesting and useful measures could be used in the future, although they were not utilized in this work. For example, the conscripts' personality was not assessed by "The big five" factors of personality (e.g. Hogan, Barrett, & Hogan, 2007, p. 1274), but using the official military tests of personality. Also optimism, hardiness, self-efficacy, or locus of control could explain adjustment success in the military. In addition, changing focus from the broad picture of adjustment to specific situation-related coping would allow creation and utilization of measures in particular circumstances of the adjustment process. The incorporation of coping strategies with other measures would make it possible to examine whether coping changes over time when the person possibly develops due to experience, and whether coping strategies and their changes affect adjustment success and attrition in the military.

The data included factors that were composed on the basis of conscripts' responses to certain attitudinal measures. However, these responses may contain some bias due to mood changes and are not as accurate as for example demographic information. For example, Laurence and Waters (1993, p. 60) assume that recruits may have portrayed themselves in the best light during BT when their selection to further training was topical, or they may have faked in some socially desirable manner. On the other hand, recently occurred bad experiences in service may have influenced the responses more than expected, or just occurred civilian problems may have been carried to the answers. In order to mitigate some limitations of the survey questions, biodata were utilized for complementing the personality measures more sensitive for inaccuracies (due to faking or lapse of memory as suggested by Edwards et al., 1993, p. 220). Although all the available civilian and military records about conscripts' maladjustment problems (such as civilian and military criminal record, reasons of attrition, doctors' appointments, and exemptions) were incorporated, as well as some positive indicators of adjustment (e.g. rank, days in service, and performance ratings by instructors), still these variables do not directly verify conscripts' attitudes and behaviors. To understand the ultimate purpose or components behind personal adjustment and an attrition decision, the combination of surveys, information in records, observation, and interviews could be an ideal solution.

Although a researcher could find out all the details in a person's background, attitudes, values, and aspirations, and standardize them, still a specific environment brings variations to the adjustment results, and even more in the military, where there are several units that have slightly different manpower policies and management (decision making, information flow, and routines), leadership (support and coaching), tasks (individual and/or team duties), training programs, interpersonal relationships, and norms (how actions are guided and conducted). Thus, there are numerous intervening situational variables that are difficult to control in a research design. Moreover, beyond the unit level, there are several professionals who, for example, try to "reduce the attrition prediction" by supporting recruits in their problems (e.g. social welfare officers, chaplains, and medical doctors). And again at the



individual level, every person has his or her own interpretation of these situational variables, which should be noted to fully understand all the coping responses. As a positive note, the diversity of possible explanations and challenges of conducting research make adjustment an extremely interesting and challenging, and, in some cases, even rewarding topic.

## 8.4 Future Research

*Recommendations for the Data Collection and Research Methods.* As was discussed in the section about the limitations of the research, there is still work to be done to combine the theory of military adjustment and the data available effectively to explain maladjustment and success in the military. Since adjustment is essentially a process, the main requirement for the data is that they are longitudinal in order to examine attitudinal and behavioral *changes* and *consequences* of adjustment. Then, the complexity of the overall adjustment process could be uncovered by utilizing longitudinal data and studying snapshots of adjustment phases and the strength of predictors at one point of time, as well as changes in coping and adjustment over time and different outcomes of adjustment as a function of the developing adjustment process.

The effect of situational stressors on adjustment eventually changes over time. For example, social experiences may cause a substantial amount of stress during induction, but even two or three weeks later the same element (i.e. a group membership) may be among the best buffering factors against stress. Thus, in addition to the changes over time, *the essence of the environment* where adjustment takes place should be under control in attrition and adjustment research.

However, one research method (such as quantitative approach) never explains a phenomenon comprehensively. There is always some unexplained variance in the analysis. Although quantitative research helps to understand the general trends in adjustment (e.g. the main predictors), many illogical findings or unexplained variance could be clarified with qualitative methods. Especially, adjustment as a research object and, specifically, reasons for maladjustment and successful adjustment are so versatile that it is extremely difficult to find all possible combinations of variables that are at play. For example, even the reasons for personal willingness to adjust (without considering the process of adjustment at all) differ based on the variation in the individuals' mental, physical, or social skills and experiences, previous authoritarian relations, behavioral background, examples and attitudes provided at home, school, work, and among peers, and expectations about the military period and about life in general. Due to complex, dynamic characteristics of adjustment process and its predictors, there is a need for a multi-methodological and interdisciplinary research on personal adjustment and attrition.

A solution for clarifying the unexplained variance is skillful and balanced use of versatile methods for answering research questions. Already Campbell and Fiske (1959) brought the interest to multiple methods and various data collections. However over time, different qualitative and quantitative "schools" mainly stayed separate from each other. Methodological clarity and simplicity was reached while creativity and diversity to confront problematic research questions and contradictions was not (methodologically) legitimated

and supported. One of the first suggestions to broaden the perspective was provided by the term of triangulation where “within-method” triangulation refers to the assessment internal consistency or reliability and “between-method” triangulation denotes to the examination of the degree of external validity (Jick, 1979, p. 603). Nowadays, the *mixed methods research* is the phrase for describing an “inclusive, pluralistic, and complementary” ways of conducting research that overcomes weaknesses found in single method designs (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, pp. 14–15, 17) and thereby provide a reliable and consistent explanation to the research question(s) that do not vary due to method employed but instead improve conceptual understanding of the complexity of human phenomena (Sandelowski, 2000, p. 246).

Since this research provided a detailed overview about adjustment factors from the quantitative perspective, the next step that would benefit adjustment and attrition research could be the qualitative approach or mixed methods research. Particularly, the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is highly recommended in order to increase understanding about the phenomenon in question. In other words, this research uncovered the general pattern in military adjustment and attrition – the main predictors and consequences of adjustment – the future research could ask why maladjustment and attrition take place in particular circumstances. The specific viewpoint could be psychological, educational, social psychological, physiological, or management. However, the communality would be the shift from the explanation of the overall rule to the understanding of the exceptions. In this research, quantitative methods explained roughly 50 % of the variance. The qualitative approach is of particular use for helping to understand the last 50 % of the phenomenon. Next, some examples are offered about possible ways to tackle adjustment research questions.

Creative adjustment research designs include versatile methods that cover a whole range of coping responses and different phases in the adjustment process. A survey can serve as a general overview of adjustment (such as concluded in this research). For more precise understanding, interviews would reveal further details about group members and their points of view. This recruit perspective may not be objective but it is certainly “relevant, offering exactly the insight needed to understand and reduce attrition” (Klein et al., 1991, p. 34). For example, interviews of drop-outs would show the main reasoning behind the attrition decision, individual perceptions about the meaning of personal separation, advantages and disadvantages of separation, and prospects after the military. Interviews of group members may help in showing the effect of one separation in a group on group processes later on. Interviews of small-group leaders would notify their understanding about the situational factors that normally lead to a separation. Finally, interviews of company and battalion commanders would give information as to how the official representatives of an organization view attrition and adjustment in their units, what the main arguments for legitimating socialization and adjustment methods are, what kind of official and unofficial adjustment methods they enumerate, and in what cases they take action to discharge a conscript.

Interviews and observations can be complemented with group members’ essays, sentence-completions, short stories about problematic situations and survival in the military. For example, these stories can be about meaningful background events that have supported personal adjustment to military life. The benefit of writing is that it helps conscripts to articulate themselves with care. However, in some cases, writing may be too much to ask if

an individual has inadequate cognitive abilities or he or she is emotionally unstable. People who are deployed can be nowadays reached via the Internet. If networks are utilized in data collection, there should still be a research representative in troops who justifies the survey and motivates the group members for proper participation. Lastly, a researcher who is interested in studying adjustment process and interpersonal relationships, interaction, social support, or performance in a group could arrange a simple, recorded, standardized task that is carried out by a team. Then, many teams who have several different tasks of their own can be examined more objectively. In general, the research question is always fundamental in determining the best combination of different available methods (Hanson et al., 2005, p. 226; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, pp. 17–18). Some of the methods are also associated to available research resources (e.g. the number of researchers or a timeline), and all of them are related to the researcher's creativity.

In terms of mixed methods research, the gathered data ought to be adaptable and all-around to allow research on all the main aspects of adjustment. Therefore, future research efforts for clarifying retention, attrition, and adjustment processes should incorporate and take advantage of a wide range of factors encompassing at least five content areas: (a) personal background information (e.g. demographics, economic situation, education and schooling experiences, work history, criminal behavior, family relationships, family support, and attitudes of spouse, parents, and best friends about the military); (b) current personal disposition (expectations, goals, and aspirations about training and career; attitudes towards drinking, drug use, and smoking; affective, normative, and continuance commitment; attitudes toward training and learning including achievement motivation; attitudes towards regimentation, supervision, and authority; and attitudes towards group membership and interpersonal relationships); (c) personal aptitude (i.e. cognitive, emotional, physical, and social condition and capacity); (d) unit-level social experiences during service (e.g. friendship, hazing, received leader and social support, bullying, team- and taskwork); and (e) unit-level characteristics (e.g. job satisfaction, unit status and pride, learning climate, unit management and manpower policy, unit structure, tasks, career options, and organizational reinforcements). This kind of extensive data collection needs several researchers, preferably for at least a one-year data collection period including several identical surveys and observations.

*Research on Personal Adjustment and Coping.* According to the present research, conscripts who fail in their service and those who adjust and perform well at the end of service can be relatively well identified on the basis of the knowledge about the conscripts' background, attitudes, and perceptions about situational factors. For the future research, the main puzzle is why some recruits who have all resources needed for successful adjustment, quit early or show mediocre performance, and conversely, why recruits whose background and personal aptitude leave no doubt that they will face troubles in the military, still survive their service (see e.g. the classification tables of discriminant analysis). To solve these questions, the researcher must thoroughly understand the whole field of personal and organizational adjustment: (a) personal traits and characteristics, (b) personal appraisal and responses, and (c) situational demands. Consequently, in order to answer these questions, the researcher needs to cover and explore a wide range of personal adjustment options, determinants of coping strategies, and reasons for diverse outcomes of the adjustment process.

As for personal components, performance researchers have identified two main types: “Can-Do” and Will-Do” (Zook, 1996). Based on this typology, adjustment research could distinguish four types of approaches to adjustment and coping: (a) people who cannot and will not adjust, (b) people who cannot but try their best to adjust, (c) people who can but would not like to adjust, and (d) people who can and try their best to adjust to the military. Particularly, the identification of various personal approaches to the military helps to understand the utilization of certain coping strategies as well as direct special support for each orientation group. In addition to these four categories, there may be a small group of people who have difficulties to adjust to the military in peacetime routines, but who are effective soldiers in conflicts and under extreme conditions, as suggested by Janowitz and Moskos (1979, pp. 191–192). Especially in the countries where every male and female is needed to overcome a national crisis, the different traits of people could be utilized by adept adjustment policies.

An area that was not studied in this research was coping strategies under particular organizational and situational demands. Future research could pay attention to the following: What kind of coping strategies are used among service members? How do personal characteristics, background and abilities determine whether particular coping is utilized? What are the typical results of a certain strategy? What is the diversity of common situational demands during the socialization process and in the advanced and unit training periods? What are the best coping responses to each stressor in terms of alleviating strain and pressure? Are some of the coping strategies learnt during the military service? Which are the best methods to train and teach useful coping strategies? How can instructors be trained to teach the service members in a way that maximizes adjustment and minimizes negative experiences?

The main idea behind the above questions is that the focal point of adjustment research is perhaps not the end state or outcome of adjustment (e.g. attrition or retention) but instead the process in which the outcome could be achieved in many various ways and for a variety of reasons. Thus, one coping strategy can lead to many outcomes, and a certain extent of adjustment is achieved by diverse coping efforts. In summary, future research should take into consideration different coping strategies in certain circumstances and in relation to personal abilities (such as social, cognitive, and physical capacity that could be controlled in research designs).

*Group-level Examinations.* Another way of looking at adjustment in the military is taking *group life* under examination in the research. Then, the research would find explanations for differences between units based on their group characteristics, such as the number of people, number of subgroups, number of leaders, structure of the group, structure of the chain of command, group type (e.g. combat, combat support, vs. support units), stability of the military personnel, formal and informal networks in a unit, or social and leader support in a group. To find the effects of each of the above factors, the researcher should also appreciate and control other variables that cause differences in attrition rates and adjustment processes between units, such as the varying quality of recruits entering service and differing socialization programs, training, policy and management in the units.

Group-level analysis could solve a part of the problems encountered while studying the unit-level of predictors. For example, Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) could be utilized for examining whether social relationships and group leadership as a group-level of phenomena have an influence on personal (individual-level) adjustment. On the other hand, it could be determined whether group members with better overall adjustment also have better group performance, less absenteeism, or less attrition than a group suffering of maladjustment. In the organizational practice, the interventions should also take into account group-level support (e.g. awards or extra leaves for the group which has low absence during a certain period of time), in addition to individual-level social and leader support that keep people motivated to participate in daily service. Thus, the research ought to reveal formal and informal behavior that take place in a group and facilitate personal adjustment.

One aspect that predicts both personal adjustment and unit performance may lie in informal norms among group members. Perhaps the most accurate results about norms and their impact on members' behavior and attitudes are gained by active participation of the researcher in a given group's life. This way, interviews could be combined with systematic observation that may provide more objective information than self-reported perceptions (Sandelowski, 2000, p. 251). Observation is especially unbeatable for examining group norms and their relations to attitudes and behavior, since norms can be experienced and noticed only by living in a group. However, the researcher should be theoretically carefully prepared for observation, otherwise the group life would grab his or her attention to the normal flow of life, and the norms would be as invisible and implicit as they are for the other group members. In some cases tape recording or films help researchers to find out interpersonal relationships, dynamics in teamwork, leadership methods, and coping strategies. Films are particularly useful in hectic situations when the group is involved in task performance or other actions.

The above research techniques could be combined to gather data to get answers to the following questions: Who are the people who have most influence on the development of norms? What are the typical norms in a military squad? What are the main determinants that keep squad norms in congruence of organizational goals and demands? What are the reasons that turn norms against organizational level practices? How do norms affect attitudes and behavior? What is the level of maladjustment in squads where norms are pro-organizational? To which extent are supervisors able to create norms in their groups? In which ways are the norms affected by the socialization process? What kinds of programs support both adjustment and performance in a group? These examples of research questions signify the importance of the identification of group norms and their interplay with group processes.

In the military, where the group membership is a salient aspect of all performance, group members more likely to categorize themselves at the social rather than the individual level (cf. Moreland et al., 2001, p. 99). If this is the case, then the group-level of factors is presumed to have more influence on individual matters, such as adjustment. Consequently, the combination of group-level measures and personal variables should be obtained to estimate how much group life is related to personal life in the military (as mentioned about HLM). In all, both group and individual-level examinations justify their place in the future adjustment research.

*Organization-Level Examinations.* In this research, the focus was almost entirely on personal adjustment factors (instead of organization level adjustment). Nevertheless, not only the person copes with the new membership but also the military organization adapts in this process. Particularly in the future, useful questions could be how a unit prepares, plans, and conducts a socialization program for service members, in what kind of circumstances there are changes in the unit conditions, and how the unit adapts and changes during a period of time in terms of regulations, routines, norms, and manpower policies. Alternatively, research could try to identify the main socialization agents in a unit and their diverse methods to influence newcomers. Broader questions could assess whether a unit is adjustable or does it float with the current (e.g. due to trends in society, requirements of upper headquarters, or commander changes), what kind of socialization program is the most meaningful and effective from the unit's point of view, and whether that program is useful for minimizing unnecessary maladjustment, and whether screening and retention are competing procedures. In terms of attrition and retention, more research should focus on investigating whether unit-level attrition relates to other unit characteristics, such as branches and tasks, personnel policy, overtime, overload/underload, boredom, leaves, punishments, family relationships, deployments, isolation, training, and career options in the unit.

In terms organization-related adjustment factors, perhaps the most meaningful research question is how three separate needs could be met in the same unit: (1) recruits' well-being and adjustment, (2) instructors' and commanders' job satisfaction, and (3) organizational and institutional goals and requirements. All the above questions are challenging, and answering to them requires an all-around and skillful research design which identifies overlapping and sometimes competing demands, motives, and expectations of the organization and its members.

Future research could consider this research or other adjustment models as a basis for an examination to determine possible *cultural and organizational differences* in adjustment and attrition between countries. For example, policy differences in making a decision of discharge presumably affect the extent of overall and particular attrition in the organization. Thus, attrition is also dependent on the context where the decision for a discharge is made (Benbenishty et al., 1993, p. 171). In addition to personnel policy and training differences, the adjustment process and attrition are affected by the structural diversity of military organizations. Even at the large social category level, such as branch, there are consistent differences in the numbers of completion and attrition of service (McBride, 1993, p. 205).

One explanation for adjustment differences in branches may be that the quality of recruits, the content of training, the quality of the learning climate and culture, and the personnel policy and programs may vary systematically between different organizations. Therefore, due to social comparison, influence of training programs and other unit factors in a certain branch, the recruits may adopt a "traditionally" expected and accepted approach toward military training that is significantly different to the other military units. As another example, the duration of service or the content and variability of service options may affect the creation of commitment prior to service and the extent to which the commitment is sustained during service, which in turn affects the adjustment process. Naturally, attitudinal factors, such as commitment, motivation, or career intentions, may also vary according to whether the military is a voluntary option or an obligation for men.

In the broadest sense, the country and the service form the largest frame under which adjustment takes place or attrition occurs. For example, in Finland attrition may occur to different extent in the southern parts of the country compared to northern units, due to subcultural differences. When the whole scale is different, it is not yet known whether the reasons behind the discharges are the same. Therefore, more information is needed to understand differences in attrition between locations, countries, cultures, and military systems. In general, future research could examine the questions of whether the main adjustment factors are primarily the same in different cultures and military systems (as is suggested by this research) and what the main differences are in the relative importance of adjustment factors over time in diverse military organization and cultures.

## 8.5 Recommendations

*Policy- and Unit-Level Recommendations.* There are no quick and simple solutions for reducing attrition and alleviating adjustment. As adjustment is a complex process, also the tactics for supporting it are multifaceted. Theoretically, the focus can be either on the person or on the situation, and more specifically, either on personal background problems and strengths and weaknesses or on situational stressors causing stress in the military. The present research has emphasized that the adjustment process involves both recruits (e.g. their attitudes, behaviors, and specific coping attempts) and the organization (e.g. supervisors, regimentation, training, administrative guidelines, policies, and adjustment programs).

To categorize the recommendations, the main situational (and organizational) adjustment factors can be divided to two dimensions. The first one represents the organizational level which encompasses all elements that fall hierarchically between the manpower policy and the individual conscript, such as, official regulations and guidelines, routines, processes, training, personnel policy, and leadership culture. The other dimension is the interpersonal level, which refers to rules, norms, roles, and actual behavior among group members in conscript service, consisting of two main groups of social actors: peers and leaders.

Understandably, there are not always enough personal resources to find an appropriate coping strategy for the situation, or sometimes the situation in civilian life and in the military forms such a stressful mixture that the person cannot survive through it alone. Therefore, the military organization is responsible for looking after its members. The first step for easing the adjustment process is to distinguish the main situational factors that the individual is required to cope with. The second prerequisite is to identify the particular adjustment methods that alleviate situational stressors and support adjustment. However, the problem is that one method may help adjustment only in one problem area but not reduce anxiety in others. For example, exercising and physical programs adapt conscripts for confronting physical demands but may be only in a limited role in solving difficulties to obey authority. Therefore, the third point of departure is the creation and implementation of an adjustment program in order to have a profound effect on the problem.

At the policy level, the manpower situation influences the personnel management and consequences of an organization. One effective manpower method that reduces attrition levels is attracting high quality personnel and screening and rejecting people who have low

commitment and who are at a risk for early separation. Consequently, an organization, which receives high quality committed people, has not as much need for organizational programs to alleviate adjustment problems, since the group members have a less troublesome background and more capacity to adjust compared to the overall population. In other words, advertising and persuasion of people with certain traits and screening prior the entry reduce existing adjustment problems and attrition in the organization.

Overall, *recruiting and screening* methods particularly benefit volunteer-based military and civilian organizations. However, in the conscript military system, where every male citizen is obliged to serve, the attraction – rejection tactics are not viable. On the contrary, the inductees need more knowledge about the logic of the adjustment process: what the main stressful factors are, how these factors are made easier to cope with, what the main coping strategies are, how coping and adjustment are supported, and how the usual problems are effectively dealt with. In other words, in the conscript military, the emphasis should be on prior information and persuasion, which may increase the commitment level of future recruits, whereas screening is done to find people for appropriate tasks and duties during their service. Thus, the rejection of conscripts should not be the prior function of screening.

Still screening is useful because it helps to discover the high-risk recruits who are not likely to complete the training and who require more social and leader support and training interventions to be kept in service. For example, in the Finnish conscript service context Parkkola (1999) has created a short battery of questions for identifying recruits at greatest risk of not completing their service (i.e. the Conscript Screen). With this kind of tools, officials are able to discover people who either require guidance and support in their adjustment or are in such risk that their induction is better to be postponed.

Although there are a lot of similarities with attrition and adjustment factors in different services, Parkkola's (1999) tool may not be as accurate in volunteer-based military service. In contrast, in the U. S. HumRRO's (2004) report highlights the main factors that can be taken into account in planning and assessing military attrition in U.S. services. Another recommended research that officials could get acquainted with is made by Dawson et al. (1994b), where they outline a model of adaptation in the conscript service that identifies both personal characteristics and resources and situational characteristics of the military. In general, services all over the world should keep their tools in condition for an efficient medical, physical, criminal, and cognitive screening of recruits in order to improve organizational effectiveness.

*Attrition rates* denote the level of maladjustment problems in the unit. High attrition rates may indicate that conscripts' coping abilities are not recognized, there are only low abilities, there are some underlying social problems in a unit, the military personnel do not care of such problems, there is no interest in reducing attrition rates in the larger organization, or simply attrition is used as a screening tool that helps to get rid of unwanted personnel. From another point of view, it is quite meaningless to focus on general attrition rates (at the service level), since there are several intervening organizational factors and differences in manpower policies that create unavoidable variation between units. For example, in a unit there could be a higher level of attrition than on average but less adjustment problems among the remaining conscripts and better unit performance, whereas in another unit the



reduced attrition rates may cause problems in daily training and performance. Although the manpower policy were the same among units, there would still be no basis for comparing attrition rates if the unit characteristics are not controlled (e.g. the average IQ or education level, physical health, emotional stability, motivation, commitment, number of people and groups, the type of the main tasks and goals). For example, a unit that receives lower quality recruits and keeps attrition at a moderate level succeeds better than a higher quality unit with the same level of attrition. In conclusion, the personnel policy could focus on publicity and information campaigns (to affect the attitudes toward conscription and refresher training) and, moreover, on the development of excellent training programs that increase the quality of experiences and performance in service and indirectly lessen attrition and maladjustment.

In order to target *interventions* against unnecessary attrition in the military, more should be known about the recruits' logic and the motives behind their personal attrition decision. Naturally, research is a useful tool for providing such detailed information. However, without concentrated plans and interventions where all organizational representatives are involved (such as officers, medical doctors, and civilian service centre officials) no major changes can be expected in attrition rates in the future. In Finland, the whole administration of military discharges and civilian service should be replanned and organized in order to have a major impact. This requires readiness from politicians, since military service and civilian service are under different ministries and a creative dialog is hardly established without a political steering committee.

Military officials could affect the administration of attrition by clarifying *attrition reasons* behind the official categories. For example, besides the full details of medical categories there could be summary categories, such as (a) mental, (b) mental and physical, and (c) physical reasons, which may simplify the attrition categories for both research and practical purposes. On the other hand, the company commander, who meets all the discharged recruits in his unit, could assess the main situational adjustment factor that caused problems to adjust (such as regimentation, hazing, leaders, learning, or civilian problems). Then, the records could show that the person had, for example, (a) adjustment problems (and the official medical category) meaning that he was (b) a "mental case", and in the unit he had most of his problems with (c) the pace of service (i.e. regimentation). These few categories would indicate the main personal and situational problem areas in service, which, in turn, would be useful in determining what kind of interventions could work for reducing it.

Buddin (1988, p. 17) suggests that more *evaluation, counseling, and remediation* are needed in the discharge process in order to support retention. His argument is that more consideration and less hesitation should be involved by military authorities as regards attrition decisions. In another adjustment research, Buddin (1984, p. 46) notes that "the likelihood of early attrition is directly related to the perceived ease of attrition on enlistment day" since the predicted gap between the attrition rates of those who thought that attrition was almost impossible and the recruits who perceived it as easy was over 7 percentage points. In other words, recruits may be motivated to complete their service when they know that there is no easy way out and that "serious negative consequences" are associated with behavior that warrants discharge from service (GAO, 1998c, p. 59; Gebicke, 1999, p. 8). In the same way, this research suggests that attrition initiated by a recruit should be limited as much as possible. Thus, a considerable number of recruits could complete their service if the number

of *escape routes* were reduced. Basically, such recommendations emphasize that the initiative for discharge should be in the hands of officials, not in the power of the recruit.

The military organization could support the nested units with *clear guidelines and practical teaching materials*. Particularly, instructors and conscript leaders should be supported by guidebooks about basic socialization stages, appropriate indoctrination techniques, major adjustment factors, typical problems in adjustment and solutions for solving them, commonly used best practices in units, and alternative training designs (based on the variation in the quality of personnel and military tasks). In the military intranet, there could be pages where people would be able to add the “best practices” for reducing maladjustment and increasing group performance (see also Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, p. 61). Units should be thanked and rewarded by such work for the benefit of all.

Organizational fairness referring to perceptions, beliefs, and feelings toward the larger unit has been pointed out as a personnel policy-related factor that could help in the battle against bad experiences, low motivation, and early separation in the military. Therefore, promotions, transfers, job assignments, rewards, and leaves should be allocated with skill (McIntyre, Bartle, Landis, & Dansby, 2002, p. 302). Leaves could be granted mainly with joint passes with other group members and as rewards based on successful teamwork in training. Besides special training programs and policy interventions, the normal run of daily actions in the unit should be of such high quality that they reduce attrition rates. For example, quality challenging training, information flow, supportive social and leadership relationships, and care and concern of people work against attrition, while they also enforce personal satisfaction and group performance.

All steps that suggest improvements in personal adjustment problems should be acknowledged. For example, recruits who have problems with their physical condition could be encouraged to participate in *remedial physical training*. On the other hand, recruits with attitudinal problems could be supported by a program and counseling during the first weeks of training and *rewarded* once they have stayed in service a certain number of days (e.g. the “Think It Over” program; GAO, 2000, p. 14). Since all attrition can never be prevented and sometimes it is profitable in terms of improved group performance, there should be *coaching* for those recruits who stayed in service although their close roommate decided to leave out. Otherwise, one drop-out may start a boom in the barrack room when roommates start to consider quitting (see also Gebicke, 1999, p. 8).

In Finland, the *E-class recruits* have normally mild mental or physical problems that earlier inhibited their service. They are expected to induct in one or two years. However, they are not highly motivated to come back and they commonly try to leave out again either with C-class or civilian service classifications (Parkkola, 1999). As suggested in this research, E-class soldiers have more unemployment and mental health problems, and therefore, they are more likely to burden the society than benefit it (in financial terms). Those who are already discharged but who are required to come back to service (i.e. E-class soldiers) could be motivated to serve by giving them a completion bonus that is paid at the end of a certain period of time (e.g. 2 months or 4 months of service). All these considerations suggest that an allowance for them may motivate and keep them in service (which is economically better for the society) and, on the other hand, completion of service would integrate them with

their contemporaries and provide them a positive adjustment experience, which may help them in later adjustment in civilian organizations.

As suggested above, units need an award system and positive incentives that motivate to complete a certain service period (such as BT or advanced training) (e.g. GAO 1998c, p. 9; Gebicke 1999, pp. 1, 3). Moreover, *the whole range of incentives* could be employed, as some recruits are influenced by such instrumental tools. In terms of incentives, the military has three means for controlling and shaping recruits' experiences: (a) reinforcement and confirmation (i.e. positive approval); (b) non-reinforcement (by obstructing positive approval), and (c) negative reinforcement (e.g. restrictions of privileges, extra duties, fines, and confinements). The emphasis should be on positive incentives, because the purpose of such reinforcements is to support conscripts' positive affect and commitment to organizational goals and to the unit itself. All incentives should be intertwined with group norms and dynamics, and the distribution of reinforcements should happen in a fair manner and due to successful work on the benefit of both personal and group performance. Not only conscripts are a target for awards since also officers and instructors who have been able to make the best out of their (initially poor) unit deserve recognition.

Recruits' attitudes and expectations and the perceptions of friends and family members could be affected by diverse *publicity campaigns*, and the recruits should be informed about military adjustment and its key components already before service. For example, the U.S. Marine Corps has utilized a film about coping skills that has been viewed by recruits before service (such as "Making It" or "Adjusting to Basic Training"). The video depicts what to expect in training, and the skills and coping strategies that would help adjustment to the first experiences of it, such as do not worry, control yourself, or learn from mistakes (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, pp. 43, 51). Research has shown that recruits who saw a film had higher expectations of their personal control than those who did not see it (Orasanu & Backer, 1996, p. 109), as well as lower attrition rates and higher performance marks than other recruits (Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 49).

In other words, once the recruit knows what will happen to him or her and that worries and anxiousness are natural experiences at first, the recruit is more able to take responsibility for his or her adjustment and find an approach that fits the situation. Moreover, realistic and accurate information help recruits to assess their abilities to adjust and the possible coping strategies to be used and reduce the possible dissatisfaction which may occur due to unmet expectations. Therefore, the recommendation is that the military could provide a *video program and information* that could be downloaded in the Internet. The program would provide situation-specific scenarios and experiences during the first weeks of service and the main guidelines for preparing military adjustment before service, as well as the main coping strategies that are useful when the most typical adjustment problems take place.

Patriotism and nationalism play a role in *civilian attitudes*, which indirectly affect the conscripts' adjustment process. Not only should recruits be convinced about the importance of individual service, but also their closest people in civilian life should be informed about the national defense and the service of the particular recruit. The results of the present research demonstrated strong influence of the attitudes of the girl- or boyfriend and friends on *Military Adjustment*. Specifically, the more positive attitudes the significant others had,

the better the person's adjustment to the military and the stronger his or her commitment. In conclusion, if the military organization is able to change the civilian attitudes to more positive ones there will be a change in the attrition rates and satisfaction in the military.

*Recommendations for Better Quality of Training.* The core idea of military training is to train people to become well disciplined, highly motivated and committed, and physically and mentally fit service members with required task-related skills and knowledge. Military training is an effective organizational practice for indoctrinating and adjusting soldiers in the military life. Therefore, the quality of training affects the level of motivation and the adjustment of soldiers, in addition to their performance abilities.

The unit can prepare for the induction of new members with *careful planning of the first days of service*. For example, prior to the induction of recruits, the core members and leaders of the unit should (a) assess and rejustify all the routines and practices, (b) write and distribute orientation guides and bulletins both for squad leaders and upcoming recruits, (c) refine the training programs, (d) plan the quality and direction of recruits' development by forming stages, goals, and rewards; and (e) have rehearsals and case studies in order to be prepared to react to typical adjustment problems. All these aspects of the recruits' living should be planned to support the information flow, social interaction, leader support, and the management of the recruits.

The first days are essential for the success of the socialization process. During those days, *the basic rules, norms, and habits* are spelled out for recruits. The learning of correct norms and rules could be enforced by controlling the recruits' behavior and learning on and off duty. Unambiguous behavioral standards should be enforced in a calm and friendly manner. In practice, this is done by directing every move and clause of the recruit; at first, the correct act is modeled, then it is reiterated by the recruits, and finally it is conducted in an appropriate way. Although the recruits are expected to internalize and behave according to military rules and habits, they should not be too stressed or overburdened in order to keep them motivated and support the start of their adjustment process.

*The first experiences* in the organization show whether the leaders are interested in a recruit's well-being. Disorganized practices without prior information create an unfavorable start for the adjustment process, whereas an opposite effect is possible by allowing for a personal reception where the own squad and platoon leader invites the person into service, knows his or her surname already beforehand, and offers information about what should be done, when, where, and why, as well as information about breaks in service and whether, where, and how recruits will have them.

In an efficient organizational socialization, *short-term small goals* are established that relate current activities to the larger goal and purpose. The advancement of the recruits is followed; new challenges are introduced once previous requirements are achieved. Training that is related to individual learning and development takes advantage of personal coaching and streams (e.g. in PT). On the other hand, teamwork is supported in every action where an adequate performance level is attained by engaging all group members with group performance (e.g. in field exercise or cleaning of a barrack room). Other features than those of military life are repressed by keeping the recruits' attention focused on the training and

military social relationships. Everything is done together. Brotherhood and interdependence are emphasized. In summary, the procedures should include (a) indoctrination and integration of the new member, (b) learning of appropriate personal behavior and the performance of the group, and (c) adjustment of the recruit to the diverse stressors of social and supervision relationships, regimentation, and training.

*Knowledge about the major adjustment factors* provides a new platform for instructors' ability to plan and execute training by utilizing conscripts' own willingness to learn and perform. Therefore, the main intervention against maladjustment could be the training of instructors and company commanders in *refresher courses* on the details of the adjustment process. In other words, in line with guidebooks, training programs, best practices, and orientation films, the military should target special training to instructors and their supervisors who interact with recruits with a low ability or negative attitude, to increase recruits' chances to complete the military training.

*Physical training* has potential for supporting the whole adjustment process, because it enhances self-confidence and a sense of achieving goals through physical development, in addition to improving physical health and over-all condition. Carefully planned PT should proceed gradually and provide intensified physical demands but also a feeling of growth and progress. In such training, the physical adjustment and personal development of recruits are taken into account. Recruits who fail the required fitness tests are supported by remedial training and coaching, whereas recruits who exercise on their own time or who develop most are rewarded in the unit.

This research showed that recruits are not physically prepared for service (e.g. the average 12-minute run test result was only 2,425 meters). The physical training was not adequate enough, either, according to the perceptions of conscripts about received PT, because the mean of that measure was the worst among all other items or measures. In order to change the perceptions and to have a positive impact on physical fitness among young men in Finland, the recruits' physical adjustment needs close attention from the first days till the end of service. Therefore, the time frame for physical adjustment and development should be the whole duration of the service. Every person should have their own program, testing, coaching, and goals. Moreover, PT could be planned for the period in reserve, and fitness could be tested during refresher training periods once every five years until the person is 35 years old and not assigned to troops in the front line.

Particularly, this research raised a concern about the *declining attitudes and commitment* of recruits during conscript service. Therefore, there is an acute need for training and regimentation where the leaders conduct training according to best practices, challenge the recruits and keep them motivated, sense the attitudinal changes and declines among conscripts, and always do everything to create positive experiences and commitment to national service. Perhaps currently too much of emphasis is put on the outcome of an individual's performance without considering whether the conscripts are willing to perform and act for the group and the military at all. The attitude is everything – and now it is lost among rank and file soldiers. Actually, conscript leaders are in good shape at the end of service in terms of their affective orientation to the unit and the military. Thus, currently, the leadership selection and training boost the leaders' motivation and commitment adequately.

On the other hand, almost a half of the male population in Finland may be in risk of losing their faith in the military service although they adjust to service. For that reason, *conscripts who serve their 6-month service require much more attention than they currently receive in military training.*

In conclusion, one of the main tasks of leaders should be the maintenance and improvement of the initial positive attitudes and commitment in all phases of service. Therefore, the training methods and programs should be evaluated in light of whether the program can cause a positive change in conscripts' values, commitment, and motivation. This research suggests that the quality of military training and organizational policy (e.g. social benefits, accommodation, off-duty activities, health care, leaves, daily allowance, and incentives) are more important than overall numerical goals for reducing attrition. This suggestion is also supported by previous literature (GAO, 1998c, p. 58). In other words, if the training quality, recruits' satisfaction, unit leadership and regimentation are considered better in the future although there is no reduction in attrition levels, the situation is far better than vice versa. The main purpose of the military organization is not to be concerned about the 15 % of recruits who drop out, but instead, to train and educate 85 % of the recruits who stay in service. Therefore, the general advice is to provide better circumstances for personal development and group performance by quality leadership and first-class training programs that at the same time have a positively effect on the personal adjustment process and indirectly reduce attrition rates.

The above recommendations concern the adjustment process from the military organization point of view, mainly by taking into account situational and organizational adjustment factors. Thus, the individual who struggles with coping or the leader who plans and supports the adjustment process have not yet been offered any specific advice or recommendations. While this research did not directly examine the best/optimal ways to train leaders or socialize new service members, the findings suggest many factors that could and even should be included in training programs or guide books for them. These factors are presented in Appendix 12. The text in the appendix is directed to particular persons (recruits or leaders) who could find guidance by reading them. Therefore, the notes are quite informal, freely constructed, and relatively brief. Some of these may be of interest and useful when planning or conducting training at the small group level in the military.

## **8.6 Concluding Remarks**

*Conscription as a system of civic education and as an element of citizenship operates most effectively when the overwhelming bulk of young men are required to serve (Janowitz & Moskos, 1979, p. 173).*

Although the training of the male population to cope and survive in the society may not be the main function of the defense forces, the existence of military service offers the society many opportunities to support the well-being and development of all conscripts, which will most likely have a positive effect on civilian organizations after service. Of interest for the later civilian adjustment process is the way in which military experiences socialize citizens to essential aspects of future work experiences, such as teamwork, compliance with rules,

and self-control. Positive adjustment experiences reduce conscripts' alienation and anomie as a result of social support and leaders' personalized attention to their problems. On the other hand, and according to these research results, people who were separated from military service were mentally, physically, cognitively, and/or socially inept. Therefore, being marked by attrition can lead to a reduced range of opportunities in work and life in the future.

In this manner, this research suggests that military service offers conditions for self-development, where a conscript acquires new coping skills and experiences, enhanced personal and social development, interpersonal skills with peers and supervisors, and personal qualities in special training. Going through and surviving in adverse conditions by successful coping and adjustment create a sense of accomplishment that supports conscripts' self-esteem, self-confidence, interpersonal relationships, sense of well-being, further adjustment in the military, and possibly in civilian situations as well. Especially involvement, identification and sense of belonging with a group and unit are positively related to a successful adjustment process. On the other hand, inadequate adjustment to the military is associated with instances of negative personal outcomes, such as hazing experiences, emotional instability, antisocial behavior, depressive learning experiences, and negative lifestyle changes.

To sum up the results, military adjustment is a multidimensional phenomenon and it is best described in terms of several interacting variables. Each sub-factor, such as adjustment to the social, supervisory, or physical demands of the military, can be expressed as a one-dimensional concept with its characteristic predictors and consequences. Generally, there are two main dimensions that affect the adjustment process: situational factors (e.g. group experiences, leadership, regimentation, performance and training, and civilian relationships) and personal resources (e.g. demographics, socio-economic and educational background, deviance, personality traits, and personal objectives) that are precursors for determining coping responses and adjustment success in the military.

Overall, this research identified typical reasons for attrition, the worst combinations of adjustment problems, and the main factors that predict military adjustment. Based on the research, the main subcomponents of military adjustment include:

- (a) attitudinal adjustment (referring to achievement motivation and commitment to serve),
- (b) social adjustment (reflecting success in peer relations),
- (c) adjustment to authoritarian relations and regimentation,
- (d) physical adjustment,
- (e) mental adjustment (i.e. staying emotionally stable without extensive stress),
- (f) adjustment to training and learning (reflecting personal relations with a unit's main activities), and
- (g) adjustment to being away from home and civilian friends.

Drawing from Stouffer and his colleagues (1949, p. 98), these factors constitute "a profile of separate abilities" rather than a single construct. In other words, diverse aspects of adjustment need to be measured in order to understand the whole adjustment process. In other words, a person can be high in one ability but low in another, and these abilities have different effects on the adjustment outcomes. Therefore, the mean value of the particular adjustment ability

is not enough, but a comprehension of the phenomenon is gained by understanding the different patterns of these primary domains of military adjustment.

Future research could examine how group members adjust to these components in various contexts, whether the same components appear in different cultures and military systems, how the importance of each component differs relatively during the adjustment process, why some people adjust to a component more easily than others, whether some components are more important than others for determining attrition or performance, and what the specific programs are that alleviate adjustment and enhance relevant skills and knowledge for coping in the situation.

The implementations of the findings could involve both organizational and personal aspects. The main *organizational tools* for facilitating adjustment and preventing attrition are qualitative training, great leadership, and social peer support. From the conscript's viewpoint and in accordance with the ingeniously concise statement of Mechanic (1974, p. 33), the *personal adjustment factors* can be reduced to three required attributes: situational capabilities for handling stressful organizational demands (e.g. authority, social pressure, and training), individual cognitive, physical, and emotional abilities for maintaining psychological balance under stress, and motivational qualities for having the will and skills to meet the external and internal needs of the given situation in service.



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## The First Questionnaire Before Entering Service in January and July 2001

At first, mark you personal code

1. Date of answering the questionnaire

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

A = Poorly

B = Fairly poorly

C = Cannot say

D = Fairly well

E = Well

2. I will adjust to dormitory accommodation
3. I can adjust to being around people I do not know
4. I normally adjust to a new environment
5. I will adjust to using weapons and explosives
6. I will adjust to military discipline (orders, commanding and obeying)
7. I will adjust to being away from my family
8. I will adjust to being away from my friends
9. I adjusted to comprehensive school
10. My health corresponds to the demands of military service
11. I will adjust to military service
12. I will adjust to rush and strict timetables
13. I will adjust to waking up early (approximately 6 a.m.)
14. I can manage the physical demands of military service
15. I can cope with the mental pressure of conscript training

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

A = Totally agree

B = Partly agree

C = Difficult to say

D = Partly disagree

E = Totally disagree

16. Military service is useless and unnecessary
17. Very small and sometimes also unimportant things make me nervous or tense
18. I often feel depressed
19. I was hazed at school
20. I have had suicidal thoughts
21. I have often had feelings that life is not worth living
22. I am often anxious and tense
23. If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently
24. I have not been getting along with my parents
25. Military service is going to have a negative impact on my civil relationships
26. Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing beforehand
27. I am not interested in military service
28. I have considered applying to unarmed service
29. I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded
30. I have considered dropping out of service
31. I do not feel a part of this society (system)
32. Individuals should not be fitted into one mold
33. I usually do not share my thoughts with other people
34. I feel uncomfortable with other people

Check that your last answer is in slot 34.

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

- A = Totally disagree
- B = Partly disagree
- C = Difficult to say
- D = Partly agree
- E = Totally agree

35. I am highly motivated to complete my military service
  36. If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms in all circumstances, no matter what the end result
  37. All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense
  38. It is easy for me to obey given orders
  39. Getting a military training is important and significant to me
  40. I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly
  41. I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding
  42. To me it is important to do well in the army
  43. I am interested in occupations in the field of security (military, police, firefighter, search and rescue, guard training)
  44. I am healthy and my physical health is better than in my age group in general
  45. I was admitted to the same brigade (unit) that I had wished for in advance
  46. It is easy for me to make new friends
  47. My friends / girlfriend / boyfriend have a positive attitude towards military service
  48. My parents have a positive attitude towards military service
  49. I will feel at home in military service
  50. My personal contribution to military service is important
  51. An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army
  52. I will try to do my best in training
  53. Military service is every male citizen's duty
  54. I was willing to help other students at school
- Check that your last answer is in slot 54.

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

- A = Yes / B = No

55. During the last year I have had quarrels at home
56. ...little or no money
57. ...disease or injury
58. ...sleeping disorders (broken sleep/trouble falling asleep/waking up too early)
59. ...quarrels with my girlfriend / boyfriend or with my wife / husband
60. ...a relationship that ended
61. Instructors or doctors should have more time to talk about things (e.g. things like the ones in this questionnaire)
  - A. Totally agree
  - B. Partly agree
  - C. Difficult to say
  - D. Partly disagree
  - E. Totally disagree
62. I drink alcohol
  - A = Not at all; B = Once a month or a few times a year; C = 2–3 times a month;
  - D = Once a week; E = 2 times a week or more often
63. My attitude towards drugs is...
  - A. Extremely negative
  - B. Negative
  - C. Neutral
  - D. Positive
  - E. Extremely positive



64. Marital status / relationship  
A = Single; B = Dating; C = Engaged; D = Common-law-marriage; E = Marriage
65. I would like to complete the following military service and period of service  
A. 180 days, no matter what instruction  
B. 180 days, certain instruction  
C. 270 days  
D. 362 days, rank and file  
E. 362 days, squad leader  
F. 362 days, platoon commander
66. I have received enough information about military service in advance (exercises, leaves, etc.)  
A. Totally disagree  
B. Partly disagree  
C. Difficult to say  
D. Partly agree  
E. Totally agree
67. I am stepping into military service with positive expectations  
A. Totally disagree  
B. Partly disagree  
C. Difficult to say  
D. Partly agree  
E. Totally agree
68. Drug tests for recruits should be allowed A = Yes / B = No
69. During the last year I have had quarrels with my teacher or supervisor A = Yes / B = No
70. ... I was fired from work A = Yes / B = No
71. ... I was accused of a crime A = Yes / B = No
72. I have received most of the information about conscription from...  
A. my family and relatives  
B. my friends who have completed service  
C. other friends  
D. newspapers, radio, TV, Internet  
E. school  
F. To Become a Conscript-booklet  
G. the conscription  
H. somewhere else
73. Sex A = Male / B = Female
74. Age A = 18; B = 19; C = 20; D = 21; E = 22; F = 23–25; G = 26 or older
- Check that your last answer is in slot 74.
75. My rotation to conscript service is... A = 1/2001; B = 2/2001
76. The distance between my home town and the current unit is  
A = Less than 10 km; B = 10–20 km; C = 20–50 km; D = 50–100 km; E = 100–200 km;  
F = More than 200 km
77. The number of inhabitants in my home town  
A. Helsinki-area  
B. 100 000 – 200 000 inhabitants  
C. 30 000 – 100 000 inhabitants  
D. 8000 – 30 000 inhabitants  
E. Town of 2000-8000 inhabitants  
F. Population center of 2000-8000 inhabitants  
G. 1000-2000 inhabitants  
H. 200-1000 inhabitants  
I. Less than 200 inhabitants
78. I share the cost of family accommodation A = Yes / B = No



98. My father has completed military service and his rank is...

- A. Private
- B. Lance corporal
- C. Warrant officer
- D. Reserve officer
- E. I do not know my father's rank
- F. My father has not completed military service

Check that your last answer is in slot 98.

Thank you very much and good luck!

## The Second Questionnaire During Basic Training in February and July 2001

At first, mark your personal code

1. Date of answering the questionnaire

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

A = Poorly

B = Fairly poorly

C = I am not sure

D = Fairly well

E = Well

2. I have adjusted to dormitory accommodation
3. I can adjust to being around people I do not know
4. I normally adjust to a new environment
5. I have adjusted to using weapons and explosives
6. I have adjusted to military discipline (orders, commanding and obeying)
7. I have adjusted to being away from my family
8. I have adjusted to being away from my friends
9. I get along with my barrack mates / squad
10. My health corresponds to the demands of military service
11. I have adjusted to military service
12. I have adjusted to rush and strict timetable
13. I have adjusted to waking up early (approximately 6 a.m.)
14. I can manage the physical performances of military service
15. I cope with the mental pressure of conscript training

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

A = Totally agree

B = Partly agree

C = Difficult to say

D = Partly disagree

E = Totally disagree

16. Military service is useless and unnecessary
17. Very small and sometimes also unimportant things make me nervous or tense
18. I often feel depressed
19. I have been hazed in the military
20. I have had suicidal thoughts
21. I have often had feelings that life is not worth living
22. I am often anxious and tense
23. If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently
24. Discipline during the training situations is too strict
25. Military service has had a negative impact on my civil relationships
26. Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing
27. I am not interested in military service
28. I have considered applying to unarmed service
29. I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded
30. I have considered dropping out of service
31. I do not feel a part of this society (system)
32. Individuals should not be fitted into one mold
33. I usually do not share my thoughts with other people
34. I feel uncomfortable with other people

Check that your last answer is in slot 34.

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

- A = Totally disagree
- B = Partly disagree
- C = Difficult to say
- D = Partly agree
- E = Totally agree

35. I am highly motivated to complete my military service
  36. If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms in all circumstances, no matter what the end result
  37. All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense
  38. It is easy for me to obey given orders
  39. Getting a military training is important and significant to me
  40. I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly
  41. I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding
  42. To me it is important to do well in the army
  43. I am interested in occupations in the field of security (military, police, firefighter, search and rescue, guard training)
  44. I am healthy and my physical health is better than in my age group in general
  45. I was admitted to the brigade (unit) that I had wished for in advance
  46. It is easy for me to make new friends
  47. I have been getting along well with my closest conscript superior (corporal, reserve cadet officer)
  48. My current squad has a really good esprit de corps
  49. I feel at home in military service
  50. My personal contribution to military service is important
  51. An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army
  52. I have tried to do my best in training
  53. Military service is every male citizen's duty
  54. I am very willing to help other members of my squad / barrack mates
- Check that your last answer is in slot 54.

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions                      A = Yes / B = No

55. During the military service I have had quarrels at home
  56. ...little or no money
  57. ...disease or injury
  58. ...sleeping disorders (broken sleep/trouble falling asleep/waking up too early)
  59. ...quarrels with my girlfriend / boyfriend or with my wife / husband
  60. ...a relationship that ended
61. Instructors or doctors should have more time to talk about things (like the ones in this questionnaire)
    - A = Totally agree; B = Partly agree; C = Difficult to say; D = Partly disagree; E = Totally disagree
  62. I drink alcohol
    - A = Not at all; B = Once a month or a few times a year; C = 2-3 times a month;
    - D = Once a week; E = 2 times a week or more often
  63. Which of the following factors has decreased your service motivation most?
    - A. Training for recruits
    - B. Ordered tasks
    - C. Some instructors
    - D. Some conscript supervisors
    - E. Rush and tight timetables
    - F. Some barrack mates and life in a community
    - G. Lack of connections to home, friends and girl/boyfriend
    - H. Personal civilian things (economical problems)
    - I. My motivation has not decreased

64. I have been dating for

A = I am not dating; B = Less than a month; C = 1–3 months;  
D = 3–6 months; E = 6–12 months; F = Over a year

65. I would like to have the following military service and period of service

A = 180 days, no matter what instruction; B = 180 days, certain instruction; C = 270 days;  
D = 362 day, rank and file; E = 362 days, squad leader; F = 362 days, platoon commander

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

A = Totally disagree

B = Partly disagree

C = Difficult to say

D = Partly agree

E = Totally agree

66. I received enough information about military service in advance (exercises, leaves, etc.)

67. The training has been challenging and interesting

68. In my squad I get help when I need it

69. The nearest instructor has been really interested in and enthusiastic about training

70. My platoon has a good esprit de corps

71. My squad underlines common values

72. During a crisis the life of a subordinate may depend on the ability of the superior. During a crisis I would like to work under my current conscript superior

73. During a crisis the life of a subordinate may depend on the ability of the superior. During a crisis I would like to work under my current instructor

74. I feel appreciated in my squad / barrack room

75. There are plenty of leisure time activities in the garrison

76. The squad which I belong to would do well in real combat

77. The platoon that I belong to would do well in real combat

78. My squad / barrack room feels responsible for succeeding as a team

79. In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad

Check that your last answer is in slot 79.

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

A = Totally disagree

B = Partly disagree

C = Difficult to say

D = Partly agree

E = Totally agree

80. My friends in military service have helped me significantly in adjusting to military life

81. I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years

82. I can influence the decisions made in my barrack room / squad

83. On part of the regular staff there has been no action that could be classified as degrading

84. On part of the conscript superiors there has been no action that could be classified as degrading

85. At war, the life of a soldier may depend on the friends near by. At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger

86. The atmosphere in my company / battery is good

87. The restrictions of freedom in military life have not affected my mood

88. I have a friend in the army to whom I can talk about anything (personal)

89. I spend almost all of my free time (evening leaves etc.) with my squad / barrack friends

Check that your last answer is in slot 89.

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

A = Totally agree

B = Partly agree

C = Difficult to say

D = Partly disagree

E = Totally disagree

90. I have applied for exemption from field exercise even though I was not ill

91. Other conscripts laugh at my failures

92. I have had nightmares about conscript service

93. My fellow conscripts have pressured me mentally or physically

94. I have felt different from my fellow conscripts

95. I have applied for exemptions from the medical officer or doctor, because I could not care less about participating in military service

96. My situation in civilian life has deteriorated during my time in the army

97. The last two weeks have been too busy

98. It annoys me that as a conscript I have to compromise over my personal comfort

99. How efficiently have you been trained for war / crisis (use school grading)?

A = 4; B = 5; C = 6; D = 7; E = 8; F = 9; G = 10

Check that your last answer is in slot 99.

Thank you for your responses and good luck for the rest of your service!

## The Third Questionnaire at the End of the Service in December 2001 and in June 2002

At first, mark your personal code

1. Date of answering the questionnaire
2. Number of company or battery
3. Number of company or battery
4. Platoon
5. Squad
6. Rank

A = Private; B = Lance corporal; C = Warrant officer student; D = Reserve officer student;  
E = Corporal; F = Sergeant; G = Reserve officer cadet

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

- A = Poorly  
B = Fairly poorly  
C = I cannot say  
D = Fairly well  
E = Well

7. I have adjusted to dormitory accommodation
8. I can adjust to being around people I do not know
9. I normally adjust to a new environment
10. I have adjusted to using weapons and explosives
11. I have adjusted to military discipline (orders, commanding and obeying)
12. I have adjusted to being away from my family
13. I have adjusted to being away from my friends
14. I get along with my barrack mates / squad
15. My health corresponds to the demands of military service
16. I have adjusted to military service
17. I have adjusted to rush and strict timetables
18. I have adjusted to waking up early (approximately 6 a.m.)
19. I have managed the physical demands of military service
20. I have coped with the mental pressure of conscript training

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

- A = Totally agree  
B = Partly agree  
C = Difficult to say  
D = Partly disagree  
E = Totally disagree

21. Military service is useless and unnecessary
22. Very small and sometimes also unimportant things make me nervous or tense
23. I often feel depressed
24. It is easy for me to obey given orders
25. All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense
26. I was hazed in the military
27. I have had suicidal thoughts
28. Getting a military training is important and significant to me
29. I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly
30. I have often had feelings that life is not worth living
31. I am often anxious and tense
32. I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding



33. To me it is important to do well in the army
34. I am interested in occupations in the field of security (military, police, fire-fighter, search and rescue, guard training)
35. If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently
36. Discipline during the training situations has been too strict
37. Military service has had a negative impact on my civil relationships
38. I am healthy and my physical health is better than in my age group in general
39. Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing
40. I am not interested in military service
41. I have considered applying to unarmed service
42. I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded
43. It is easy for me to make new friends
44. I was highly motivated to complete my military service
45. I have been getting along well with my closest conscript superior (corporal, reserve cadet officer)
46. I have considered dropping out of service
47. I have felt at home in military service
48. An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army
49. I usually do not share my thoughts with other people
50. I have felt uncomfortable with other people
51. I have tried to do my best in training
52. Military service is every male citizen's duty
53. I am very willing to help other members of my squad / barrack mates

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

A = Yes / B = No

54. During the military service I have had quarrels at home
55. ...little or no money
56. ...disease or injury
57. ...sleeping disorders (broken sleep/trouble falling asleep/waking up too early)
58. ...quarrels with my girlfriend / boyfriend or with my wife / husband
59. ...a relationship that ended
60. I drink alcohol  
A = Not at all; B = Once a month or a few times a year; C = 2-3 times a month;  
D = Once a week; E = 2 times a week or more often
61. Which of the following factors has decreased your service motivation most?  
A. Training  
B. Ordered tasks  
C. Some instructors  
D. Some conscript supervisors  
E. Rush and tight timetables  
F. Some barrack mates and life in a community  
G. Lack of connections to home, friends and girl/boyfriend  
H. Personal civilian things (economical problems)  
I. My motivation has not decreased
62. I have been dating for  
A = I am not dating; B = Less than a month; C = 1-3 months;  
D = 3-6 months; E = 6-12 months; F = Over a year
63. I would have liked to have the following military service and period of service  
A = 180 days, no matter what instruction; B = 180 days, certain instruction; C = 270 days;  
D = 362 day, rank and file; E = 362 days, squad leader; F = 362 days, platoon commander

Use one of these alternatives to answer the next questions

- A = Totally agree
- B = Partly agree
- C = Difficult to say
- D = Partly disagree
- E = Totally disagree

64. It annoys me that as a conscript I had to compromise over my personal comfort
  65. My physical health has deteriorated during military service
  66. I did not want to work hard in the military service
  67. Due to military service I can take other people into consideration as well
  68. In the army I got used to waking up early
  69. Strict discipline belongs to the army
  70. The training has been challenging and interesting
  71. In my squad I got help when I needed it
  72. My mental stamina has improved considerably during military service
  73. The nearest instructor has been really interested in and enthusiastic about training
  74. I have applied for exemption from field exercise even though I was not ill
  75. Other conscripts have laughed at my failures
  76. My platoon has a good esprit de corps
  77. My squad underlines common values
  78. I have felt appreciated in my squad / barrack room
  79. I have been able to influence the decisions made in my barrack room / squad
  80. The rules and restrictions of the army have been an educational experience
- Check that your last answer is in slot 80.

81. I have had nightmares about conscript service
  82. My fellow conscripts have pressured me mentally or physically
  83. My independence has increased during military service
  84. The atmosphere in my company / battery is good
  85. The restrictions of freedom in military life have not affected my mood
  86. I have a friend in the army to whom I can talk about anything (personal)
  87. In the army I have learned to take responsibility for myself and others
  88. I have spent almost all of my free time (evening leaves etc.) with my squad / barrack friends
  89. My situation in civilian life has deteriorated during my time in the army
  90. The last two weeks have been too busy
  91. After basic training I received the training I wished for
  92. I have a character suitable for the military
  93. I have made some real friends in the army
  94. I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years
  95. I have felt different from my fellow conscripts
  96. The army has taught me self-control
  97. I am proud of my unit (company / battery)
  98. My friends in military service have helped me significantly in adjusting to military life
  99. During my time in the army, I have learned to organize my schedule
  100. I have applied for exemptions from the medical officer or doctor, because I could not care less about participating in military service
  101. In the mornings the wake-up should be later
  102. The rush and strict timetables have considerably decreased my motivation
  103. I wanted to prove to be able to complete military service
  104. The army has a significant educational purpose
  105. How efficiently have you been trained for war / crisis (use school grading)
- Check that your last answer is in slot 105!

Thank you for your responses!

## The Official Military Questionnaire at the End of Service (in December 2001 and in June 2002)

1. This questionnaire was filled at....
2. What is your rank and military occupation?  
A = rank and file, 6 months; B = rank and file, 9 months; C = rank and file, 12 months;  
D = squad leader; E = reserve officer candidate
3. – 9. The brigade, battalion, and unit you have served in

In statements 10 – 85 the alternatives for answering are A = Totally agree; B = Partly agree; C = Difficult to say; D = Partly disagree; E = Totally disagree

### National Defense

10. If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms in all circumstances, no matter what the end result
11. If Finland is attacked, I am ready to participate in military national defense as part of national service duties
12. Finland has to have functioning Defence Forces

### Service Motivation

13. I would have joined the military if serving had been on a voluntary basis
14. The military training I have received is important
15. I wanted to do as well as possible in my military service

### Socio-Economical Factors

16. The daily allowance, (paid) trips to home, and other benefits have been sufficient.

### Training Challenges

17. The training has included a lot of challenging exercises
18. In training, one must think a lot
19. During training my squad has been allowed to try our own ideas and solutions
20. During training I have been allowed to try my own ideas and solutions

### Training Goals

21. At the beginning of training I was clearly told of the training goals
22. I have been aware of whether I have achieved the goals of training

### The Organization of Training

23. Although many things have to be learnt to perform automatically, training has contained all too much repetition of the same things
24. The training facilities have been appropriate
25. The training methods have been appropriate for the skills trained
26. In training, the weapons and equipment have been appropriate and functional
27. Generally, the field practices were organized effectively
28. The daily program was usually organized effectively
29. The field exercises were usually interesting

### Feedback

30. After training, an instructor told my squad how well we performed
31. I have been informed how well I have done in training
32. After training, we were told what went well and what did not
33. The instructor's feedback helped me to understand how to perform

34. After the basic training period, I have been aware of how I have done in training compared to others

#### Performance During War

35. The squad which I belong to would do well in real combat

36. The platoon that I belong to would do well in real combat

37. The weapons which have been used in training would be effective in a real combat situation

38. I have a clear picture of my duty during war

39. On the basis of my training I could do my duty during war

40. Training has given me the mental skills for battle situations

41. In every circumstance, I master the weapons and equipment needed for my duty

42. On the basis of my physical condition I could get through two weeks of battles and three to four days and nights of decisive battles

43. On the basis of my mental health I could get through two weeks of battles and three to four days and nights of decisive battles

#### Evaluation of Squad Leaders

44. My squad leader has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me

45. During field practice my squad leader has set an example and tried his or her hardest

46. On the whole my squad leader is a good person

47. My squad leader masters his or her duties (weapons, equipment, and management)

48. During a crisis I would like to work with my current squad leader

#### Evaluation of Reserve Officer Candidates

49. My platoon leader has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me

50. During field practice my platoon leader has set an example and tried his or her hardest

51. On the whole my platoon leader is a good person

52. My platoon leader masters his or her duties (weapons, equipment, and management)

53. During a crisis I would like to work under my (conscript) platoon leader

#### Evaluation of Permanent Staff

54. My closest instructor masters his or her duties (weapons, equipment, and management)

55. My closest instructor has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me

56. During a crisis I would like to work under my current instructor

57. There is at least one person in the permanent staff, with whom I could talk about personal things if needed

58. At field exercises, my instructor has set an example and exerted all his/her energy

#### Group Cohesion

59. My current squad has a really good esprit de corps

60. At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger

61. In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad

#### Mental and Physical Demands and Challenges

62. I would have liked to test my limits in even harder exercises

63. There has been at least one really tough field exercise, where my physical performance was tested

64. There has been at least one really tough field exercise, where my mental toughness was tested

65. The conscript service has been physically too tough for me

66. The conscript service has been mentally too tough for me

67. I would have liked to receive training about things that cause stress in combat and how it can be endured

68. The physical training I received was varied

69. The training took into account factors related to recovery after physically demanding exercises  
 70. I have the skills and knowledge required for maintaining a soldier's physical performance  
 71. The physical exertion of conscript training showed an upward trend  
 72. The conscript service strengthened or inspired a lasting interest in exercising, which will continue after the service  
 73. The physical training program took into account the individual differences of the trainees

#### Supply of Clothing

74. The clothing has been adequate and appropriate  
 75. I believe that the provided outfits fulfill also wartime requirements  
 76. The change and care of clothing items has been well organized  
 77. The instructions and training I have received concerning the use and care of clothing have been adequate

#### Time in the Military

78. I have experienced some really interesting and exciting events / moments during conscript service  
 79. I will have some very positive memories of my conscript service  
 80. Conscript service has given me more self-confidence  
 81. I have learned new things about myself during conscript service

#### Defence Forces as an Employer

82. I have received information about jobs in the Defence Forces (both military and civilian work)  
 83. I would consider working in the Defence Forces after my conscript service  
 84. Experiences in conscript service have increased my interest in staying in the service of the Defence Forces  
 85. In my view the Defence Forces would be a good employer

#### Treatment of Conscripts

86. How many times have you been subject to hazing?  
 A = not at all; B = once; C = twice; D = a couple of times; E = quite often or often;  
 F = I am not sure, because I do not know exactly what hazing or bullying means in this case ("simputus")  
 87. If you have been hazed, the perpetrator was... A = a conscript of the older contingent; B = squad leader; C = reserve officer candidate; D = permanent staff / instructor; E = I was not hazed

#### Group Stabilization

88. Have you had the same group leader for the whole time after basic training?  
 A = I have had the same squad leader; B = the squad leader has been changed  
 89. Has the group you were put in after basic training stayed the same?  
 A = it has remained the same; B = 1-2 men have been changed; C = 3 men have been changed;  
 D = more than 3 men have been changed or I am in a different squad than in the beginning  
 90. Give an appraisal to the Defence Forces about the training you have received after the basic training period for your wartime duty:  
 A = excellent; B = good; C = satisfactory; D = pass; E = poor  
 Only those who were trained as leaders continue answering to statements 91 – 112.

#### Leadership and Instructor Training

- In statements of 91 – 109 the alternatives for answering are  
 A = Totally agree; B = Partly agree; C = Difficult to say; D = Partly disagree; E = Totally disagree  
 91. I understood the goals and objectives of leadership and instructor training  
 92. The warrant officer course or the reserve officer course provided sufficient qualifications for training [subordinates in] soldiers' basic skills and knowledge

93. The warrant officer course or the reserve officer course provided sufficient qualifications for acting in my wartime leader position
94. A plan of action (leadership performance and further education) was created for me for my leadership period
95. I had enough time to prepare for my leadership and training duties
96. My instructor was able to train me to take initiative and be a self-directed leader
97. I was allowed to fulfill myself when leading and training my subordinates
98. My leader profile was made by using the deep leadership questionnaire at least once during my leadership period
99. I have tried to develop my leadership behavior based on the feedback provided in my leadership profile
100. I received enough direct feedback about my leadership performance from my instructor
101. I got enough written feedback which I can include in my leadership file
102. I actively gathered feedback and I usually made a (written) self-appraisal before the discussion with my instructor
103. I have maintained my own leadership file
104. Leadership and instructor training has made me think of my values and attitudes
105. I have grown as a person and a leader during conscript service
106. I believe that I am able to utilize my military leadership education in civilian life
107. Because of my leadership training and experience during conscript service, I will continue developing my own leadership skills in civilian life
108. I participated at least twice a month in conscript leaders' teamwork in my unit
109. My unit commander took account of the ideas which were created by teamwork among conscript leaders
110. I had training duties during my leadership period  
 A = constantly (dozens); B = often (15 – 20 times); C = every now and then (7 – 14 times);  
 D = seldom (1 – 6 times); E = not at all
111. I had relatively independent leadership duties during my leadership period  
 A = constantly (dozens); B = often (15 – 20 times); C = every now and then (7 – 14 times);  
 D = seldom (1 – 6 times); E = not at all
112. I appraise the received leadership training as a whole at the level of...  
 A = excellent; B = good; C = satisfactory; D = pass; E = poor

Thank you for your responses!

## Means, Standard Deviations, Communalities, and Factors of the Main Questionnaire Items

Table A5.1

*Removed Items Due to Their Low Communalities and Loadings in the Factor Analyses in Questionnaire 1*

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Communalities
I do not feel a part of this society (system)	4.41	1.04	.43
I will adjust to using weapons and explosives	4.14	.87	.26
I will adjust to waking up early (approximately 6 a.m.)	3.42	1.28	.30
Very small and sometimes also unimportant things make me nervous or tense	3.56	1.22	.30
Individuals should not be fitted into one mold	2.49	1.16	.11
I am interested in occupations in the field of security (military, police, firefighter, search and rescue, guard training)	2.70	1.41	.25
I was admitted to the brigade (unit) that I had wished for in advance	3.69	1.35	.16
Instructors or doctors should have more time to talk about things (e.g. things like on this questionnaire)	2.04	1.03	.13

*Note.*  $n = 2,003$ . For each variable, missing values are replaced with the variable mean.

Table A5.2

*Time 2 Descriptive Statistics of Items Not Used for Scales*

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Communalities
I do not feel a part of this society (system)	4.33	1.00	.47
I have adjusted to using weapons and explosives	4.39	.76	.39
Very small and sometimes also unimportant things make me nervous or tense	3.54	1.21	.36
Individuals should not be fitted into one mold	2.35	1.13	.18
I am interested in occupations in the field of security	2.50	1.33	.26
I was admitted to the brigade (unit) that I had wished for in advance	3.67	1.38	.17
Instructors or doctors should have more time to talk about things	1.94	.91	.15
There are plenty of leisure time activities in the garrison	3.19	1.17	.25
I have had nightmares about conscript service	4.17	1.22	.27
I have felt different from my fellow conscripts	3.80	1.29	.37

*Note.*  $n = 1,831$ . For each variable, missing values are replaced with the variable mean.

Table A5.3  
*Descriptive Statistics of Questionnaire 1 Factor Analysis*

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Communalities
Adjust: I will adjust to military service	4.03	.87	.57
Adjust: I will adjust to rush and strict timetables	3.66	1.04	.36
Adjust: I will adjust to military discipline	3.79	.98	.49
Adjust: I will adjust to being away from my family	<b>4.30</b>	.83	.30
Adjust: I will adjust to being away from my friends	3.92	1.01	.33
Adjust: I can cope with the mental pressure of conscript training	3.98	.82	.42
Soc: I normally adjust to a new [social] environment	4.18	<b>.74</b>	.40
Soc: I can adjust to being around people I do not know	4.20	<b>.73</b>	.43
Soc: It is easy for me to make new friends	3.89	1.03	.36
Soc: I usually do not share my thoughts with other people	3.47	1.20	<b>.24</b>
Soc: Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing beforehand	4.17	1.07	.40
Soc: I feel uncomfortable with other people	4.06	1.05	.43
AC: Getting military training (service) is important and significant to me	3.46	<b>1.30</b>	.56
AC: To me it is important to do well in the army	3.74	1.17	.56
AC: Military service is useless and unnecessary	3.93	1.15	.46
AC: I am not interested in military service	3.81	<b>1.29</b>	.59
AC: My personal contribution to military service is important	3.70	1.12	.46
Mot: I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly	<b>4.25</b>	1.01	.49
Mot: I will try to do my best in training	<b>4.33</b>	.98	.56
Mot: I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding	3.52	1.23	.38
NC: All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense	4.16	1.14	.49
NC: Military service is every male citizen's duty	<b>4.37</b>	1.05	.58
CC: I have considered applying to [alternative] civilian service	<b>4.61</b>	.99	.35
CC: I have considered dropping out of [military] service	<b>4.64</b>	.89	.42
Obey: It is easy for me to obey given orders	3.90	1.07	.41
Obey: I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded	3.98	1.09	.45
Obey: An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army	4.01	.99	<b>.29</b>
ES: I often feel depressed	4.12	1.13	.38
ES: I have had suicidal thoughts	<b>4.66</b>	.93	.42
ES: I have often had feelings that life is not worth living	<b>4.51</b>	1.05	.40
ES: I am often anxious and tense	4.03	1.15	.42
ES: If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently	4.18	1.06	<b>.28</b>
PH: I can manage the physical demands of military service	3.83	.94	.53
PH: My health corresponds to the demands of military service	4.18	.93	.48
PH: I am healthy and my physical health is better than in my age group in general	3.04	1.14	.38
School: I adjusted to comprehensive school	4.24	1.00	.34
School: I felt at home at school	3.63	1.08	.42
School: I was willing to help other students at school (not used)	3.71	1.11	<b>.27</b>

*Note.*  $n = 1,658$ . For each variable, missing values are replaced with the variable mean. Communalities of dummy variables are not mentioned because they were not included in the factor analyses.



Table A5.4  
*Time 2 Descriptive Statistics of Scale Items*

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Communalities
Adjust: I have adjusted to military discipline	3.83	.99	.62
Adjust: I have adjusted to being away from my family	4.04	1.02	.51
Adjust: I have adjusted to being away from my friends	3.75	1.09	.56
Adjust: I have adjusted to military service	3.96	1.04	.70
Adjust: I have adjusted to rush and strict timetables	3.59	1.09	.54
Adjust: I have coped with the mental pressure of conscript training	4.03	.94	.64
Soc: I have adjusted to dormitory accommodation (not used)	<b>4.50</b>	<b>.67</b>	.51
Soc: I get along with my barrack mates / squad (not used)	<b>4.61</b>	<b>.61</b>	.50
Soc: I can adjust to being around people I do not know	<b>4.46</b>	<b>.64</b>	.54
Soc: I normally adjust to a new environment	4.22	.77	.50
Soc: Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing	<b>4.50</b>	.89	.47
Soc: I usually do not share my thoughts with other people	3.46	<b>1.25</b>	.37
Soc: I have felt uncomfortable with other people	<b>4.34</b>	.94	.49
Soc: It is easy for me to make new friends	4.08	.99	.44
AC: Military service is useless and unnecessary	3.82	1.23	.59
AC: I am not interested in military service	3.46	<b>1.45</b>	.72
AC: Getting military training is important and significant to me	<b>3.17</b>	<b>1.40</b>	.68
AC: To me it is important to do well in the army	3.45	<b>1.34</b>	.67
AC: My personal contribution to military service is important	3.38	<b>1.25</b>	.63
AC: I am highly motivated to complete my military service (not used)	3.39	<b>1.32</b>	.72
AC: I have felt at home in military service (not used)	<b>3.10</b>	<b>1.33</b>	.70
Mot: I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly	4.02	1.09	.61
Mot: I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding	3.28	<b>1.35</b>	.48
Mot: I have tried to do my best in training	4.18	1.05	.49
NC: All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense	4.11	1.16	.66
NC: Military service is every male citizen's duty	4.19	1.16	.69
CC: I have considered applying to civilian service	<b>4.48</b>	1.09	.48
CC: I have considered dropping out of service	<b>4.40</b>	1.14	.55
Obe: I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded	4.12	1.09	.57
Obe: It is easy for me to obey given orders	3.95	1.11	.52
Obe: An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army	4.00	1.04	.42
Regimentation: Discipline during the training situations is too strict	<b>3.18</b>	<b>1.27</b>	.42
Regimentation: The restrictions of freedom in military life have not affected my mood	<b>2.92</b>	<b>1.40</b>	.52
Regimentation: The last two weeks have been too busy	<b>2.79</b>	<b>1.41</b>	.37
Regimentation: It annoys me that as a conscript I have to compromise over my personal comfort	<b>2.68</b>	<b>1.35</b>	.41
ES: I often feel depressed	4.09	1.17	.56
ES: I have had suicidal thoughts	<b>4.73</b>	.78	.39
ES: I have often had feelings that life is not worth living	<b>4.60</b>	.93	.48
ES: I am often anxious and tense	<b>4.28</b>	1.04	.50
ES: If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently	<b>4.31</b>	1.03	.32
PH: My health corresponds to the demands of military service	4.05	1.00	.59
PH: I have managed the physical demands of military service	3.86	.99	.63

Table A5.4 (continued)

PH: I am healthy and my physical health is better than in my age group in general	<b>3.05</b>	1.20	.48
PB: My current squad has a really good esprit de corps	4.18	.95	.52
PB: In my squad I get help when I need it	<b>4.26</b>	.83	.41
PB: My platoon has a good esprit de corps	4.01	.96	.47
PB: My squad emphasizes common goals	3.47	1.02	.35
PB: In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad	3.89	1.11	.47
PB: At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger	3.91	.93	.41
PB: My squad feels responsible for succeeding as a team	3.69	1.09	.44
PB: I feel appreciated in my squad / barrack room (not used)	3.84	.96	.52
PB: I can influence decisions made in my barrack room / squad (not used)	4.00	.92	.42
Unit: The atmosphere in my company / battery is good	4.01	.87	.34
Friend: My friends in military service have helped me significantly in adjusting to military life (friend items were not used at t2)	3.98	.98	.38
Friend: I have a friend in the army to whom I can talk about anything	3.37	<b>1.37</b>	<b>.27</b>
Friend: I have spent almost all of my free time with my squad / barrack friends	3.44	<b>1.35</b>	<b>.18</b>
H: I have been hazed in the military	<b>4.54</b>	.93	.34
H: Other conscripts have laughed at my failures	4.08	1.16	<b>.28</b>
H: My fellow conscripts have pressured me mentally and physically	<b>4.54</b>	.95	.35
L: I got along well with my closest conscript superior	4.13	.97	.41
L: The nearest instructor has been really interested in and enthusiastic about training	3.56	1.07	<b>.26</b>
L: During a crisis I would like to work with my current conscript superior	3.55	1.16	.33
L: During a crisis I would like to work with my current instructor	3.83	1.07	.38
L: On the part of the regular staff there has been no action that could be classified as degrading	<b>4.26</b>	1.08	.39
L: On the part of the conscript superiors there has been no action that could be classified as degrading	3.96	1.22	.38
During the conscript service I have had quarrels at home	1.88	.32	-
During the conscript service I have had little or no money	1.58	.49	-
During the conscript service I have had disease or injury	1.60	.49	-
During the conscript service I have had sleeping disorders (broken sleep/trouble falling asleep/waking up too early)	1.69	.46	-
During the conscript service I have had quarrels with my girlfriend/boyfriend or with my wife/husband	1.83	.38	-
During the conscript service I have had a relationship that ended	1.94	.24	-
GP: The squad that I belong to would do well in real combat	3.57	1.09	.68
GP: The platoon that I belong to would do well in real combat	3.56	1.04	.65
Attitudes: If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms in all circumstances, no matter what the end result	4.19	1.14	.35
Attitudes: I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years	<b>2.68</b>	<b>1.47</b>	.52
Tr: The training has been challenging and interesting	3.27	1.23	.57
Impact: Military service has had a negative impact on my civil relationships	3.42	<b>1.35</b>	.50
Impact: My situation in civilian life has deteriorated during my time in the army	3.73	<b>1.38</b>	.54
M: I have applied for exemption from field exercise even though I was not ill	<b>4.79</b>	.75	<b>.28</b>
M: I have applied for exemptions from the medical officer or doctor, because I could not care less about participating in military service	<b>4.65</b>	.90	.39

Note.  $n = 1,660$ . For each variable, missing values are replaced with the variable mean.

Table A5.5  
*Basic Training Questionnaire Factors (time 2)*

<b>Commitment to Military Service:</b> To me it is important to do well in the army	.85
Getting military training is important and significant to me	.81
mot: I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly (not used)	.77
My personal contribution to military service is important	.74
Military service is every male citizen's duty	.69
All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense	.67
mot: I have tried to do my best in training (not used)	.63
I am not interested in military service	.62
mot: I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding (not used)	.59
Military service is useless and unnecessary	.58
obey: An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army	.41
<b>Peer Cohesion:</b> My platoon has a good esprit de corps	.82
My current squad has a really good esprit de corps	.80
In my squad I get help when I need it	.56
In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad	.51
My squad emphasizes common goals	.49
My squad feels responsible for succeeding as a team	.45
The atmosphere in my unit is good (used independently)	.39
At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger	.38
<b>Emotional Stability:</b> I have often had feelings that life is not worth living	.92
I have had suicidal thoughts	.82
If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently	.54
I am often anxious and tense	.46
I often feel depressed	.46
<b>Sociability:</b> It is easy for me to make new friends	.79
I normally adjust to a new [social]environment	.70
I have felt uncomfortable with other people	.67
I can adjust to being around people I do not know	.56
I usually do not share my thoughts with other people	.48
Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing	.35

Table A5.5 (continued)

<b>Adjustment and Civilian Relationships:</b> I have adjusted to being away from my friends	.84
I have adjusted to being away from my family	.67
Military service has had a negative impact on my civil relationships	.63
My situation in civilian life has deteriorated during my time in the army	.52
<b>Physical Health:</b> I can manage the physical demands of military service	.84
I am healthy and my physical health is better than in my age group in general	.72
My health corresponds to the demands of military service	.69
<b>BT Superiors:</b> On the part of the regular staff there has been no action that could be classified as degrading	.67
On the part of the conscript superiors there has been no action that could be classified as degrading	.67
During a crisis I would like to work with my current conscript superior	.42
During a crisis I would like to work with my current instructor	.42
The nearest instructor has been really interested in and enthusiastic about training	low
I have been getting along well with my closest conscript superior	low
<b>Malingering:</b> I have applied for exemptions from the medical officer or doctor, because I could not care less about participating in military service	.63
I have applied for exemption from field exercise even though I was not ill	.59
<b>Experienced Hazing:</b> My fellow conscripts have pressured me mentally and physically	.46
I have been hazed in the military	.36
Other conscripts laugh at my failures	.30
<b>Military Adjustment:</b> I have adjusted to military discipline	.74
I have adjusted to rush and strict timetables	.60
obey: I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded	.59
I can cope with the mental pressure of conscript training	.50
I have adjusted to military service	.48
obey: It is easy for me to obey given orders	.43
<b>Regimentation:</b> It annoys me that as a conscript I have to compromise over my personal comfort	.59
The last two weeks have been too busy	.58
Discipline during the training situations is too strict	.54
The restrictions of freedom in military life have not affected my mood	.34
<b>Group Performance:</b> The squad that I belong to would do well in real combat	.84
The platoon that I belong to would do well in real combat	.80
<b>Continuance Commitment:</b> I have considered applying to civilian service	.61
I have considered dropping out of service	.46

*Note.*  $n = 1,660$ . Principal axis factoring with promax rotation. Rotation converged in 9 iterations. KMO = .96. Total variance explained = 49.8 %.

Table A5.6

*Time 3 Descriptive Statistics of Questionnaire Items*

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Communalities
Adjust: I have adjusted to military discipline	3.84	1.13	.65
Adjust: I have adjusted to being away from my family	4.12	1.02	.56
Adjust: I have adjusted to being away from my friends	3.80	1.13	.58
Adjust: I have adjusted to military service	3.98	1.07	.72
Adjust: I have adjusted to rush and strict timetables	3.77	1.11	.69
Adjust: I have coped with the mental pressure of conscript training	4.10	.97	.63
Soc: I have adjusted to dormitory accommodation	<b>4.34</b>	.93	.71
Soc: I can adjust to being around people I do not know	<b>4.34</b>	.83	.75
Soc: I normally adjust to a new [social] environment	4.24	.84	.56
Soc: I get along with my barrack mates / squad	<b>4.35</b>	.87	.60
Soc: It easy for me to make new friends (not used)	3.88	1.08	.41
Soc: I usually do not share my thoughts with other people (not used)	3.40	1.19	.36
Soc: Belonging to a squad or a group feels pressing (not used)	<b>4.26</b>	1.02	.54
Soc: I have felt uncomfortable with other people (not used)	3.95	1.10	.52
Friend: I have a friend in the army to whom I can talk about anything	3.57	<b>1.35</b>	.38
Friend: I have made some real friends in the army	3.79	1.11	.54
Friend: I have spent almost all of my free time with my barrack friends (not used)	3.47	<b>1.33</b>	<b>.29</b>
Friend: My friends in military service have helped me significantly in adjusting to military life (used independently)	3.61	1.05	.47
H: I have been hazed in the military	4.11	1.19	.42
H: Other conscripts have laughed at my failures	3.45	<b>1.30</b>	.36
H: My fellow conscripts have pressured me mentally or physically	3.93	<b>1.28</b>	.42
AC: Military service is useless and unnecessary	3.53	<b>1.30</b>	.58
AC: Getting military training is important and significant to me	<b>3.10</b>	<b>1.36</b>	.58
AC: I am not interested in military service	<b>3.20</b>	<b>1.40</b>	.60
AC: I would have joined the military if serving had been on a voluntary basis	<b>2.84</b>	<b>1.40</b>	.54
AC: The military training I have received is important	3.48	1.16	.62
AC: To me it is important to do well in the army (not used)	3.33	<b>1.28</b>	.61
AC: I am highly motivated to complete my military service (not used)	<b>3.17</b>	<b>1.27</b>	.67
AC: I have felt at home in military service (not used)	<b>2.92</b>	<b>1.26</b>	.59
AC: I do not want to work hard in military service (not used)	<b>2.81</b>	<b>1.33</b>	.51
AC: I have a character suitable for the military (not used)	<b>3.06</b>	<b>1.33</b>	.56
NC: All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense	3.92	<b>1.29</b>	.61
NC: Military service is every male citizen's duty	4.04	1.21	.67
CC: I have considered applying to civilian service	<b>4.27</b>	<b>1.26</b>	.57
CC: I have considered dropping out of service	4.17	1.23	.59
Mot: I want to learn the things that are taught thoroughly	3.68	1.15	.56
Mot: I am willing to participate in training that is intellectually demanding	3.37	<b>1.27</b>	.40
Mot: I have tried to do my best in training	3.74	1.13	.48
Obey: It is easy for me to obey given orders	3.74	1.19	.39
Obey: An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army	3.71	1.12	.43
Obey: I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded	3.94	1.13	.54
Regimentation: Discipline during the training situations is too strict	3.47	1.20	.38
Regimentation: It annoys me that as a conscript I have to compromise over my personal comfort	<b>2.41</b>	<b>1.27</b>	.41

Table A5.6 (continued)

Regimentation: The last two week have been too busy	<b>3.81</b>	<b>1.29</b>	<b>.29</b>
Regimentation: In the mornings the wake-up should be later	<b>2.37</b>	<b>1.42</b>	.38
Regimentation: The rush and strict timetables have considerably decreased my motivation	<b>3.13</b>	<b>1.29</b>	.51
Adjustment to wake-up: I have adjusted to waking up early (at 6 a.m.) (not used)	3.59	<b>1.30</b>	.55
Adjustment to wake-up: In the army I am used to waking up early (not used)	3.54	<b>1.34</b>	.38
Impact: Military service has had a negative impact on my civil relationships	<b>3.06</b>	<b>1.36</b>	.47
Impact: My situation in civilian life has deteriorated during my time in the army	<b>3.25</b>	<b>1.41</b>	.46
ES: I often feel depressed	3.90	1.19	.50
ES: I have had suicidal thoughts	<b>4.52</b>	1.02	.50
ES: I have often had feelings that life is not worth living	<b>4.32</b>	1.14	.56
ES: I am often anxious and tense	4.12	1.10	.55
ES: If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently	4.03	1.14	.38
PH: My health has corresponded to the demands of military service	4.17	.98	.57
PH: I have managed the physical demands of military service	4.12	.94	.58
PB: In my squad I got help when I needed it	3.89	1.00	.47
PB: My platoon has a good esprit de corps	3.78	1.15	.52
PB: My squad emphasizes common goals	<b>3.16</b>	1.19	.45
PB: I have felt appreciated in my squad / barrack room	3.59	1.02	.57
PB: I have been able to influence the decisions made in my barrack room / squad	3.86	1.03	.50
PB: My current squad has a really good esprit de corps*	3.79	1.05	.57
PB: At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger*	3.65	1.02	.59
PB: In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad*	3.70	1.12	.57
SL: I have been getting along well with my closest conscript superior*	3.96	1.12	.42
SL: My squad leader has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me*	3.73	1.07	.52
SL: During field practice my squad leader has set an example and tried his or her hardest*	3.26	1.15	.54
SL: On the whole my squad leader is a good person*	3.67	1.11	.63
SL: My squad leader masters his or her duties*	3.65	1.01	.56
SL: During a crisis I would like to work with my current squad leader*	3.45	1.15	.58
PL: My platoon leader has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me*	3.84	1.04	.62
PL: During field practice my platoon leader has set an example and tried his or her hardest*	3.58	1.05	.59
PL: On the whole my platoon leader is a good person*	3.75	1.06	.67
PL: My platoon leader masters his or her duties*	3.83	.97	.62
PL: During a crisis I would like to work under my platoon leader*	3.74	1.03	.64
Instructor: My closest instructor masters his or her duties*	3.91	1.09	.55
Instructor: My closest instructor has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me*	3.79	1.10	.59
Instructor: During a crisis I would like to work under my current instructor*	3.62	1.20	.62
Unit: The atmosphere in my unit is good	3.62	1.13	.47
Unit: I am proud of my unit (company / battery)	3.42	<b>1.33</b>	.46
Unit Tr: How effectively have you been trained for war / crisis (Likert)	<b>2.99</b>	.93	.46
Pos: I have experienced some really interesting and exciting events / moments during conscript service*	3.61	1.20	.56
Pos: I will have some very positive memories from my conscript service*	3.88	1.11	.59
Pos: I have learned new things about myself during conscript service* (not used)	3.55	1.12	.45
Info: After training, an instructor told my squad how well we performed*	3.70	1.04	.50
Info: I have been informed how well I have done in training*	3.36	1.07	.51
Info: After training, we were told what went well and what did not*	3.66	1.02	.50
Info: The instructor's feedback helped me to understand how to perform*	3.43	1.05	.50

Table A5.6 (continued)

Info: At the beginning of training I was clearly told of the training goals*	3.51	1.02	.41
Info: I have been aware of whether I have achieved the goals of training*	3.46	1.01	.46
Info: I have been aware how I have done in training compared to others*	3.29	1.07	.42
QT: The training facilities have been appropriate*	3.47	1.02	.37
QT: The training methods have been appropriate for the skills trained*	3.42	.99	.52
QT: In training, the weapons and equipment have been appropriate and functional*	3.60	1.05	.44
QT: Generally, the field practices were organized effectively*	<b>3.18</b>	1.11	.47
QT: The daily program was usually organized effectively*	<b>3.08</b>	1.14	.44
Think: In training, one must think a lot* (not used)	<b>2.85</b>	1.20	.43
Think: During training my squad has been allowed to try our own ideas and solutions*	<b>3.12</b>	1.17	.65
Think: During training I have been allowed to try my own ideas and solutions*	<b>3.10</b>	1.23	.65
PT: The physical training I received was varied*	<b>2.65</b>	1.20	.37
PT: The training took into account factors related to recovery after physically demanding exercises*	<b>2.90</b>	1.15	.37
PT: The physical exertion of the conscript training showed an upward trend*	<b>2.61</b>	1.14	.37
PT: The conscript service strengthened or inspired a lasting interest in exercising, which will continue after the service*	<b>2.61</b>	1.21	.38
PT: The physical training program has taken/took into account the individual differences of the trainees*	<b>2.80</b>	1.17	.39
During the conscript service I have had quarrels at home	1.63	.48	-
During the conscript service I have had little or no money	1.29	.46	-
During the conscript service I have had disease or injury	1.56	.50	-
During the conscript service I have had sleeping disorders (broken sleep/trouble falling asleep/wake up too early)	1.61	.49	-
During the conscript service I have had quarrels with my girlfriend/boyfriend or with my wife/husband	1.57	.50	-
During the conscript service I have had a relationship that ended	1.77	.42	-
GP: The squad which I belong to would do well in real combat*	3.47	1.12	.66
GP: The platoon that I belong to would do well in real combat*	3.51	1.07	.66
PP: On the basis of my physical condition I could get through two weeks of battles and three to four days and nights of decisive battles*	<b>3.25</b>	1.17	.49
PP: On the basis of my mental health I could get through two weeks of battles and three to four days and nights of decisive battles*	3.51	1.10	.53
PP: I have a clear picture of my duty during war*	3.69	1.13	.53
PP: On the basis of my training I could do my duty during war*	3.73	1.04	.55
PP: The training has given me the mental skills for battle situations*	<b>3.15</b>	1.08	.46
PP: In all circumstances, I master the weapons and equipment needed for my duty*	3.91	.97	.41
MP: Wartime field proficiency**	3.57	.79	.52
MP: Military overall estimation**	3.70	.83	.53
Career: I would consider working in the Defence Forces after my conscript service*	<b>2.04</b>	1.24	.71
Career: Experiences in conscript service have increased my interest for staying in the service of the Defence Forces*	<b>1.96</b>	1.16	.72
Career: In my view the Defence Forces would be a good employer*	<b>2.21</b>	1.19	.57
Refresh: I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years	<b>2.54</b>	<b>1.45</b>	.45
ND: If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms in all circumstances, no matter what the end result*	<b>4.26</b>	.99	.47
ND: I am ready to participate in military national defense as part of national service duties*	4.24	1.00	.56
ND: Finland has to have functioning Defence Forces	<b>4.50</b>	.85	.50

Table A5.6 (continued)

PG: Due to military service I can take other people into consideration as well	3.26	1.15	.41
PG: My mental stamina has improved considerably during military service	3.45	1.11	.48
PG: The rules and restrictions of the army have been an educational experience	3.36	1.22	.56
PG: My independence has increased during military service	<b>3.23</b>	1.24	.42
PG: In the army I have learned to take responsibility for myself and others	3.63	1.10	.55
PG: The army has taught me self-control	3.44	1.23	.50
PG: During my time in the army, I have learned to organize my schedule	3.30	1.16	.51
PG: The army has a significant educational purpose	3.43	<b>1.25</b>	.61
Malingering: I have applied for exemption from field exercise even though I was not ill	4.10	<b>1.35</b>	.54
Malingering: I have applied for exemptions from the medical officer or doctor, because I could not care less about participating in military service	3.92	<b>1.40</b>	.56

*Note.*  $n = 1,660$ . \* = questions in Questionnaire 4;  $n = 1,534$ . \*\* = military performance appraisal.





Table A5.7 (continued)

In my squad I get help when I need it	.5	
unit: The atmosphere in my unit is good	.3	.4
I have a friend in the army to whom I can talk about anything	.4	
unit: I am proud of my unit	.3	.3
SL: I have been getting along well with my closest conscript superior	.3	
<b>Emotional Stability:</b> I have often had feelings that life is not worth living	.7	
I have had suicidal thoughts	.6	
I am often anxious and tense	.6	
I often feel depressed	.5	
If I could live my life all over again, I would do almost everything differently	.5	
CC: I have considered dropping out of service	.4	.4
H: I have been hazed in the military	.4	
obey: I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded	.4	.3
obey: It is easy for me to obey given orders	.3	
<b>Training Information and Feedback:</b> After training, we were told what went well and what did not	.7	
I have been informed how well I have done in training	.7	
After training, an instructor has told my squad how well we performed	.6	
The instructor's feedback has helped me to understand how to perform	.6	
I have been aware of how I have done in training compared to others	.5	
I have been aware of whether I have achieved the goals of training	.5	
At the beginning of training I was clearly told of the training goals	.4	
On the whole my <b>Platoon Leader</b> is a good person	.8	
During a crisis I would like to work under my (conscript) platoon leader	.8	
My platoon leader masters his or her duties	.7	
During field practice my platoon leader has set an example and tried his or her hardest	.7	
My platoon leader has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me	.7	
On the whole my <b>Squad Leader</b> is a good person	.8	
My squad leader masters his or her duties	.7	
During a crisis I would like to work with my current squad leader	.7	
During field practice my squad leader has set an example and tried his or her hardest	.6	
My squad leader has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me	.6	
<b>Regimentation:</b> The rush and strict timetable have considerably decreased my motivation	.6	
In the mornings the wake-up should be later	.5	

Table A5.7 (continued)

Discipline during the training situations is too strict	.4				
It annoys me that as a conscript I have to compromise over my personal comfort	.4				
The last two weeks have been too busy	.4				
obey: An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army	.3				
<b>Commitment:</b> Military service is every male citizen's duty	.6				.4
All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense	.5				.3
To me it is important to do well in the army	.5		.4		
I have considered applying to civilian service	.5				
Getting military training is important and significant to me	.5				
Military service is useless and unnecessary	.4				
I am not interested in military service	.3				.4
<b>Career:</b> I would consider working in the Defence Forces after my conscript service	.8				
Experiences in conscript service have increased my interest for staying in the service of the Defence Forces	.8				
In my view the Defence Forces would be a good employer	.7				
<b>Quality of Training:</b> In training, the weapons and equipment have been appropriate and functional	.6				
The training methods have been appropriate for the skills trained	.6				
Generally, the field practices were organized effectively	.5				
The training facilities have been appropriate	.5				
The daily program was usually organized effectively	.5				
The <b>Physical Training</b> program took into account the individual differences of the trainees	.6				
The conscript service strengthened or inspired a lasting interest in exercising, which will continue after the service	.6				
The physical exertion of conscript training showed an upward trend	.5				
The physical training I received was varied	.5				
The training took into account factors related to recovery after physically demanding exercises	.5				
<b>National Defense Attitudes:</b> If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms in all circumstances, no matter what the end result	.7				
Finland has to have functioning Defence Forces	.6				
If Finland is attacked, I am ready to participate in military national defense as part of national service duties	.6				
<b>Instructors:</b> During a crisis I would like to work under my current instructor	.8				
My closest instructor has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me	.7				
My closest instructor masters his or her duties	.7				

Table A5.7 (continued)

<b>Cohesion in War:</b> In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad	.3	.7
My current squad has a really good esprit de corps	.4	.6
At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger	.3	.6
<b>Performance:</b> On the basis of my training I could do my duty during war		.7
I have a clear picture of my duty during war	.3	.6
The platoon that I belong to would do well in real combat		.3
The squad which I belong to would do well in real combat		.4
In all circumstances, I master the weapons and equipment needed for my duty		.3
Training has given me the mental skills for battle situations		.4
<b>Battle performance:</b> On the basis of my mental health I could get through 2 weeks of battles and 3-4 days and nights of decisive battles		.3
On the basis of my physical condition I could get through 2 weeks of battles and 3-4 days and nights of decisive battles		.6
<b>Allowed to Think:</b> During training I have been allowed to try my own ideas and solutions		.6
During training my squad has been allowed to try our own ideas and solutions		.8
<b>Malingering:</b> I have applied for exemptions, because I could not care less about participating in military service		.7
I have applied for exemption from field exercise even though I was not ill		.7
<b>Performance Ratings:</b> Wartime field proficiency		.7
Overall estimation of military performance		.7
<b>Service Impact:</b> Military service has had a negative impact on my civil relationships		.6
My situation in civilian life has deteriorated during my time in the army		.5
<b>Experienced Hazing:</b> My fellow conscripts have pressured me mentally or physically		.5
Other conscripts have laughed at my failures		.4

Note.  $n = 1,523$ . Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation. Rotation converged in 11 iterations.  $KMO = .95$ . Total variance explained = 52.0 %.

**Bayesian Models of the Main Adjustment-Related Variables**

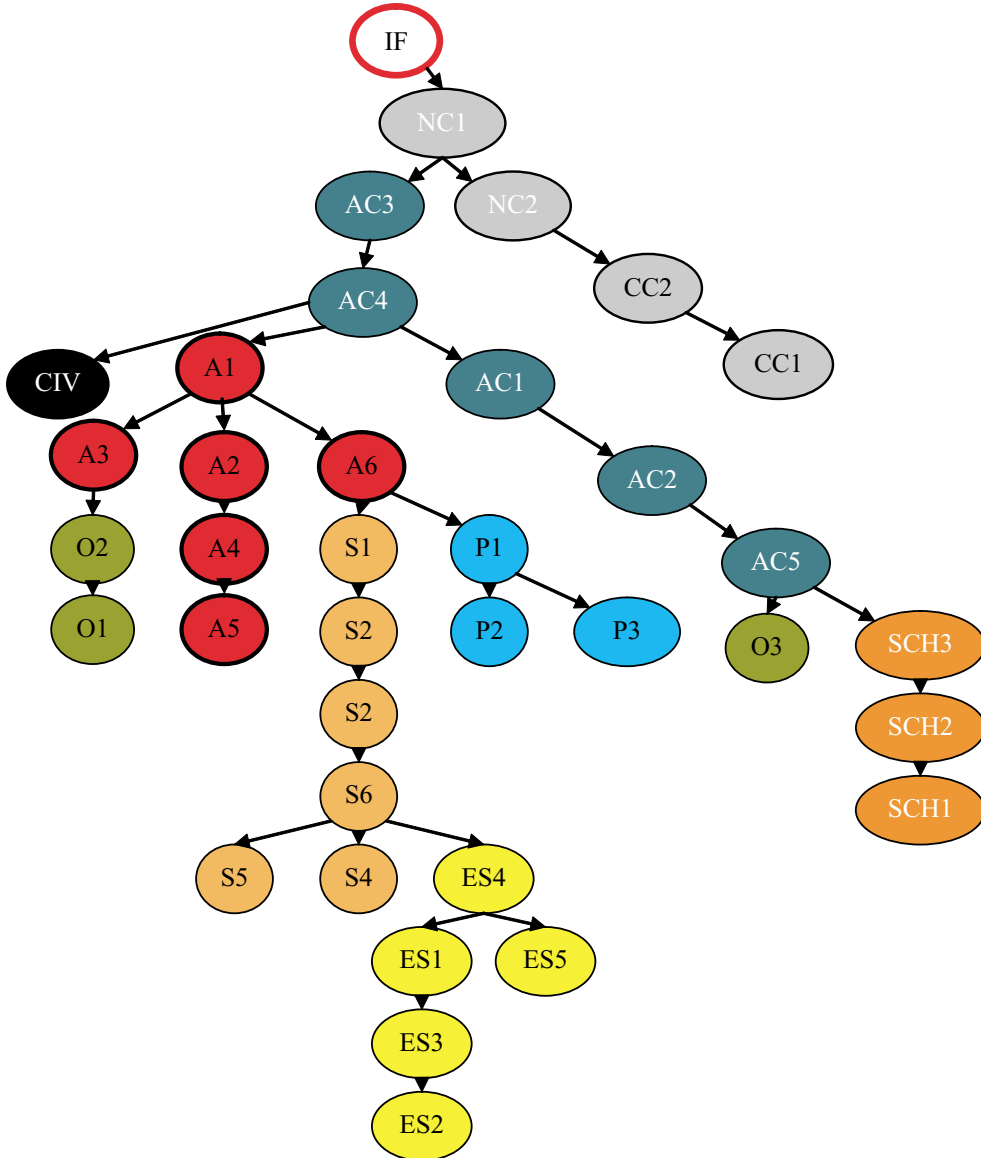


Figure (t1). *Time 1 Bayesian Dependence Model (i.e. Pre-Service Attitudes and Expectations)*

- IF = If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms
- AC = Affective Commitment
- NC = Normative Commitment
- CC = Intent to Stay
- A = Military Adjustment
- P = Physical Health
- S = Sociability
- ES = Emotional Stability
- O = Acceptance of Authority
- Sch = Schooling
- Civ = Impact on Civilian Life



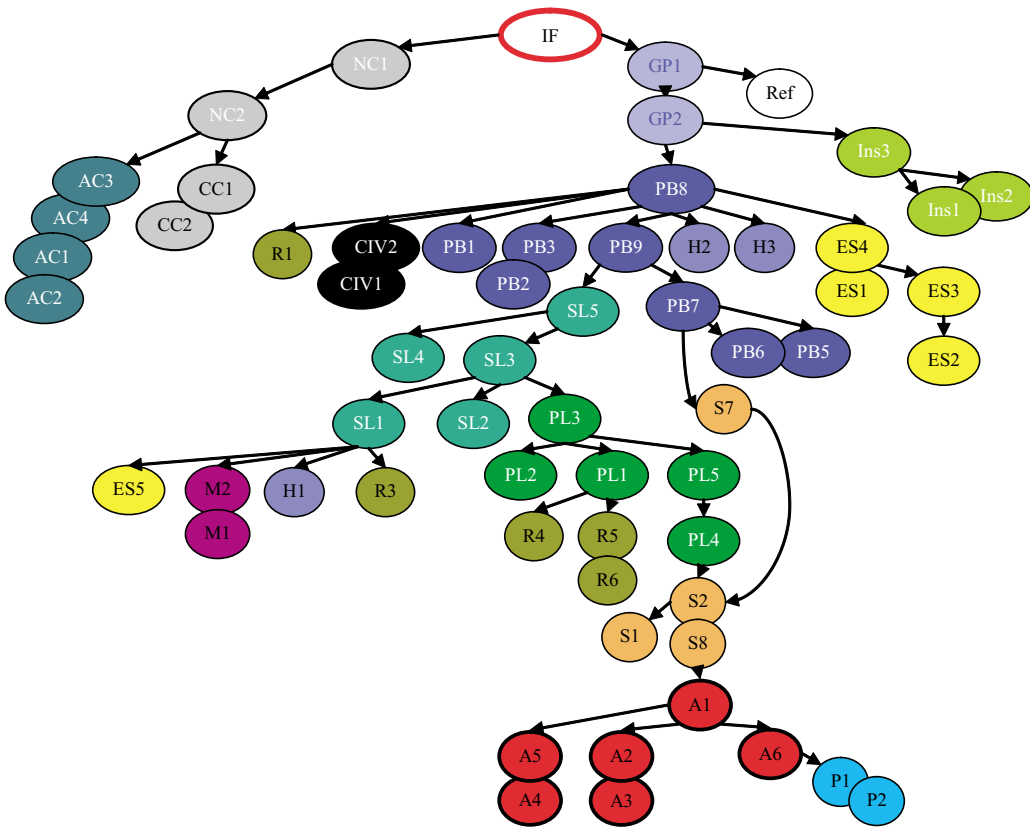


Figure (t3). *Time 3 Bayesian Dependence Model (i.e. at the End of Service)*

- IF = If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms
- AC = Affective Commitment
- NC = Normative Commitment
- CC = Intent to Stay
- A = Military Adjustment
- P = Physical Health
- S = Sociability
- ES = Emotional Stability
- M = Malingering
- R = Regimentation
- Civ = Service Impact on Personal Civilian Life
- Ref = I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years
- GP = Group Performance
- PB = Peer Bonding
- H = Experienced Hazing
- SL = Squad Leader
- PL = Platoon Leader
- Ins = Instructor

## Adjustment Scales and Indexes

### 1. Personal Factors

#### Military Adjustment Index

1. I have adjusted to military service  
 $t1: M = 4.0; SD = .87;$        $t2: M = 4.0; SD = 1.04;$        $t3: M = 4.0; SD = 1.07$
  2. I have adjusted to rush and strict timetables  
 $t1: M = 3.7; SD = 1.04;$        $t2: M = 3.6; SD = 1.09;$        $t3: M = 3.8; SD = 1.11$
  3. I have adjusted to military discipline  
 $t1: M = 3.8; SD = .98;$        $t2: M = 3.8; SD = .99;$        $t3: M = 3.8; SD = 1.13$
  4. I have adjusted to being away from my friends  
 $t1: M = 3.9; SD = 1.01;$        $t2: M = 3.8; SD = 1.09;$        $t3: M = 3.8; SD = 1.13$
  5. I have adjusted to being away from my family  
 $t1: M = 4.3; SD = .83;$        $t2: M = 4.0; SD = 1.02;$        $t3: M = 4.1; SD = 1.02$
  6. I can cope with the mental pressure of conscript training  
 $t1: M = 4.0; SD = .82;$        $t2: M = 4.0; SD = .94;$        $t3: M = 4.1; SD = .97$
- $t1: \alpha = .77;$  item-total  $r$  range = .41 - .63;  $M = 3.95; SD = .63$  ( $n = 1,660$ )  
 $t2: \alpha = .86;$  item-total  $r$  range = .58 - .71;  $M = 3.87; SD = .80$  ( $n = 1,651$ )  
 $t3: \alpha = .88;$  item-total  $r$  range = .64 - .77;  $M = 3.93; SD = .85$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

#### Intent to Stay (i.e. Considered Separation)

1. I have considered applying to [alternative] civilian service  
 $t1: M = 4.6; SD = .99;$        $t2: M = 4.5; SD = 1.09;$        $t3: M = 4.3; SD = 1.26$
  2. I have considered dropping out of [military] service  
 $t1: M = 4.6; SD = .89;$        $t2: M = 4.4; SD = 1.14;$        $t3: M = 4.2; SD = 1.23$
- $t1: \alpha = .64;$  item-total  $r = .48; M = 4.63; SD = .81$  ( $n = 1,660$ )  
 $t2: \alpha = .74;$  item-total  $r = .59; M = 4.44; SD = 1.00$  ( $n = 1,651$ )  
 $t3: \alpha = .80;$  item-total  $r = .67; M = 4.22; SD = 1.14$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

#### Affective Commitment

1. Getting military training is important and significant to me  
 $t1: M = 3.5; SD = 1.30;$        $t2: M = 3.2; SD = 1.40;$        $t3: M = 3.1; SD = 1.36$
  2. To me it is important to do well in the army  
 $t1: M = 3.7; SD = 1.17;$        $t2: M = 3.5; SD = 1.34;$        $t3: M = 3.3; SD = 1.28$
  3. Military service is useless and unnecessary  
 $t1: M = 3.9; SD = 1.15;$        $t2: M = 3.8; SD = 1.23;$        $t3: M = 3.5; SD = 1.30$
  4. I am not interested in military service  
 $t1: M = 3.8; SD = 1.29;$        $t2: M = 3.5; SD = 1.46;$        $t3: M = 3.2; SD = 1.40$
  5. My personal contribution to military service is important  
 $t1: M = 3.7; SD = 1.12;$        $t2: M = 3.4; SD = 1.25$       –
- $t1: \alpha = .85;$  item-total  $r$  range = .61 - .72;  $M = 3.73; SD = .96$  ( $n = 1,660$ )  
 $t2: \alpha = .90;$  item-total  $r$  range = .68 - .79;  $M = 3.46; SD = 1.13$  ( $n = 1,651$ )  
 $t3: \alpha = .82;$  item-total  $r$  range = .61 - .67;  $M = 3.29; SD = 1.08$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

#### Normative Commitment

1. All men should carry out military service as a part of total defense  
 $t1: M = 4.2; SD = 1.14;$        $t2: M = 4.1; SD = 1.16;$        $t3: M = 3.9; SD = 1.29$
2. Military service is every male citizen's duty  
 $t1: M = 4.4; SD = 1.05;$        $t2: M = 4.2; SD = 1.16;$        $t3: M = 4.0; SD = 1.21$





Acceptance of Authority

1. It is easy for me to obey given orders  
t1:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.08$ ; t2:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.12$ ; t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.19$
  2. I cannot stand being ordered around and commanded  
t1:  $M = 4.0$ ;  $SD = 1.09$ ; t2:  $M = 4.1$ ;  $SD = 1.09$ ; t3:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.13$
  3. An explicit chain of command promotes action in the army  
t1:  $M = 4.0$ ;  $SD = .99$ ; t2:  $M = 4.0$ ;  $SD = 1.04$ ; t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.12$
- t1:  $\alpha = .65$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .37 - .51;  $M = 3.96$ ;  $SD = .81$  ( $n = 1,660$ )  
t2:  $\alpha = .72$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .46 - .59;  $M = 4.02$ ;  $SD = .87$  ( $n = 1,651$ )  
t3:  $\alpha = .63$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .41 - .45;  $M = 3.80$ ;  $SD = .87$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

Adjustment in Civilian Schooling

1. I adjusted to comprehensive school t1:  $M = 4.2$ ;  $SD = 1.00$
  2. I felt at home at school t1:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.08$
  3. I was willing to help other students at school t1:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.11$
- t1:  $\alpha = .67$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .39 - .56;  $M = 3.86$ ;  $SD = .82$  ( $n = 1,660$ ) (three items)  
t1:  $\alpha = .69$ ; item-total  $r = .53$ ;  $M = 3.93$ ;  $SD = .91$  ( $n = 1,660$ ) (the first two items)

Stressful Life Events (Index)

1. During the conscript service I have had quarrels at home  
t1:  $M = 1.6$ ;  $SD = .49$ ; t2:  $M = 1.9$ ;  $SD = .33$ ; t3:  $M = 1.9$ ;  $SD = .48$
  2. ...little or no money  
t1:  $M = 1.5$ ;  $SD = .50$ ; t2:  $M = 1.6$ ;  $SD = .49$ ; t3:  $M = 1.3$ ;  $SD = .46$
  3. ...disease or injury  
t1:  $M = 1.7$ ;  $SD = .45$ ; t2:  $M = 1.6$ ;  $SD = .49$ ; t3:  $M = 1.6$ ;  $SD = .50$
  4. ...sleeping disorders  
t1:  $M = 1.7$ ;  $SD = .45$ ; t2:  $M = 1.7$ ;  $SD = .46$ ; t3:  $M = 1.6$ ;  $SD = .49$
  5. ...quarrels with my girlfriend / boyfriend or with my wife / husband  
t1:  $M = 1.7$ ;  $SD = .45$ ; t2:  $M = 1.8$ ;  $SD = .38$ ; t3:  $M = 1.6$ ;  $SD = .50$
  6. ...a relationship that ended  
t1:  $M = 1.7$ ;  $SD = .44$ ; t2:  $M = 1.9$ ;  $SD = .24$ ; t3:  $M = 1.8$ ;  $SD = .42$
- t1:  $\alpha = .50$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .18 - .32;  $M = 1.67$ ;  $SD = .25$  ( $n = 1,660$ )  
t2:  $\alpha = .49$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .15 - .32;  $M = 1.75$ ;  $SD = .22$  ( $n = 1,651$ )  
t3:  $\alpha = .61$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .25 - .43;  $M = 1.57$ ;  $SD = .28$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

**2. Situational and Institutional Adjustment Factors****2.1 Social Experiences**Experienced Hazing

1. I have been hazed in the military t2:  $M = 4.5$ ;  $SD = .93$ ; t3:  $M = 4.1$ ;  $SD = 1.19$
  2. Other conscripts have laughed at my failures  
2:  $M = 4.1$ ;  $SD = 1.17$ ; t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.30$
  3. My fellow conscripts have pressured me mentally or physically  
t2:  $M = 4.5$ ;  $SD = .96$ ; t3:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.28$
- t2:  $\alpha = .62$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .41 - .47;  $M = 4.39$ ;  $SD = .77$  ( $n = 1,651$ )  
t3:  $\alpha = .66$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .45 - .50;  $M = 3.83$ ;  $SD = .97$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

Friends

1. I have a friend in the army to whom I can talk about anything t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.35$   
 2. I have made some really good friends in the army t3:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.11$   
 t3:  $\alpha = .63$ ; item-total  $r = .47$ ;  $M = 3.68$ ;  $SD = 1.06$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

Peer Cohesion

1. In my squad I get help when I need it  
 t2:  $M = 4.3$ ;  $SD = .84$ ; t3:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.00$   
 2. I have been able to influence the decisions made in my barrack room / squad  
 t2: *not used* t3:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.03$   
 3. I have felt appreciated in my squad / barrack room  
 t2: *not used* t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.01$   
 4. My squad feels responsible for succeeding as a team  
 t2:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.09$   
 5. My squad underlines common goals  
 t2:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ; t3:  $M = 3.2$ ;  $SD = 1.19$   
 6. My platoon has a good esprit de corps  
 t2:  $M = 4.0$ ;  $SD = .97$ ; t3:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.14$   
 7. My current squad has a really good esprit de corps  
 t2:  $M = 4.2$ ;  $SD = .95$ ; t3:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.09$   
 8. At war my squad members would help me even if it might put them in danger  
 t2:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = .93$ ; t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.06$   
 9. In case of war, I would like to be in my current squad  
 t2:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.11$ ; t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.17$   
 t2:  $\alpha = .82$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .51 - .59;  $M = 3.91$ ;  $SD = .68$  (7 items) ( $n = 1,651$ )  
 t3:  $\alpha = .85$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .52 - .64;  $M = 3.67$ ;  $SD = .76$  (8 items;  $n = 1,660$ )

**2.2 Leadership**Basic Training Superiors (squad leaders and instructors)

1. I have been getting along well with my closest conscript superior  
 t2:  $M = 4.1$ ;  $SD = .97$   
 2. The nearest instructor has been really interested in and enthusiastic about training  
 t2:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.07$   
 3. During a crisis I would like to work under my current conscript superior  
 t2:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.16$   
 4. During a crisis I would like to work under my current instructor  
 t2:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.08$   
 5. On part of the regular staff there has been no action that could be classified as degrading  
 t2:  $M = 4.3$ ;  $SD = 1.08$   
 6. On part of the conscript superiors there has been no action that could be classified as degrading  
 t2:  $M = 4.0$ ;  $SD = 1.22$   
 t2:  $\alpha = .70$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .36 - .47;  $M = 3.88$ ;  $SD = .69$  ( $n = 1,651$ )

Confidence in Conscript Squad Leader

1. My squad leader has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.11$   
 2. During field practice my squad leader has set an example and tried his or her hardest  
 t3:  $M = 3.3$ ;  $SD = 1.19$   
 3. On the whole my squad leader is a good person t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.15$   
 4. My squad leader masters his or her duties (weapons, equipment, management)  
 t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.05$   
 5. During a crisis I would like to work under my current squad leader t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.20$   
 t3:  $\alpha = .86$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .63 - .75;  $M = 3.55$ ;  $SD = .91$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Confidence in Conscript Platoon Leader

1. My platoon leader has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me t3:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.08$
  2. During the field practice my platoon leader has set an example and tried his or her hardest t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.10$
  3. On the whole my platoon leader is a good person t3:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.11$
  4. My platoon leader masters his or her duties t3:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.01$
  5. During a crisis I would like to work under my current platoon leader t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.07$
- t3:  $\alpha = .89$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .71 - .79;  $M = 3.75$ ;  $SD = .90$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Confidence in Instructors

1. My closest instructor masters his or her duties t3:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.14$
  2. My closest instructor has dealt fairly and straightforwardly with me t3:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.14$
  3. During a crisis I would like to work under my current instructor t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.24$
- t3:  $\alpha = .84$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .67 - .73;  $M = 3.78$ ;  $SD = 1.02$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

**2.3 Organizational Experiences**Regimentation

1. It annoys me that as a conscript I have to compromise over my personal comfort  
t2:  $M = 2.7$ ;  $SD = 1.35$ ; t3:  $M = 2.4$ ;  $SD = 1.27$
  2. The restrictions of freedom in military life have not affected my mood  
t2:  $M = 2.9$ ;  $SD = 1.40$ ; t3: *not used*
  3. Discipline during the training situations is too strict  
t2:  $M = 3.2$ ;  $SD = 1.28$ ; t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.20$
  4. The last two weeks have been too busy  
t2:  $M = 2.8$ ;  $SD = 1.41$ ; t3:  $M = 3.8$ ;  $SD = 1.29$
  5. The rush and strict timetables have considerably decreased my motivation  
t3:  $M = 3.1$ ;  $SD = 1.29$
  6. In the mornings the wake-up should be later  
t3:  $M = 2.4$ ;  $SD = 1.42$
- t2:  $\alpha = .75$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .53 - .59;  $M = 2.90$ ;  $SD = 1.03$  ( $n = 1,651$ )  
t3:  $\alpha = .68$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .33 - .60;  $M = 3.04$ ;  $SD = .86$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

Company Climate

1. The atmosphere in my company / battery is good t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.13$
  2. I am proud of my unit (company / battery) t3:  $M = 3.4$ ;  $SD = 1.33$
- t3:  $\alpha = .68$ ; item-total  $r = .52$ ;  $M = 3.51$ ;  $SD = 1.08$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

Positive Military Experiences

1. I have experienced some really interesting and exciting events / moments during conscript service t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.24$
  2. I will have some very positive memories of my conscript service t3:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.16$
  3. I have learned new things about myself during conscript service t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.16$
- t3:  $\alpha = .76$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .49 - .65;  $M = 3.68$ ;  $SD = .97$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Training Quality

1. The training facilities were functional t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.06$
  2. The training methods were appropriate for the skills trained t3:  $M = 3.4$ ;  $SD = 1.03$
  3. In training, the weapons and equipment were appropriate and functional  
t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.09$
  4. Generally, the field practices were organized effectively t3:  $M = 3.2$ ;  $SD = 1.16$
  5. The daily program was usually organized effectively t3:  $M = 3.1$ ;  $SD = 1.18$
- t3:  $\alpha = .77$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .48 - .61;  $M = 3.35$ ;  $SD = .80$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Training Information and Feedback

1. At the beginning of training I was clearly told of the training goals t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.07$
  2. I have been aware of whether I have achieved the goals of training t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.05$
  3. After training, an instructor has told my squad how well we performed t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.09$
  4. I have been informed how well I have done in training t3:  $M = 3.4$ ;  $SD = 1.11$
  5. After training, we were told what went well and what did not t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.06$
  6. The instructor's feedback has helped me understand how to perform t3:  $M = 3.4$ ;  $SD = 1.10$
  7. I have been aware of how I have done in training compared to others t3:  $M = 3.3$ ;  $SD = 1.11$
- t3:  $\alpha = .83$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .50 - .64;  $M = 3.49$ ;  $SD = .76$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Allowed to Think

1. During training my squad has been allowed to try our own ideas and solutions t3:  $M = 3.1$ ;  $SD = 1.22$
  2. During training I have been allowed to try my own ideas and solutions t3:  $M = 3.1$ ;  $SD = 1.28$
- t3:  $\alpha = .86$ ; item-total  $r = .75$ ;  $M = 3.11$ ;  $SD = 1.17$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Quality of Physical Training

1. The physical training I received was varied t3:  $M = 2.7$ ;  $SD = 1.24$
  2. The training took into account factors related to recovery after physically demanding exercises t3:  $M = 2.9$ ;  $SD = 1.20$
  3. The physical exertion of conscript training showed an upward trend t3:  $M = 2.6$ ;  $SD = 1.19$
  4. The conscript service strengthened or inspired a lasting interest in exercising, which will continue after the service t3:  $M = 2.6$ ;  $SD = 1.25$
  5. The physical training program took into account the individual differences of the trainees t3:  $M = 2.8$ ;  $SD = 1.21$
- t3:  $\alpha = .72$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .44 - .51;  $M = 2.71$ ;  $SD = .84$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

**3. Adjustment Criteria**Group Performance

1. The squad which I belong to would do well in real combat  
t2:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.09$ ; t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.16$
  2. The platoon that I belong to would do well in real combat  
t2:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = 1.05$ ; t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.11$
- t2:  $\alpha = .87$ ; item-total  $r = .78$ ;  $M = 3.88$ ;  $SD = .69$  ( $n = 1,651$ )  
t3:  $\alpha = .85$ ; item-total  $r = .75$ ;  $M = 3.49$ ;  $SD = 1.06$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Personal Performance

1. I have a clear picture of my duty during war t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.18$
  2. On the basis of my training I could do my duty during war t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.09$
  3. Training has given me the mental skills for battle situations t3:  $M = 3.2$ ;  $SD = 1.12$
  4. In all circumstance, I master the weapons and equipment needed for my duty  
t3:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.01$
  5. On the basis of my physical condition I could get through two weeks of battles and three to four days and nights of decisive battles t3:  $M = 3.3$ ;  $SD = 1.22$
  6. On the basis of my mental health I could get through two weeks of battles and three to four days and nights of decisive battles t3:  $M = 3.5$ ;  $SD = 1.15$
- t3:  $\alpha = .77$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .47 - .58;  $M = 3.54$ ;  $SD = .77$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Performance Ratings by Instructors

1. Wartime field proficiency t3:  $M = 3.6$ ;  $SD = .80$
  2. Overall estimation of military performance t3:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = .84$
- t3:  $\alpha = .79$ ; item-total  $r = .65$ ;  $M = 3.64$ ;  $SD = .74$  ( $n = 1,642$ )

Personal Growth and Development

t3:  $\alpha = .87$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .55 - .68;  $M = 3.39$ ;  $SD = .86$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

Career Intentions

t3:  $\alpha = .87$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .69 - .80;  $M = 2.07$ ;  $SD = 1.11$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Refresher Training Intentions ( $n = 1,660$ )

I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years

t2:  $M = 2.68$ ;  $SD = 1.47$ ;

t3:  $M = 2.54$ ;  $SD = 1.45$

National Defense Attitudes

1. If Finland is attacked, the Finns must defend themselves with arms in all circumstances, no matter what the end result

t1:  $M = 4.13$ ;  $SD = 1.19$ ;

t2:  $M = 4.19$ ;  $SD = 1.14$ ;

t3:  $M = 4.26$ ;  $SD = 1.03$

2. If Finland is attacked, I am ready to participate in military national defense as part of national service duties

t3:  $M = 4.2$ ;  $SD = 1.04$

3. Finland has to have functioning Defence Forces

t3:  $M = 4.5$ ;  $SD = .89$

t3:  $\alpha = .78$ ; item-total  $r$  range = .61 - .62;  $M = 4.34$ ;  $SD = .82$  ( $n = 1,534$ )

Malingering (i.e. Seeking Exemptions)

1. I have applied for exemption from field exercise even though I was not ill

t2:  $M = 4.8$ ;  $SD = .75$ ;

t3:  $M = 4.1$ ;  $SD = 1.35$

2. I have applied for exemptions from the medical officer or doctor, because I could not care less about participating in military service

t2:  $M = 4.7$ ;  $SD = .90$ ;

t3:  $M = 3.9$ ;  $SD = 1.40$

t2:  $\alpha = .62$ ; item-total  $r = .46$ ;  $M = 4.72$ ;  $SD = .71$  ( $n = 1,650$ )

t3:  $\alpha = .80$ ; item-total  $r = .67$ ;  $M = 4.01$ ;  $SD = 1.26$  ( $n = 1,658$ )

Service Impact on Personal Civilian Life

1. Military service has had a negative impact on my civil relationships

t2:  $M = 3.4$ ;  $SD = 1.35$ ;

t3:  $M = 3.1$ ;  $SD = 1.36$

2. My situation in civilian life has deteriorated during my time in the army

t2:  $M = 3.7$ ;  $SD = 1.39$ ;

t3:  $M = 3.3$ ;  $SD = 1.41$

t2:  $\alpha = .76$ ; item-total  $r = .61$ ;  $M = 3.57$ ;  $SD = 1.23$  ( $n = 1,651$ )

t3:  $\alpha = .68$ ; item-total  $r = .51$ ;  $M = 3.16$ ;  $SD = 1.21$  ( $n = 1,660$ )

## Additional Regression Models of Military Adjustment

### *Time 1 – Military Adjustment*

Table A8.1

*Background and Aptitude Predictors of Military Adjustment Expectations at Time 1*

Background and Aptitude Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Significant others had a positive attitude towards military service	.19	.001	.36	.36	.13
2) Desired duty and service period	.19	.001	.34	.44	.19
3) Received enough information about conscription	.15	.001	.26	.47	.22
4) Aptitude test 2 (social and leadership skills)	.13	.001	.28	.50	.24
5) Frequency of drinking alcohol	-.11	.001	-.21	.51	.26
6) Had no job nor were not at school (d)	-.09	.001	-.15	.52	.26
7) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.08	.01	.29	.52	.27
8) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.07	.01	-.05	.52	.27
9) Aptitude test 1 (“IQ-test”)	-.07	.05	.10	.53	.27
10) Frequency of exercising	.06	.05	.21	.53	.28
11) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-.06	.05	-.19	.53	.28
12) Gender	.05	.05	.06	.54	.28

*Note.*  $n = 1,141$ . (d) = A dummy variable. For the whole 12-item model,  $R = .54$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .28$ . For the individual correlations ( $r$ ),  $p < .001$ .

Table A8.2

*Background Predictors of Military Adjustment Expectations at Time 1 (without Aptitude Measures)*

Background Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Significant others had a positive attitude towards military service	.16	.001	.36	.36	.13
2) Desired duty and service period	.18	.001	.36	.46	.21
3) Received enough information about conscription	.17	.001	.30	.50	.25
4) Had sleeping disorders (d)	-.12	.001	-.25	.52	.27
5) Had quarreled with a teacher or supervisor (d)	-.07	.001	-.20	.53	.28
6) Frequency of drinking alcohol	-.08	.001	-.22	.54	.29
7) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.09	.001	.30	.55	.30
8) Frequency of exercising	.08	.001	.24	.55	.30
9) Reported disease or injury before service (d)	-.06	.01	-.13	.56	.31
10) Had no job nor place to study before military service (d)	-.06	.01	-.12	.56	.31
11) Marital Status	-.06	.01	-.09	.56	.31
12) Got along with parents	.05	.05	.21	.57	.32
13) Thought drug tests should not be allowed (d)	-.05	.05	-.20	.57	.32
14) Had learning problems at school	.04	.05	.18	.57	.32
15) Had lived in more than 8 places (d)	.04	.05	.00	.57	.32

*Note.*  $n = 1,979$ . (d) = A dummy variable. For the 15-item model,  $R = .57$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .32$ .

Table A8.3

*Scales and Background Predictors of Military Adjustment Expectations at Time 1*

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	<i>p</i> of $\beta$	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i>	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
1) Acceptance of Authority (S)	.24	.001	.61	.61	.37
2) I will feel at home in military service	.16	.001	.59	.68	.46
3) Physical Health (S)	.24	.001	.48	.71	.52
4) Military service is going to have a negative impact on my civil relationships	.13	.001	.44	.73	.54
5) Sociability (S)	.11	.001	.48	.74	.54
6) I am highly motivated to complete my military service	.09	.001	.54	.74	.54
7) Frequency of exercising	-.10	.001	.24	.74	.55
8) Marital status	-.07	.001	-.09	.74	.55
9) Received enough information about conscription	.05	.01	.30	.75	.55
10) Adjustment in Civilian Schooling (S)	.06	.01	.43	.75	.56
11) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-.04	.05	-.25	.75	.56
12) I am stepping into military service with positive expectations	.04	.05	.48	.75	.56
13) Had lived in more than 8 places (d)	.03	.05	.00	.75	.56

Note. *n* = 1,979. (d) = A dummy variable. For the model, *R* = .75 and Adjusted *R*<sup>2</sup> = .56.

Table A8.4

*Multiple Regression of Predictor Scales on Military Adjustment Expectations at Time 1*

Predictor Scales	$\beta$	<i>r</i>
Affective Commitment	.21***	.56
Intent to Stay	.02 ns.	.40
Emotional Stability	.06**	.43
Physical Health	.20***	.50
Sociability	.14***	.51
Acceptance of Authority	.31***	.63
Adjustment in Prior Schooling	.06**	.44

Note. *n* = 1,965. *R* = .74 and Adjusted *R*<sup>2</sup> = .54. Method = Enter. For all *r*, *p* < .001.



***Time 2 – Military Adjustment***

Table A8.5

*Background and Aptitude Predictors of Military Adjustment Experiences in BT*

Background and Aptitude Items	$\beta$	<i>p</i> of $\beta$	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i>	Adj. $R^2$
1) Desired duty and service period (time 1)	.24	.001	.39	.39	.15
2) Significant others had a positive attitude towards service	.13	.001	.29	.44	.19
3) Aptitude test 2 (leadership and social skills)	.12	.001	.31	.47	.22
4) Had no job; not in school (d)	-.10	.001	-.16	.48	.23
5) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.08	.001	-.07	.49	.24
6) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.10	.001	.26	.50	.24
7) Marital status	-.09	.001	-.10	.51	.25
8) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-.08	.01	-.16	.51	.26
9) 12-minute run (distance run)	.07	.05	.16	.52	.26
10) Aptitude test 1 ("IQ-test")	.06	.05	.23	.52	.26
11) Father has died (d)	-.05	.05	-.07	.52	.26
12) Was fired from a job (d)	.06	.05	.01	.52	.27
13) Attitude towards drugs	-.05	.05	-.18	.53	.27

*Note.*  $n = 1,134$ . (d) = A dummy variable. In the model,  $R = .53$ , and Adjusted  $R^2 = .27$ .

Table A8.6

*Background Predictors of Military Adjustment in BT (without Aptitude Measures)*

Background Items	$\beta$	<i>p</i> of $\beta$	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i>	Adj. $R^2$
1) Desired duty and service period (time 1)	.26	.001	.39	.39	.15
2) Significant others had a positive attitude towards service	.14	.001	.31	.45	.20
3) Frequency of exercising	.08	.001	.22	.46	.21
4) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.11	.001	.26	.47	.22
5) Marital status	-.10	.001	-.11	.48	.23
6) Reported sleeping disorders (d)	-.07	.001	-.15	.49	.23
7) Had no job; not in school (d)	-.07	.001	-.10	.49	.24
8) Attitude towards drugs	-.06	.01	-.18	.50	.24
9) Received enough information about conscription	.06	.01	.17	.50	.25
10) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.06	.01	-.04	.50	.25
11) Military post was more than 150 miles from home (d)	.04	.05	.07	.51	.25
12) Had quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor (d)	-.05	.05	-.13	.51	.25
13) Father had completed military service and his rank was	.04	.05	.17	.51	.25
14) Gender	.04	.05	.08	.51	.26

*Note.*  $n = 1,810$ . (d) = A dummy variable. In the 14-item model,  $R = .51$ , and Adjusted  $R^2 = .26$ .

Table A8.7

*Pretraining Predictors (t1) of Military Adjustment Experiences in BT*

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	<i>p</i> of $\beta$	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i>	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
1) Military Adjustment (S)	.34	.001	.54	.54	.29
2) Desired duty and service period	.17	.001	.39	.58	.34
3) Adjustment in Schooling (S)	.11	.001	.36	.60	.36
4) Marital status	-.10	.001	-.11	.60	.36
5) Affective Commitment (S)	.10	.001	.43	.61	.37
6) Military service is going to have a negative impact on my civil relationships (reverse coded)	.06	.01	.32	.61	.37
7) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.05	.01	-.04	.61	.38
8) Sociability (S)	.06	.05	.33	.62	.38
9) Had no job; not in school (d)	-.05	.01	-.10	.62	.38
10) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.06	.01	.26	.62	.38
11) I am stepping into military service with positive expectations	-.05	.05	.31	.62	.38
12) Got along with parents	-.04	.05	.11	.62	.39
13) Frequency of exercising	.04	.05	.22	.62	.39

Note. *n* = 1,810. (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. For the 13-item model, *R* = .62 and Adjusted *R*<sup>2</sup> = .39.

Table A8.8

*All Time 1 and 2 Predictors of Military Adjustment Experiences in BT*

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	<i>p</i> of $\beta$	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i>	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
1) t2_Acceptance of Authority (S)	.20	.001	.70	.70	.48
2) t2_I have felt at home in military service (i)	.09	.001	.65	.76	.57
3) t2_Service Impact on Civilian Life (S)	.11	.001	.56	.78	.61
4) t2_Physical Health (S)	.20	.001	.50	.80	.64
5) t1_Military Adjustment (S)	.24	.001	.54	.82	.67
6) t2_Intent to Stay (S)	.12	.001	.56	.83	.68
7) t1_Physical Health (S)	-.14	.001	.31	.83	.69
8) t2_Sociability (S)	.12	.001	.55	.84	.70
9) t2_Regimentation (S)	.09	.001	.64	.84	.70
10) t1_I am stepping into military service with positive expectations	-.07	.001	.31	.84	.70
11) t2_I am highly motivated to complete my military service	.09	.001	.65	.85	.71
12) t1_Sociability (S)	-.03	.07	.33	.85	.71
13) b_Marital status	-.04	.001	-.11	.85	.72
14) b_I was hazed at school	-.04	.01	.08	.85	.72
15) t2_Emotional Stability (S)	.08	.001	.52	.85	.72
16) t1_Emotional Stability (S)	-.06	.001	.25	.85	.72
17) t2_My motivation has not decreased (d)	.04	.01	.39	.85	.72
18) b_Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.03	.05	-.04	.85	.72
19) t2_I do not feel a part of this society (system)	.05	.01	.50	.85	.72
20) t2_Normative Commitment (S)	-.05	.01	.50	.85	.72
21) b_Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.04	.01	.26	.85	.73
22) t2_Organizational Climate (training and atmosphere)	.05	.01	.57	.85	.73
23) t2_Peer Bonding (S)	-.03	.05	.40	.85	.73
24) t1_I do not feel a part of this society	-.03	.05	.25	.85	.73

Note. *n* = 1,803. (S) = A scale. (b) = A background item. (d) = A dummy variable. For the 24-item model, *R* = .85 and Adjusted *R*<sup>2</sup> = .73.

Table A8.9  
*Predictor Scales(t1-t2) of Military Adjustment Experiences in BT*

Predictor Scales	$\beta$	$r$
t1_Military Adjustment (6)	.30***	.54
t2_Affective Commitment (5)	.20***	.65
t1_Affective Commitment (5)	-.10***	.43
t2_Normative Commitment (2)	ns.	.50
t1_Normative Commitment (2)	ns.	.33
t2_Intent to Stay (2)	.14***	.56
t1_Intent to Stay (2)	ns.	.28
t2_EmotionaI Stability	.11***	.53
t1_EmotionaI Stability (5)	-.09***	.25
t2_Physical Health (3)	.19***	.51
t1_Physical Health (3)	-.15***	.31
t2_Sociability (6)	.16***	.56
t1_Sociability (6)	-.08***	.33
t1_Acceptance of Authority (3)	ns.	.40
t2_Regimentation (4)	.18***	.64
t2_Peer Bonding (7)	ns.	.40
t2_Experienced Hazing (3)	ns.	-.34
t2_BT Leaders (6)	.06**	.50
t2_Organizational Climate (2)	.05*	.57
t2_Challenging and interesting training (i)	ns.	.53
t2_Stressful Life Events (6)	-.06**	-.40
t1_Stressful Life Events (9)	ns.	-.17
t1_Adjustment at School (2)	.05*	.36

Note.  $n = 1,802$ . (5) = The number of items in the scale.  $R = .83$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .69$ . Method = Enter. For all  $r, p < .001$ .

Table A8.10  
*Predictor Scales(t2) of Military Adjustment Experiences in BT*

Predictor Scales	$\beta$	$r$
Affective Commitment	.19***	.65
Normative Commitment	ns.	.50
Intent to Stay	.15***	.56
EmotionaI Stability	.08***	.53
Physical Health	.12***	.51
Sociability	.14***	.56
Regimentation	.22***	.64
Peer Cohesion	ns.	.40
Experienced Hazing	ns.	-.34
Leaders	.08***	.50
Organizational Climate	.06*	.57
Challenging and Interesting Training (i)	ns.	.53
Stressful Life Events	.07***	.40

Note.  $n = 1,812$ . (i) = An individual item.  $R = .79$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .62$ . Method = Enter. For all  $r, p < .001$ .

### Time 3 – Military Adjustment

Table A8.11

#### Background and Aptitude Predictors of Military Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service

Background and Aptitude Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Significant others had a positive attitude towards service	.17	.001	.31	.31	.09
2) Aptitude test 2 (leadership and social skills)	.15	.001	.30	.40	.15
3) Desired duty and service period (time 1)	.12	.001	.28	.42	.18
4) Attitude towards drugs	-.12	.001	-.22	.44	.19
5) Graduated education level	.10	.001	.21	.46	.20
6) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.10	.001	-.10	.47	.21
7) Had quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor (d)	-.08	.01	-.18	.47	.22
8) Mother had died (d)	.08	.01	.08	.48	.22
9) Marital Status	-.08	.01	-.09	.48	.23
10) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.08	.01	.25	.49	.23
11) Had had 6 to 8 jobs (d)	.06	.05	.06	.49	.23

Note.  $n = 1,021$ . (d) = A dummy variable. In the 11-item model,  $R = .49$ , and Adjusted  $R^2 = .23$ .

Table A8.12

#### Background Predictors of Military Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service (without Aptitude Measures)

Background Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Significant others had a positive attitude towards service	.18	.001	.29	.29	.08
2) GPA at comprehensive school	.10	.001	.22	.36	.13
3) Desired duty and service period (time 1)	.14	.001	.27	.39	.15
4) Attitude towards drugs	-.08	.01	-.20	.41	.16
5) Had quarreled with a teacher or a supervisor (d)	-.07	.01	-.15	.42	.17
6) Received enough information about conscription	.07	.01	.15	.42	.18
7) Parents had a positive attitude towards military service	.08	.01	.22	.43	.18
8) Marital status	-.06	.05	-.09	.43	.18
9) Thought drug tests should not be allowed (d)	-.06	.05	-.16	.43	.18
10) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.05	.05	-.04	.44	.19
11) Graduated education level	.06	.05	.18	.44	.19

Note.  $n = 1,640$ . (d) = A dummy variable. In the 11-item model,  $R = .44$ , and Adjusted  $R^2 = .19$ .

Table A8.13

#### Pre-Training Predictors ( $t_1$ ) of Military Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	$p$ of $\beta$	$r$	$R$	Adj. $R^2$
1) Military Adjustment (S)	.22	.001	.41	.41	.16
2) Adjustment in Schooling (S)	.11	.001	.35	.46	.21
3) Affective Commitment (S)	.15	.001	.37	.48	.23
4) Graduated education level	.08	.01	.18	.49	.24
5) Significant others had a positive attitude towards service	.10	.001	.29	.50	.25
6) GPA at comprehensive school	.07	.01	.22	.50	.25
7) I do not feel a part of this society (system)	.07	.01	.26	.51	.25
8) Marital status	-.06	.01	-.09	.51	.26
9) Attitude towards drugs	-.05	.05	-.20	.51	.26
10) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (d)	-.04	.05	-.04	.51	.26
11) Got along with parents	-.05	.05	.11	.51	.26

Note.  $n = 1,640$ . (S) = A scale. (d) = A dummy variable. For the 11-item model,  $R = .51$  and  $R^2 = .26$ .

Table A8.14  
*Predictor Scales(t1-t2) of Military Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service*

Predictor Scales	$\beta$	$r$
t2_Affective Commitment (5)	.11**	.46
t1_Affective Commitment (5)	ns.	.37
t2_Normative Commitment (2)	ns.	.36
t1_Normative Commitment (2)	ns.	.28
t2_Intent to Stay (2)	.11***	.39
t1_Intent to Stay (2)	ns.	.22
t2_Emotional Stability	ns.	.36
t1_Emotional Stability (5)	ns.	.25
t2_Physical Health (3)	ns.	.32
t1_Physical Health (3)	ns.	.24
t2_Sociability (6)	.10**	.39
t1_Sociability (6)	ns.	.28
t1_Acceptance of Authority (3)	.12***	.37
t2_Regimentation (4)	.10**	.42
t2_Peer Bonding (7)	ns.	.29
t2_Experienced Hazing (3)	ns.	.24
t2_BT Leaders (6)	.08**	.37
t2_Organizational Climate (2)	ns.	.39
t2_Challenging and Interesting Training (i)	ns.	.35
t2_Stressful Life Events (6)	ns.	.26
t1_Stressful Life Events (9)	ns.	.14
t1_Adjustment at School (2)	.14***	.35

Note.  $n = 1,624$ . (5) = The number of items in the scale.  $R = .57$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .32$ . Method = Enter. For all  $r, p < .001$ .

Table A8.15  
*Predictor Scales of Military Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service*

Predictor Scales	$\beta$	$r$
Affective Commitment	.11***	.50
Normative Commitment	ns.	.41
Intent to Stay	.09***	.46
Emotional Stability	.04*	.48
Physical Health	.21***	.60
Sociability	.42***	.68
Regimentation	.17***	.50
Peer Cohesion	-.07***	.38
Friends	-.04*	.27
Experienced Hazing	ns.	.33
Confidence in Squad Leaders	ns.	.27
Confidence in Platoon Leaders	ns.	.25
Confidence in Instructors	ns.	.20
Unit Climate	.07***	.35
Positive Experiences	.04*	.37
Training Information and Feedback	ns.	.24
Training Quality	ns.	.28
Stressful Life Events	.06***	.24
Personal civilian things decreased my motivation (d)	-.06***	-.14

Note.  $n = 1,513$ .  $R = .81$  and Adjusted  $R^2 = .65$ . Method = Enter. For all  $r, p < .001$ .

Table A8.16

*All Predictors of Military Adjustment Experiences at the End of Service*

Predictor Scales and Items	$\beta$	<i>p</i> of $\beta$	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i>	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
1) Sociability (t3)	.35	.001	.67	.67	.45
2) Military Adjustment (t2)	.33	.001	.61	.76	.58
3) Regimentation (t3)	.13	.001	.53	.79	.62
4) Physical Health (t3)	.24	.001	.60	.81	.65
5) Affective Commitment (t3)	.06	.05	.50	.82	.67
6) Physical Health (t2)	-.08	.01	.35	.82	.68
7) Quarrels with girlfriend (t3) (d)	-.04	.05	-.18	.83	.68
8) Intent to Stay (t3)	.07	.01	.49	.83	.69
9) Sociability (t2)	-.08	.01	.40	.83	.69
10) I am highly motivated to complete my military service (t3)	.09	.01	.48	.83	.69
11) Marital Status (t1)	-.06	.01	-.09	.84	.70
12) Military post was less than 7 miles from home (t1) (d)	-.04	.05	-.08	.84	.70
13) I want to participate in refresher training in a couple of years (t2)	-.05	.05	.34	.84	.70
14) Experienced Hazing (t3)	-.07	.01	.32	.84	.70
15) Emotional Stability (t3)	.08	.01	.50	.84	.70
16) Significant others had a positive attitude towards military service (t1)	.06	.01	.32	.84	.71
17) I have felt different from my fellow conscripts (t2)	.07	.001	.29	.84	.71
18) Emotional Stability (t2)	-.06	.05	.35	.85	.71
19) My friends in military service have helped me significantly in adjusting to military life (t3)	-.06	.01	.30	.85	.71
20) Unit Climate (t3)	.06	.01	.40	.85	.71
21) Unit Climate (t2)	-.06	.05	.41	.85	.71
22) Positive Experiences (t3)	.05	.05	.40	.85	.72
23) Attitude towards Drugs (t1)	-.04	.05	-.23	.85	.72
24) Intent to Stay (t2)	-.05	.05	.39	.85	.72

*Note.* *n* = 932. (t3) = time 3. (d) = A dummy variable. For the 24-item model, *R* = .85 and Adjusted *R*<sup>2</sup> = .72.

## Correlations Between the Main Measures at Time 1, 2, and 3

Table A9.1

### Correlations at Time 1

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$\alpha$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Military Adjustment	3.95	.63	.77	1								
2. Affective Commitment	3.73	.96	.85	.55	1							
3. Achievement Motivation	4.03	.87	.73	.51	.73	1						
4. Intent to Stay	4.63	.81	.64	.39	.52	.44	1					
5. Acceptance of Authority	3.96	.81	.65	.61	.58	.60	.45	1				
6. Sociability	4.00	.66	.76	.48	.39	.42	.37	.46	1			
7. Emotional Stability	4.30	.76	.76	.41	.32	.36	.43	.43	.56	1		
8. Physical Health	3.68	.84	.77	.49	.36	.34	.28	.38	.41	.35	1	
9. Adjustment in Schooling	3.86	.82	.67	.43	.37	.46	.26	.47	.42	.39	.38	1

*Note.* *n* for correlations = 2,003. *n* for scale properties = 1,660. Each correlation was significant at the  $p < .001$  level (2-tailed).

Table A9.2

### Correlations Between the Main Measures at Time 2

Measurement Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Adjustment	1														
2. Intent to Stay	.56	1													
3. AC	.65	.54	1												
4. NC	.50	.55	.70	1											
5. ES	.52	.46	.40	.37	1										
6. Physical Health	.51	.38	.44	.32	.44	1									
7. Sociability	.55	.42	.44	.36	.60	.46	1								
8. Authority	.69	.49	.65	.56	.47	.40	.49	1							
9. Regimentation	.64	.44	.63	.44	.43	.37	.44	.61	1						
10. Peer Cohesion	.40	.30	.42	.35	.37	.26	.48	.39	.37	1					
11. Hazing	.34	.34	.27	.27	.44	.26	.40	.35	.28	.38	1				
12. Leaders	.50	.35	.49	.40	.35	.30	.39	.55	.50	.47	.36	1			
13. Atmosphere	.37	.27	.34	.28	.28	.24	.35	.31	.31	.48	.28	.35	1		
14. Training	.53	.39	.67	.48	.32	.32	.36	.51	.54	.44	.22	.47	.31	1	
15. Stressful Events	.40	.33	.31	.25	.35	.32	.26	.35	.36	.20	.26	.36	.20	.26	1

*Note.*  $n = 1,831$ .  $p < .001$ . AC = Affective Commitment; NC = Normative Commitment; ES = Emotional Stability.

Table A9.3  
Correlations Between the Main Measures at Time 3

The Main Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Military Adjustment	1																	
2. Intent to Stay	.46	1																
3. Affective Commitment	.51	.46	1															
4. Normative Commitment	.42	.51	.61	1														
5. Emotional Stability	.48	.48	.30	.34	1													
6. Physical Health	.60	.33	.32	.29	.43	1												
7. Sociability	.66	.34	.33	.27	.48	.55	1											
8. Acceptance of Authority	.59	.44	.53	.49	.48	.39	.39	1										
9. Regimentation	.49	.32	.49	.33	.34	.31	.30	.51	1									
10. Peer Cohesion	.38	.29	.40	.31	.41	.32	.47	.38	.26	1								
11. Friends	.27	.22	.32	.29	.26	.22	.35	.26	.17	.51	1							
12. Experienced Hazing	.33	.32	.23	.21	.46	.33	.39	.28	.27	.37	.23	1						
13. Conscript Leadership	.33	.28	.32	.26	.28	.25	.25	.39	.30	.41	.24	.23	1					
14. Instructors	.20	.14	.25	.20	.14	.13	.15	.24	.24	.24	.15	.12	.31	1				
15. Unit Climate	.35	.28	.40	.34	.29	.22	.30	.35	.26	.49	.36	.24	.31	.21	1			
16. Training Feedback	.24	.20	.30	.24	.23	.20	.20	.31	.27	.37	.24	.18	.40	.43	.29	1		
17. Training Quality	.28	.20	.36	.30	.16	.17	.19	.33	.33	.30	.21	.15	.37	.40	.33	.49	1	
18. Stressful Life Event	.25	.19	.13	.08 <sup>^</sup>	.21	.19	.11	.17	.23	.08 <sup>^</sup>	ns.	.17	.10	.07 <sup>^</sup>	.10	.09	.12	1

Note.  $n = 1,660$ . For the scales about instructors and training,  $n$  was 1,553.  $p < .001$ . <sup>^</sup>  $= p < .01$ .



## Correlations Between the Main Measures and the Military Adjustment Index

Table A10

*Correlation Between the Main Measures and Military Adjustment over Time*

Measurement Scales	Military Adjustment (t1)	Military Adjustment (t2)	Military Adjustment (t3)
t1: Military Adjustment	1	.55	.40
t2: Military Adjustment	.55	1	.58
t3: Military Adjustment	.40	.58	1
t1: Adjustment at School	.38	.37	.35
t1: Intent to Stay	.28	.26	.22
t2: Intent to Stay	.32	.54	.38
t3: Intent to Stay	.24	.36	.46
t1: Affective Commitment	.50	.43	.37
t2: Affective Commitment	.39	.65	.46
t3: Affective Commitment	.26	.41	.51
t1: Emotional Stability	.37	.27	.25
t2: Emotional Stability	.34	.51	.36
t3: Emotional Stability	.25	.32	.48
t1: Physical Health	.44	.30	.24
t2: Physical Health	.34	.51	.32
t3: Physical Health	.27	.37	.60
t1: Sociability	.47	.35	.28
t2: Sociability	.40	.56	.39
t3: Sociability	.30	.40	.66
t1: Acceptance of Authority	.56	.42	.37
t2: Acceptance of Authority	.46	.70	.49
t3: Acceptance of Authority	.32	.46	.59
t2: Regimentation	.37	.63	.42
t3: Regimentation	.26	.37	.49
t2: Lack of Hazing	.22	.33	.24
t3: Lack of Hazing	.17	.20	.33
t2: Peer Cohesion	.27	.39	.29
t3: Peer Cohesion	.21	.32	.38
t2: Basic Training Leaders	.31	.49	.37
t3: Conscript Leaders (in a squad and platoon)	.17	.26	.33
t3: Instructors <sup>(a)</sup>	.06*	.12	.20
t3: Training Quality <sup>(b)</sup>	.13	.21	.28

Table A10 (continued)

t3: Unit Climate	.17	.26	.35
t3: Positive Experiences <sup>(a)</sup>	.20	.31	.37
t3: Personal Growth and Development	.21	.32	.46
t1: Stressful Life Events	.18	.16	.14
t2: Stressful Life Events	.21	.39	.26
t3: Stressful Life Events	.10	.18	.24
t2: Service Impact on Civilian Relationships	.33	.56	.38
t3: Service Impact on Civilian Relationships	.22	.31	.40

*Note.*  $n = 1,651$ . <sup>(a)</sup>  $n = 1,527$ . Each correlation is significant at the  $p < .001$  level (2-tailed), except <sup>(\*)</sup>  $p < .05$ .

**Structural Equation Modeling for another Sub-Sample of the Data**

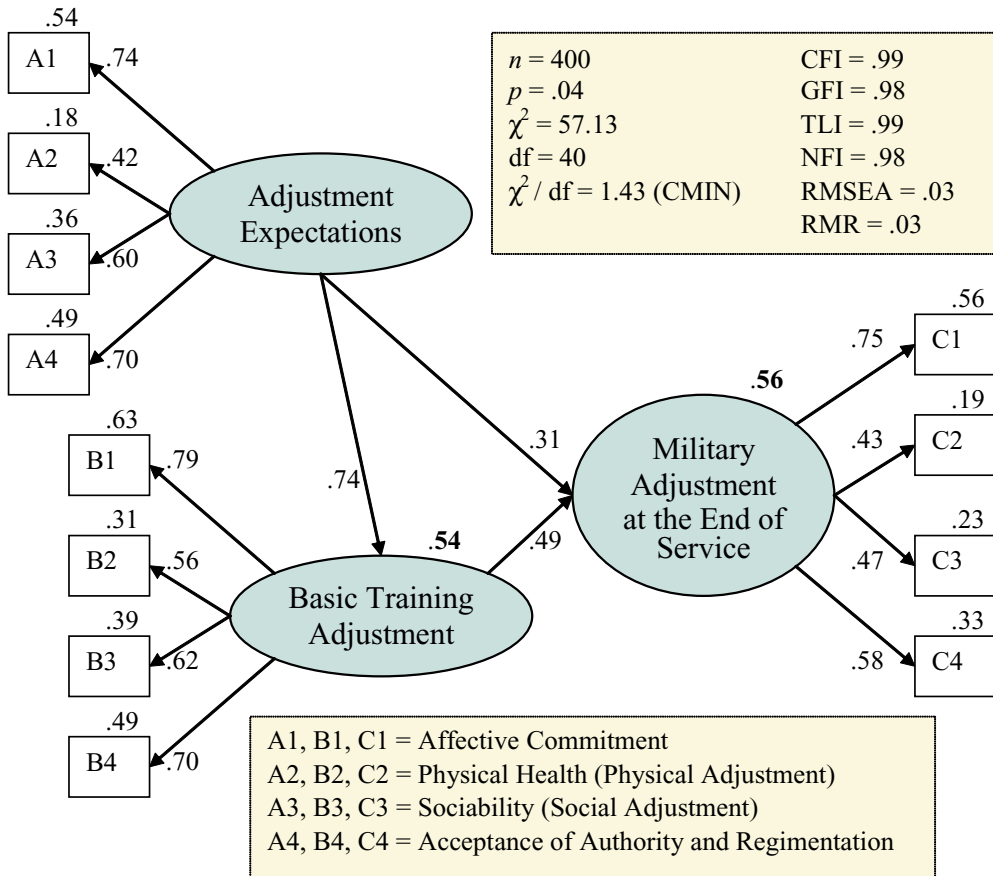


Figure A11. Cross-Validation of the Structural Equation Model of Adjustment Factors over Time

## Recommendations to Commanders, Instructors, Small Group Leaders, and Recruits

*Recommendations to the Company Commanders.* The *company commander* should be experienced, mature, and committed to his or her work, and only the best officers should be promoted to company commanders. From the privates' point of view, it is better to have a poor battalion commander and an excellent company commander than vice versa since the immediate supervisor is more instrumental to conscripts' well-being and experiences (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989, p. 547). Once there is a capable company commander, he or she should have enough freedom of action. In terms of management, this means that the company commander has enough time for focusing on the development of the recruits and their needs instead of being buried under paperwork and secondary puttering around. Therefore, headquarters should serve unit level actions (not the opposite) in order to support the effectiveness of the units.

Consequently, only a few essential statistics (i.e. personal and group performance, turnover, personal commitment, and unit level satisfaction) should be reported to headquarters and all other bureaucratic links should be minimized. In return, all instructors and company staff officers should stay away from computer screens to do their thinking and carry out training among their subordinates in challenging field exercises. Since some bureaucratic tracking is necessary for smooth running of the organization, professional secretaries could be employed in battalions to fill in the forms and write out training curriculums, weekly schedules, statistics on recruits' training and education, as well as to keep track on officers' overtime, salaries, and leaves in order to save the time of instructors and officers for training and interaction with their subordinates. The commander should implement new approaches and best practices that sustain the motivation and performance of the unit personnel. All these reforms are probably not needed in every military organization. However, the main thing is to search improvements in terms of the best organizational practices, welfare of subordinates, job satisfaction of workers, and training efficiency at the unit level.

All leaders are expected to be interested in supporting their subordinates' social, and psychological adjustment (Janowitz & Little, 1974, pp. 102–103). The leaders may assist this adjustment in more numerous ways than they realize. For example, the *company commander* is able to influence instructors' plans and conduct by (a) providing knowledge about adjustment factors and coping strategies, (b) setting priorities about what he wants to be taught and in which order, intended main experiences over a certain period of time (and why these experiences are important), (c) appointing responsible instructors and their assistants to formal training, (d) guiding unofficial education and indoctrination, (e) deciding what kind of behavior is monitored, controlled, appraised, and rewarded, and (f) instructing remedial training and conduct of adjustment problems, such as how to ensure developmental challenges for each cognitive tier, tools for supporting those with learning challenges, and procedures for reducing adjustment problems (such as deviance or avoidance of service). Such guidance demonstrates the expertise of the commander and his or her position as a supervisor in charge of all training in the unit. If the unit commander does not

lay out his or her standards for training, then somebody else controls the daily routines and training in that unit.

The aforementioned example denotes to the company commander's indirect effect on the adjustment of recruits through managing unit policy and supporting the work of instructors. From the recruits' point of view, the *company commander* equals a father figure that represents the whole unit and the military. Thus, the commander is a manager who affects the recruits by creating impressions about the functioning and purpose of the unit, the meaning of daily practices and service, and the leadership and learning climate. The commander is able to resort to symbolic, military culture specific, signs (routines, rituals/ceremonies, symbols, and accounts) in the assimilation of his military personnel. In broad terms, the commander is to increase identification with the unit and commitment to the military, and therefore, should be concerned about how the levels of commitment are sustained both during service and in reserve. Shortly, the company commander should emphasize the meaning of military service until and even after the end of service of the contingent.

The company commander is responsible for everything in the unit. The *company commander* should particularly show that every man is needed and valuable and cared for in the unit, in order to build trustworthy relationships with subordinates. If the commander is perceived to be able to solve their problems and guide them in hard times, the recruits begin to trust and appreciate him or her, and, consequently, the recruits are integrated both affectively (emotionally and socially) and instrumentally (with tasks and duties) with their squad, platoon, and unit. From the commander's point of view, his or her unit is victorious when the recruits are well-trained and socialized service members, meaning that they (a) cope with and control new situations and their own emotions under stress, (b) conform to military norms and rules, (c) possess the required skills and knowledge for effective group performance, (d) support their friends, leaders, and group on and off duty, and (e) value their service and country.

Drawing from the above mentioned guidelines, the following three-tier set of suggestions may help a *company commander* to succeed. First of all, in terms of human resources, be aware of what is happening in your unit. Care and respect your subordinates. Know every recruit by name, hometown and hobbies. Keep a close connection to the recruits. Share experiences with your subordinates and offer them opportunities to get to know you. Value the welfare of the recruit more than your own. Look after the welfare of your people also in informal and unofficial practices. Show interest and involvement in group relations in your unit. Recognize problems and start to solve them at once when encountered. Maintain order and safety, cut out hazing and punish people who have harassed others. Facilitate interpersonal relationships, teamwork, and group identification by acknowledging positive group level aspects (e.g. performance, cohesion, low absence rates, helping between people, and good atmosphere in the group, such as jokes or lack of hazing).

Secondly, when it comes to daily routines, leave time-consuming simple administrative tasks for others and focus on planning, training, and creating even closer contacts with your subordinates in every chain of command. Arrange outdoor training and field exercises as much as possible. Keep learning by doing as a key principle in your unit. Create progressive meaningful challenges for each person and the whole unit. Utilize manipulation, reasoning,

cajoling, persuasion, and group consensus as methods for transferring activities and attitudes towards unit goals and purposes. Assign well-trained, mature, emotionally stable and empathic people who have the widest range of leadership, social and task-related skills for service as squad and platoon leaders. Allocate squad leaders to guarantee that there is at least one excellent leader in every platoon. Educate your subleaders and guide them for even better personal taskwork and leadership behavior.

Thirdly, as for increasing commitment to service and values, transmit military culture by instilling values and emphasizing on proper social norms (e.g. honesty or prosocial behavior). Emphasize unit traditions and history by telling stories about war heroes and having parties and ceremonies from time to time. On the other hand, commit yourself to the group activities, goals, and the benefit of service members. Overall, spend more time with the recruits, structure the training better, identify recruits' deficiencies in skills and knowledge, provide support and help soldiers with their problems in the military and also in civilian life, build unit image and pride, and utilize rewards, recognitions, and promotions. Always protect your unit and show your best interest in its welfare.

*Recommendations to the Instructors and Small Group Leaders.* Since adjustment requires more resources during the very first phases of the socialization process, a poor *instructor* causes more damage during the start of the socialization process than in the later stages of group membership, and, therefore, only well-qualified instructors should be allowed to be in contact with recruits. As an instructor or a leader, therefore, take care of your professionalism, because military competence is a key component in earning respect from your subordinates and supervisors. Knowledge, training skills, and experience lead to self-confidence and expertise that can be recognized in leader-subordinate exchange and team members' satisfaction. Thus, demonstrate exemplary behavior in all circumstances in performance, military bearing and courtesy. Work to become a role model and identification figure in your unit. Try to maintain your position also as an informal leader of the group who affects the aspirations, values, and aims of other team members in social behavior.

The *instructors* should be adept at creating open communication and well-timed, correct, and adequate information for recruits. Particularly, announcements and informal contacts are the main sources of information. Instructors need more opportunities for interaction with subordinates and, conversely, the recruits should have close contacts with their superiors. As Laurence et al. (1996, p. 16) note, increased interaction and improved guidance and counseling increase the workload of instructors and other superiors. Therefore, the unit- and upper-level actions should backup the instructors' work as much as possible in the ways expressed above.

Adequate information reduces uncertainty, anxiety, and frustration (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999, pp. 62, 68) and, therefore, prevents maladjustment problems. When the *instructor* feels the pulse of the subordinates' life in the unit, he or she should easily recognize what kind of information is needed. The recruits should be timely informed about and explained what they are doing, when, and why, in order to make the routines and performance meaningful. Consequently, information increases the predictability of the future, makes sense of what is happening in the unit, and improves the perceptions of leadership. On the other hand, if

the recruits are not satisfied with the communication and information flow, the instructors are the correct people to be blamed and responsible for it.

The *instructors* can support their small group leaders by delegating to squad leaders means to exert control and award benefits and rewards to recruits. However, this requires careful knowledge about what makes a difference in conscripts' daily routines and which small things are appreciated among them. Particularly, young conscript leaders need guidelines and training for finding practical ways to support the recruits in the socialization process: how they ought to indoctrinate recruits in each socialization stage, how to identify individual or organization-related problems of the recruits in the adjustment process, which actions should be taken to solve encountered problems, and what are the explicit training methods and the implicit educational techniques for instilling proper attitudes, altruism, obedience, and socially acceptable norms. All this should be logically distinguished from the official curriculum that focuses on duty-related knowledge and skills, although virtually these two components (indoctrination and training) merge and intertwine in daily military practices. The unit could support the assimilation of newcomers by establishing a *sponsorship* where small group leaders and other older (conscript) members of the unit look after, help and tutor new recruits. These sponsorship relationships should be based on voluntarism and willingness to help. Recruits who are given extra support could be determined on the basis their background problems, current physical or emotional adjustment difficulties, or characteristics similar to those of the sponsor (e.g. based on the same hometown or similar hobbies). Also remedial actions and programs could be anticipated and planned in advance with initially pointed leaders or other more experienced conscripts. If the immediate (conscript) leaders look after their subordinates and are trusted and appreciated, they (in comparison to career officers and instructors) have an opportunity to become a part of the same social entity (i.e. the conscripts' reference group and the idea about "us").

Next, some more practical suggestions and guidelines of how a *small group leader* could act and perform as a guide, trainer, and supervisor of recruits are proposed. These suggestions could be tested or examined in the future research and interventions regarding small group relationships. From the recruits' point of view, a leader is supposed to exert both emotional and instrumental support in order to support the personal adjustment process and the functions of the group. Therefore, the structure of the recommendations starts from this classification of leader support.

Thus, in terms of *emotional support*, always take good care of your recruits. Provide emotional support by helping them with their military or civilian problems. Talk with the recruits also off duty. Listen to their questions and problems. Find answers to problems as fast as possible. Do not promise anything that you are not able to do. Inform your supervisor if there is something that should be changed in training programs, timetables, or routines to alleviate emotional problems (e.g. by having enough smoking breaks). Organize living arrangements in your group in a way that the gifted recruits take care of the weaker ones. Prove your solidarity to your group. Do not talk to other leaders or soldiers about the details of personal talks with your men. Share time and discomfort with your subordinates. Altogether, utilize close relationships, informal talks, and same experiences to bring you closer to your subordinates.

As for *task and instrumental support*, explain why rules and procedures ought to be followed and orders obeyed, because meaningfulness makes regimentation and behavioral standards more acceptable and understandable. Represent the organizational goals and norms while you provide advice and counseling for the recruits. If you are not able to understand why things are performed or conducted as they are, there is something wrong with the procedures and you should find a way to turn them into effective and rational daily actions. In other words, provide a reason for every action and keep them in congruence with the group's social or task-related goals. Consequently, once the recruits understand the meaning and logic behind the routines and regimentation, they more likely behave in accordance with them and may even suggest improvements in order to support the smooth functioning of the group.

Since you have more autonomy and better access to information than your recruits, forward adequate information to your subordinates and explain how the training and education are related to the purpose of service and the benefit of personal and organizational goals. After establishing norms, routines, goals, and overall mission, always act as a role model and in a way that exemplifies the purpose of the group and performance of an effective member. Particularly, give information and guidance in field exercises. A tough exercise gives you a chance to show your expertise and "soldiership". Do not save yourself but, give everything to your leadership and performance. In addition, share the level of comfort with your subordinates. Eat and sleep in the same place with them and you will get to know them and they will find you a trustworthy and straightforward leader (if you deserve it).

Think through every performance that is conducted by your group. Familiarize yourself with and simplify actions by writing lists in which each action is detailed. Such lists should also be clearly related to the practical goals of the group. When you know every aspect of the team- and taskwork in your group, then it is easier to train your subordinates, to notice insufficient parts of performance, and to give exact, helpful feedback in order to make group performance even better. Create action tendencies by combining single acts to logically and functionally working sequences that in the end cover the main behavioral patterns in the military. Organize and inform about sequential phases and set identifiable steps which make development more visible. In addition, teach necessary coping strategies and performance that give the subordinates a feeling of competence. Show the recruits that they have had progress and how they are able to continue learning. As a basic rule: support and provide backup for the weakest ones, and inspire and challenge the most talented recruits.

A sense of meaningful training is an essential part of creating commitment. Therefore, convince that particular training is worthwhile at the personal and group level of action. While training your group, give clear directions and orders (that you have prepared in advance), and if possible, always first set an example of performance. And, when performing, be in the middle of the action but expect your subordinates to be able to perform by themselves (after they have learnt the basics). After performing, give immediate feedback specifying the most essential mistakes and describing how they can be solved in the next action. However, always remember to both recognize the try and effort and give thanks for excellent performance. Then, train the unit until it has reached an adequate proficiency level.



In training, provide everyone with the same knowledge and skills. Sharing the same task and distributing social knowledge in turn support the functioning of the group. Teach duty-specific “Can-Do” skills (i.e. technical and tactical know-how and maintenance of equipment) and more broad “Will-Do” skills that demonstrate peer support, self-development, continuous learning, effort and leadership, personal discipline and military bearing, physical fitness, and core technical and soldiering proficiency. Improve your subordinates’ physical fitness by training them on and off duty, monitoring their progress, testing them in 6 to 8 week intervals, recognizing their effort, and rewarding the best personal advancement. Altogether, plan training, timetables, and physical environment in a way which is effective for training and education as well as for supporting the physical and social adjustment of recruits.

When everyone has accumulated know-how and experienced success, then make sure (by training more) that every person is able to perform the main tasks of others at one hierarchical level lower and higher (e.g. the squad leader should know how to act as a platoon leader and as a soldier). In teams where people work close together (e.g. around an artillery piece), train your subordinates until every team member knows the other members’ procedures. By training your subordinates in this manner, you will achieve excellent group performance besides founding a positive learning climate and establishing strong interpersonal ties in your group.

Motivate your subordinates in every possible way. Before a series of actions, explicitly state concrete personal and group goals, and briefly explain their relation to the (crystallized) vision. Besides notice good performance, particularly, reward people whose actions supported the achievement of the *group* goal or activities. If you do not have enough opportunities for rewarding your recruits, ask if the company commander could reward an exceptional person and the best group in the platoon after particular performance.

When you notice any differences in your plan from your supervisor’s or other platoon or squad leaders’ plans, discuss them to find the best way(s) for conducting training. Consequently, similar standards and common goals make norms and rules even more effective. Recruits do not doubt the way of routines and whether the mission should be fulfilled when every person and squad perform them in the same way and with a shared mental model. This forms a basis for collective experiences and atmosphere in your unit.

*Recommendations for Supporting the Socialization and Adjustment Process.* In terms of *socialization process* and induction of recruits, the instructors together with the conscript leaders determine the nature of the organizational design that is experienced by the recruits. This “design” comprises the structure and processes that coordinate and control, for example, the socialization process, information and feedback flow, routine procedures, and all duties and jobs in a unit. As a leader, at first emphasize indoctrination, then (after the recruits have learnt the ropes) start to focus on training requirements. Manifest clear requirements, unit standards, allowed and sanctioned behaviors, and bureaucratic procedures in your platoon. Such complete but simple and clear guidelines ease the adjustment process in the long run after they are calmly trained in their smallest detail.

Personally welcome every recruit in the first day of service. Arrange a platoon meeting after everyone has arrived. Use this moment for creating the first 24-hour schedule (or informing

about it) and establishing a survival goal for the first days. Interview every soldier as soon as possible (i.e. during the first two or three days) to learn about the recruits' characteristics, to give them the first guidance, to identify recruits who may need more assistance in their learning and socialization process, and to create comprehensive and meaningful goals for the first days of service. Acquaint the recruits with one another as soon as possible. Assign the recruits useful activities and keep them moderately busy. Allocate breaks where the recruits have enough time for a cup of coffee or smoking. For example, between lectures, it is better to arrange every second break to last 5–10 minutes and conversely the other breaks as 20–25 minutes than to have every break last for 15 minutes.

Bringing the group members together provides social comparison, emotional support, and leaders' jointed focus. Therefore, keep the recruits teamworking, and organize pieces of work that require concerted actions of every person in order to be fulfilled. Remember that your duty is to create an affective linkage between recruits, between your subordinates and you and other leaders, and between recruits and the goals and performance of the formal unit. To achieve this objective, emphasize the importance of sustaining friendship and helping mates. Ease communication and cooperation in the group between the recruits and especially between the recruits and all their leaders. Familiarize yourself with the recruits and form a trusting relationship with them. Find your own personal way of developing close relationships with the recruits while maintaining authority and their respect, to be able to lead them effectively. You can increase daily connections with your subordinates by living in the same barracks with them. This will help to diminish the differences between ranks and get you closer to the place and conditions where your help is mostly needed. Additionally, you may instill proper attitudes and correct behavior when you are part of the creation of attitudes and informal norms.

In terms of *maladjustment types* or categories, the next discussion provides practical recommendations for how leaders could response to some typical problems in service. Once the leader notices *mental/emotional adjustment problems* in his or her group, he or she should inform the instructor or his supervisors as early as possible to find an effective intervention into it. The squad leader should have a private discussion the conscript who has adjustment problems about his or her self-perceived reasons of the problems and the practical coping strategies for solving them. The leader may establish small goals on a day-by-day basis. If the problems can not be easily solved, the recruits ought to discuss with the instructor and/or the company commander because they have more experience about functioning coping strategies in particular situations. If emotional adjustment problems arise due to social adjustment difficulties, a platoon or company change could be considered (as a last solution to the problem) in order to help personal adjustment and keep the spirit intact at the original group. In case of facing a difficult personal problem, sometimes the help from outside the unit is more readily accepted and therefore meeting a chaplain, a welfare officer, or a doctor may assist in finding a solution to the problem. Naturally, the discharge of the conscript is evident if other strategies do not alleviate the problem. However, the discharge may facilitate the organization in its adjustment to new personnel more than actually help the individual in question. In other words, the discharge may not solve anything at the personal level if the person walks out with his or her problems to civilian life and social relationships.

In this research, *social adjustment problems* were not problematic in conscript service in general. Still, it should be born in mind that entering the military denotes a radical change in close interpersonal relationships, and therefore, to establish new ties with other group members, the recruits need assistance in their social adjustment (e.g. Dawson et al., 1994b, p. 9). Some part of social adjustment is supported without visible assistance of the leader by organizing daily activities and living circumstances in a way that prop up social relationships in the group. For example, by keeping squad and platoon members physically close together, with constant presence of peers and the immediate leaders, and with increased opportunities to interaction and cooperation in training and daily routines, the recruits quickly receive all the necessary information, instructions for proper behavior, acceptance and appreciation, assistance in duties, and backup in their personal problems. Such strong positive primary group relationships with other peers and leaders provide essential emotional and instrumental support that protect against stressful experiences in military. In addition, such situations increase willingness to mutual help because the recruits soon realize that they may need help as well because the same (imaginary) difficulty could happen to them (Hobfoll & Vaux, 1993, p. 692). Consequently, the recruits may create a social identity that unites them with peers and with their immediate leaders which, in turn, motivates them to invest their time and effort in favor of the primary group.

*Social adjustment problems* are also alleviated by leaders' active support in social experiences. For example, the leaders' effort is essential for transmitting norms about social behavior and emphasizing the meaning of mutual help and assistance of group members in order to make the group life satisfying and to support group performance. Especially after initial socialization, maintaining a buddy network, helping others, and open communicating do no longer guarantee satisfaction with group membership in the squad. Then, it is a leader's challenge to provide the subordinates with ethical, moral, and behavioral social skills for interpersonal relationships, to explain the possible consequences of misbehavior, share experiences and positive stories about group success, present useful ways to use time for the benefit of social relationships and success of the group, support fairness in duties and off duty activities, provide emotional and instrumental support, incorporate cliques, eliminate hazing, solve interpersonal conflicts properly, stimulate participating in planning and decision making, support interdependence and teamwork, establish intergroup competitions, and offer recognition for those who promote positive group experiences. Such group-level interventions may be effective because they improve the nature of relationships in the group, intensify its functioning, and enhance the likelihood of positive experiences as a group member which, in turn, have a positive effect on personal-level (social) adjustment experiences and commitment to serve in the military (cf. Hicks & Nogami, 1984, p. 83; Mathieu & Kohler, 1990, p. 220).

Moreover, utilize constant presence of peers and squad leaders and foster social pressure, shared mental models and norms. Familiarize yourself with the theory and practice of social learning and team building. Support social learning by emphasizing modeling, imitation, and learning in practice with others. Show recruits what is valued and what is expected of them to learn, behave, and perform. Utilize social comparison to instill proper norms and behavior of the group. In team building, develop a sense of mutual trust, respect, and responsibility in joint performance of your subordinates. So, the whole squad is responsible

for avoiding mistakes and misbehavior and achieving the goals. Thus, the recruits are put to help each other and pull together while conducting duties to get the shared task done. Talk about your mutual experiences in the group and use the word “we” more than “I”.

*Physical adjustment problems* are typically more easily solved. Also in this case, an early discovery makes it easier to help the recruit. Again the reason behind the problem should be identified. For example, if a minor physical injury is due to poor physical health prior service, the person can be given an easier task and a personal exercise program can be organized. Small steps in exercising with monitored tests of improvement of the physical condition support personal self-efficacy and motivation to continue the service and training. Also encouragement and small awards can be implemented to motivate personal effort. Thus, in addition to rewarding the best sportsman in the unit, “the biggest loser” (as a loss of overweight), the diligent trainer (e.g. a person who exercises 15 days a month), or the biggest improver (e.g. a person who advances most in terms of muscle strength or a distance run) merits a reward. Such varied reward options most likely motivate a wide range of people (in terms of their physical condition at the start of service). Altogether, personal programs, (small) goals, tests in intervals, fair backup with rewards, and personal guidance and support by instructors most likely erase most of the physical adjustment problems.

In the case where a person experiences maladjustment due to *learning problems* in training, an open atmosphere (without hazing or bullying of the slowest learner or performer), remedial training, personal goals and programs (to achieve the same as others), and social support by peers and leaders stand out as tools for alleviating such problems. It is vital that the immediate leader takes care of the person, and the informal leader of the group (a mate who is more influential in group life) could be designated as extra staff to teach the person off duty. Obviously, those who help and support others and the success of the whole group should be recognized, for example, in commendations or with extra leaves.

According to the results of this research, *civilian problems* turn to military adjustment problems if they are prolonged. Therefore, a soldier with civilian problems requires additional arrangements. Before any problems are encountered, the commanding officers and other leaders should mitigate homesickness and possible civilian social problems of recruits by allowing them to be in contact with home and friends, to see their significant others off duty when they visit the garrison, and by allocating leaves when the civilian problems are acute. Problems are better to be discussed with leaders or group members than kept burdening one’s mind. Access to a chaplain and a welfare officer should be free and known by all recruits because they are invaluable professional supporters in the case of social or economic problems. Mutual trust and a close contact between the company commander and the welfare officer assist also a recruit when he or she needs a vacation for meeting a girl- or boyfriend or arranging a loan. Again, a personal touch and care of peers and leaders alleviate civilian problems.

In summary, a squad or platoon leader may substantially support the adjustment process by motivating the recruits, by presenting practical coping strategies, teaching behavioral and soldiering skills and knowledge, instilling appropriate attitudes and aspirations; directing interpersonal relations, communication, and coordinated actions, affording leader support, and creating loyalty to mates, leaders, the group and the unit. Although leaders

in every organizational level may decisively support the adjustment process, the main recommendation is to the whole military organization. That is, the services should provide a systematic curriculum that focuses on the educational, psychological, physiological, and social psychological challenges of service and consequently boosts the development of the conscripts' mental, social, physical, and leadership skills. Thus, the military needs training programs that support the conscripts' adjustment process and personal growth by meeting the following requirements:

- (a) strengthening previous skills, knowledge, and positive attitudes about oneself and others,
- (b) teaching practical coping skills and new competencies,
- (c) assisting the conscripts to learn about themselves, such as building self-control, perseverance, self-esteem, and self-efficacy,
- (d) cultivating personal goals and values,
- (e) taking advantage of positive group dynamics, such as group roles and norms, friendship, communication, cooperation, and task and goal attainment; in this dimension, the emphasis is on social learning and support,
- (f) showing in the leader-subordinate exchange that supervision may benefit all; in order to be successful in this dimension, the leaders need to be carefully selected and acquire the best qualities in terms of demonstrated care, concern, and competence,
- (g) taking the benefit from organizational structure, policies, and practices, which all enhance support, fairness, and effectiveness when the management meets a person, and
- (h) helping the conscripts to solve personal civilian problems.

When the military organization starts to transform a civilian to a member of a unit by promoting the service members' mental and physical health, developing a desire for continuous learning and improvement as a soldier, promoting personal responsibility, social consciousness, and proper behavior and manners among peers and leaders, stressing the need of social support and helping others, and providing elementary knowledge in military subjects, the need for attrition and adjustment research is minimized and the military adjustment case can be closed.

*Recommendations to a Recruit.* The following is written for advising a recruit. Before military service, organize your civilian obligations. Talk with your parents, friends, and a possible girl- or boyfriend about your service and about their perceptions of it. Remember that your friends who have already served may put their own into their stories. Therefore, do not lock your attitude towards service on the basis your friends' attitudes, but try to gather information from many sources (e.g. the Internet, *To Become a Conscript* –booklet, relatives, parents, and books). Take a look at “The handbook of the conscript” if you find it in the library. Your friends should have the book if they have finished their service. In terms of physical preparation, exercise systematically. Track your development and continue to improve your physical condition in service. Make plans and personal goals for your service. Seek relevant information about conscription, the particular garrison or brigade, and the military in general. The more you know, the more likely you have correct expectations of what will happen to you (which will reduce your stress).

After the entry, create a positive meaning for the situation and think positively. This was the main advice that other conscripts gave you in this research. Plan your future and make alternative plans if the primary plan is destroyed. Concerning those plans, establish personal objectives that are meaningful to you. Consequently, you will be more interested in the time in the military when you get something beneficial out of it. For example, select military police training if you are interested in work in the field of security; apply for leadership training if you would like to become a leader in a civilian organization; use your time for exercising (off duty) because you are “trapped” and it is a useful way of spending time that directly benefits you; or bond with other group members because there may be a good person who helps with passing time and surviving in the military.

Be alert. Try to learn things at once. Train more if your skills are not at the average level of the group. If you are always the last one or the poorest performer, you will draw your mates’ and the leaders’ attention. Thus, do your share. If your group suffers due to your mistake, you will suffer in the end (due to your reduced status in the group). Find the balance that suits your own and the group’s standards. Do everything in moderation according to group standards and never get others into trouble due to your behavior.

The more you know, the more effortlessly you perform. Therefore, seek for more information and improve your skills. Rely on your leaders, mates, or significant others in civilian life to find alternative ways of behaving and thinking positively. In addition, monitor the behavior and outcomes of other members and your leaders, learn from their mistakes and follow behavioral examples that turned out to be successful. Automate your behavior and customize yourself with routines, as they will free energy for other issues. Adopt correct habits and manners that help in coping. Listen to instructions carefully and learn the main practices as soon as possible, and the military life may turn out to be surprisingly easy.

If you want to become a leader, try your best in learning and performing and show your best potential in tests. However, find a balance between being a potential leader and being a stupid hero. In other words, do not bring your ambitious to your social relationships in a group. Do not discuss your wild goals with others and do not volunteer too often because others may not be as committed and your overwhelming performance may put your mates in a less favorable position.

Control yourself. Keep your cool and pull yourself together when you are extremely angry. An emotional burst only creates more problems. When you are in dire straits, bear with it and transfer your thinking to things that you will do once you are out of the trouble. Find the humorous aspect of the situation and share it with your mates. If you have problems in being motivated and you are busted – that is totally normal in the military. Vent your emotions on friends and try to find a positive solution that allows you to finish the service, secures your good relationships with peers, and does not worsen the situation and your relationships with your leaders. Do not start to avoid service by malingering or AWOL because it normally brings only more problems. Under several difficulties contact your instructor/officer and ask to get a leave. They most likely accept it once they know about your stress and hardship and once you are ready to take the responsibility for your problems. If the problem is at the group level, such as being dissatisfied with some details of daily service or living, take

concerted actions to solve the problem and to find alternative solutions. Do not try to change the situation by yourself but discuss the problem with your peers and also try to get the leaders behind you. If you get an idea that could help others, bring it forward. Stay healthy, do not drink excessively, and exercise.

And it's useful to keep in mind that you are not alone. The barrack room is full of similar people with the same kind of problems needing to adjust. Therefore make friends and maintain friendships. Learn the names of others and talk with them whenever you have a chance. Spend time and do things with them and you will have a great time in the military (due to friendship with other recruits). Always look after your mates (and in battle never leave them behind). Pay attention to your mates to recognize when they might need your support. Helping others brings acceptance and improves social standing in the group which translates into you getting help when you need it. Furthermore, discuss problems and possible solutions with others. Talk, (think), and behave for your group. Be always loyal to your group and friends thereby building mutual trust. Do not laugh at others – laugh with them. Never call your mates names or bully them. Instead, protect and support the weakest one. In short, integrate yourself into the new primary group on and off duty by forming friendships with your peers as well as working relationships with the superiors.

The conscript leaders are carefully selected, but they may not have the best maturity to take care of you. If you have an adequately skilled squad leader – be glad. If you have problems with your leader – openly discuss and solve them. When the problem seems to be difficult, meet the next level superior who is normally a commissioned cadre officer who should be able to solve it. Under legitimate authority, obey orders. However, creatively and constructively influence your leaders in order to guarantee that they take care of you and the whole group. You have more influence on the leader when you have a suitable informal relationship with him or her. Therefore, maintain working relationships with all your leaders.

If you have a significant other, keep her or him happy by maintaining constant contact. When you are on your first leaves, do not talk all the time about military experiences, although they are topmost in your mind but instead ask what she or he has been doing. Spend one-on-one time with her or him (without seeing your military friends at the same time).since unless you are considerate, you will loose her or him.

In summary, you can prepare for the future and be responsible for your attitudes, behavior and their consequences. There are several positive and yet effective coping strategies that you may use in the adjustment process:

- a) gather information from booklets and Internet,
- b) discuss with your family and friends and try to find a solution to current problems in relationships, try find time to meet them during service, and do not always talk about military experiences but also listen and ask how their life is going when you are away,
- c) actively seek friends in your squad and platoon,
- d) form a working relationship with your supervisor,
- e) try to learn essential knowledge and skills, since acquiring them will help you in later adjustment,
- f) try to automate your daily routines and you do not have to pay attention to them as much,

- g) take care of yourself (exercise, eat healthily, and sleep enough); h) keep your home front clean (arrange your financial situation and the closest relationship in a way that you do not have to worry about them every minute), and
- h) do not take everything so seriously and think positively.

The above suggestions focus on active, problem-focused coping methods. Another way of coping is taking the situation as granted without any action to change it. Although these coping strategies are more passive than the actions in the previous category, they may be functional in particular situations. For example, the following kind of coping may work in a situation which is unchangeable or uncontrollable. You can reduce stress by trying to see the humorous aspects of the situation, not worrying about the situation, trying to look on the bright side of things, relaxing with hobbies, exercising, mediating, bearing with discomfort, or rewarding yourself after the experiences, for example, during the next leave.

The above mentioned suggestions are related to positive or neutral coping strategies that focus on solving or emotionally easing the problem. However, you may not always have strength to positive coping actions. Therefore, some examples of defensive coping strategies that can be used temporarily are listed below. For example, if you are losing your mind and you do not have any resources to utilize positive coping techniques, there are some useful avoidance techniques (that let you bear with the burden): keep out of sight, say and do nothing if not asked to, make the current work look more demanding or time-consuming to evade the next one, never volunteer, and “get sick” by faking or making self-induced illness. While these may shortly alleviate your stress, the employment of them implies that you are not fully integrated to the group and organizational behavior in the socialization process and the use of these techniques will be noticed by peers and supervisors. Therefore, it is highly recommended to utilize more active problem solving strategies than such defensive ones in order to secure your adjustment, maintain or even improve your status in the group, and stay satisfied with the situation in a long run.





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